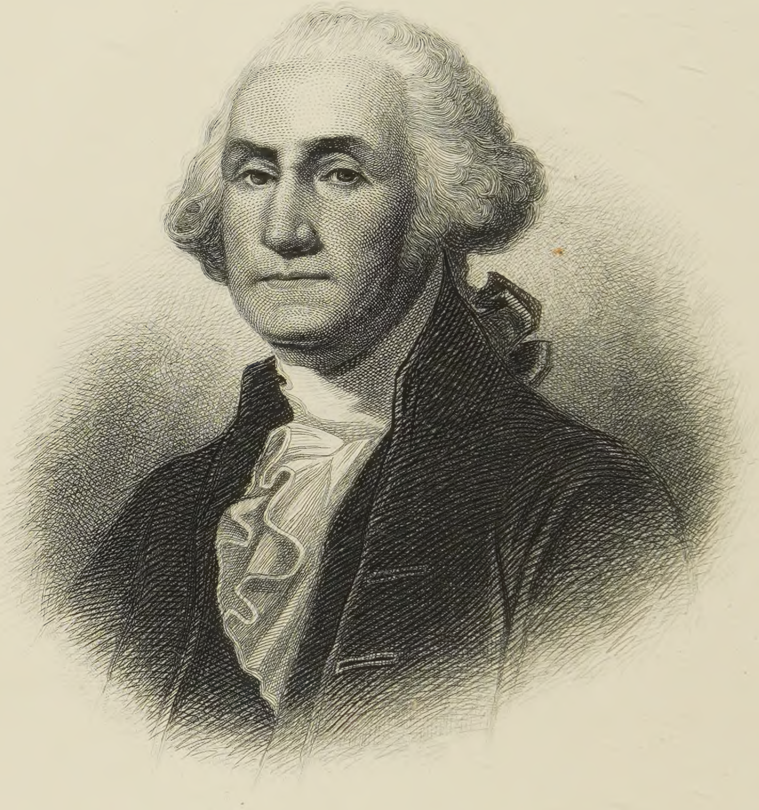
2 vols $12.00

Digitized by the Internet Archive
in 2026

https://archive.org/details/harperspopularcy0001bens



G. Washington

Eng^{d} by H.B. Hall & Sons 13 Barclay St N.Y.

HARPERS' POPULAR CYCLOPÆDIA

OF

UNITED STATES HISTORY

FROM THE ABORIGINAL PERIOD TO [illegible]

CONTAINING BRIEF SKETCHES

OF

IMPORTANT EVENTS AND CONSPICUOUS ACTORS

BY

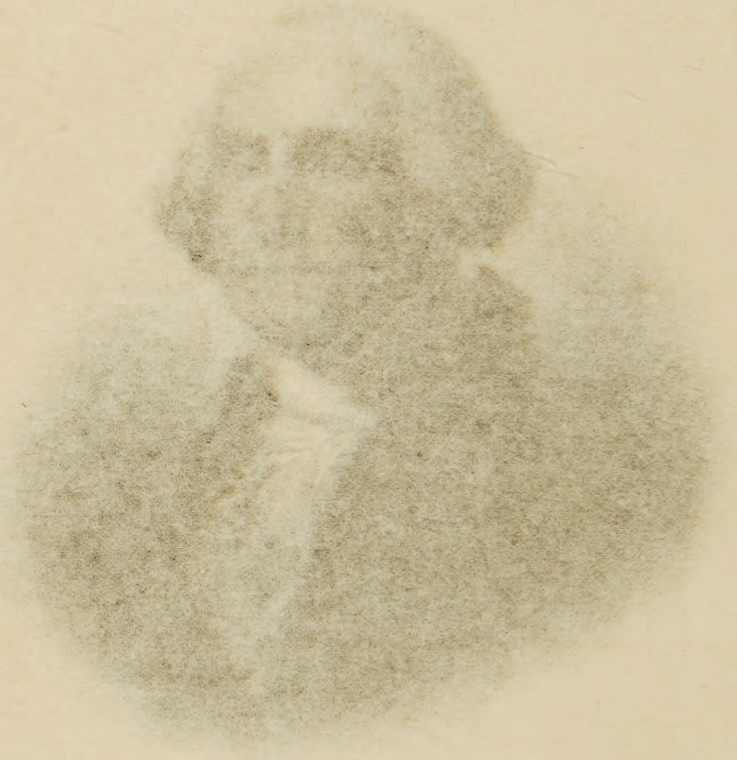
BENSON J. LOSSING, LL.D.

ILLUSTRATED BY OVER ONE THOUSAND ENGRAVINGS

IN TWO VOLUMES

VOL. I.

NEW YORK
HARPER & BROTHERS, PUBLISHERS
FRANKLIN SQUARE
[illegible]



G Washington

HARPERS' POPULAR CYCLOPÆDIA
OF
UNITED STATES HISTORY

FROM THE ABORIGINAL PERIOD TO 1876

CONTAINING BRIEF SKETCHES
OF
IMPORTANT EVENTS AND CONSPICUOUS ACTORS

BY
BENSON J. LOSSING, LL.D.

ILLUSTRATED BY OVER ONE THOUSAND ENGRAVINGS

IN TWO VOLUMES
Vol. I.

NEW YORK
HARPER & BROTHERS, PUBLISHERS
FRANKLIN SQUARE
1882

Entered according to Act of Congress, in the year 1881, by

HARPER & BROTHERS,

In the Office of the Librarian of Congress, at Washington.

PREFACE.

This work has been prepared for the purpose of supplying a want long felt by intelligent Americans engaged in every avocation of life who may not have leisure or opportunity for consulting volumes of our national history for information upon any subject of special inquiry.

The most important events in the history of the United States from the aboriginal period to 1876, with the dates of their occurrence and their connection with other events, may be found briefly recorded herein. Each record is generally preceded by a reference to the causes of the occurrence of the event, so that its relation to the general history of the Republic may be clearly seen. Brief biographies of the most conspicuous actors in the scenes recorded may also be found, for men and women constitute an essential part of every historical incident.

In this age of varied and intense activities of mind and body, none but persons of leisure or plodding specialists can afford to spend time in the perusal of the minute details of history. The vast multitude of men and women who are the chief constituents of society ask for the kernels of knowledge as sufficient for their daily intellectual food. It is for that intelligent multitude this work has been prepared—this want supplied—by which, without expensive research and by reference only to the proper initial letter of the title of any event or name of person mentioned in our history, they may find a general outline picture of that event or character, which may be filled in, if desirable, by consulting regular histories or elaborate biographies. Its function is the same as that of a labor-saving machine, doing its work with facility, inexpensively, and accurately.

It may be noticed that the biographical sketches, even of the most conspicuous characters, are sometimes given with almost the brevity of a chronology or genealogy. This has been done because their more important acts are recorded under various titles of events, and are omitted in the biographical sketches to avoid repetition. The same may be observed in the records of events. Some important occurrence is omitted because it may be found narrated in more detail under another head or in the biographical sketch of some distinguished person. In such cases, reference is made to the article in which such details may be found. For example, in a sketch of the Colony of Pennsylvania, where the fact is mentioned of the absorption by the Dutch of the Swedish colony on the Delaware, the reader is referred as follows: "See *New Sweden;*" or when reference is made to the founder of Pennsylvania, "See *Penn, William;*" or when the Lower Counties are referred to, "See *Delaware, Colony and State of;*" or when the boundary between the provinces of Pennsylvania and Maryland is mentioned, "See *Mason and Dixon's Line.*" Such references to men and events more fully noticed elsewhere abound throughout the work.

Illustrations have been given whenever practicable, not for embellishment only, but for usefulness; and great care has been taken to make them truthful delineations of the objects depicted. Many of them have been selected from other historical works by the author of this cyclopædia. The chief desire in the preparation of this work has been to make it a useful aid in the diffusion of a knowledge of our national history among our people. It is believed that it will be found very helpful as a book of reference—

1. To families, as an ever-ready response to questions concerning events in the history of the United States which may arise in the course of conversation or of home instruction;

2. To professional men, who often wish to find some recorded facts in our history, but have not the leisure or the opportunity to search through volumes for them;

3. To instructors of the young, especially to those who in schools teach the elements of our history from text-books, for teacher and pupils often wish to know more of subjects which are sometimes barely alluded to in the manuals;

4. To journalists, publicists, and writers of every class, whose vocation compels them to obtain information upon all subjects with as much facility as possible; and to statesmen and public speakers for the same reason.

This work combines the qualities of an illustrated history of the United States, a dictionary of American biography, and an American portrait gallery. In its preparation every available source of information has been sought. In its scope it is confined strictly to our national history, including persons and events elsewhere having a relation thereto.

Benson J. Lossing.

INDEX TO ILLUSTRATIONS.

A.

ABATIS, 883.
Acland, Christina Harriet, 5.
Acland, Major John Dyke, 5.
Adams, Charles Francis, 6.
Adams, John, 7.
Adams, John Quincy, 8.
Adams, Samuel, 8.
Agassiz, Louis John Rudolph, 13.
Alabama, State Seal of, 14.
Alabama, The, 15.
Albemarle, Ram, 18.
Algiers in 1800, 389.
Allatoona Pass, 24.
Allen, William Henry, 26.
Allston, Washington, 27.
Americus Vespucius, 38.
Ames, Fisher, 39.
Amherst, Sir Jeffrey, 39.
Ancient Dutch Church, 696.
Anderson, Alexander, 41.
Anderson, Robert, 44.
Anderson, R., Gold Medal presented to, 455.
André, John, 46.
André's Handwriting, Fac-simile of, 1410.
André's Monument in Westminster Abbey, 46.
Andrew, John A., 587.
Annapolis, State-house at, 1488.
Anne, Queen, 49.
Apollo Rooms, 342.
Arbuthnot, Marriott, 56.
Arkansas, State Seal of, 60.
Armistead, George, 62.
Armistead Vase, 510.
Armored Lookout, An, 406.
Armstrong, John, 63.
Arnold, Benedict, Birthplace of, 68.
Arnold's Disguised Handwriting, Fac-simile of, 1410.
Arnold's Route through the Wilderness, 70.
Arrest of Emily Geiger, 462.
Arsenal at St. Louis, 71.
Asgill, Charles, 653.
Atatarho, 694.
Atlanta, Fortifications around, 76.
Attorney-general's Department Seal, 459.
Audubon, John James, 81.
Averill, William W., 83.

B.

BACHE, ALEXANDER DALLAS, 84.
Badges, 87.
Bailey, Theodorus, 88.
Bainbridge, William, 88.
Bainbridge's Medal, 89.
Bainbridge's Monument, 89.
Baker, Edward Dickinson, 90.
Balloon, War, 90.
Baltimore, Cecil, Lord, 95.
Baltimore, Meeting-place of Congress in, 92.
Bancroft, George, 97.
Banks, Nathaniel P., 99.
Barker, Jacob, 102.
Barlow, Joel, 103.
Barney, Joshua, 105.
Barré, Isaac, 105.
Barren Hill, Lutheran Church at, 754.
Barron, James, 106.
Barry, John, 107.
Barry's Monument, 107.
Barton, William, 108.
Battle Monument, Baltimore, 1014.
Bayard, James Ashton, 111.
Beauregard, P. G. T., 113.
Beekman Mansion, 995.
Bellows, Henry W., 116.
Bemis's Heights, Neilson House on, 117.
Bemis's Heights, Plan of Battle on, 119.
Benjamin, Judah P., 120.
Benton, Thomas Hart, 121.
Biddle, James, 126.
Biddle, Nicholas, 126.
Biddle Urn, The, 1493.
Biddle's Medal, 126.
Big Black River, Passage of the, 128.
Billop House, Staten Island, 1060.
Bills of Credit, First, in America, 129.
Birmingham Meeting-house, 155.
Bisshopp's Monument, 132.
Black Partridge Medal, 240.
Bladensburg, Bridge at, 1861, 134.
Blakeley, Johnston, 135.
Blakeley's Medal, 1495.
Blennerhassett's Island Residence, 136.
Blockade-runner, A, 137.
Board of War, Seal of, 139.
Boggs, Captain, 1449.
Boone, Daniel, 142.
Boone's Fort, 143.
Boston, from Dorchester Heights, 453.
Boston Neck, View of Lines on, 146.
Boston Tea-party, 147.
Bowditch, Nathaniel, 149.
Boyd, John Parker, 150.
Brandywine, View at Chad's Ford on the, 155.
Brandywine, Washington's Headquarters at the, 154.
Brant, John, 156.
Brant, Joseph, 156.
Brant Monument, The, 157.
Breckinridge, John C., 157.
Brewster's (Elder) Chest, 158.
Bridge over Gunpowder Creek, Destruction of, 700.
British Standards, Surrender of, at Yorktown, 333.
Brock, Medal in Memory of, 163.
Brock's Monument, 163.
Broke, Captain, Silver Plate presented to, 237.
Broke, Sir P. B. V., 163.
Brooks, John, 164.
Brower's Mill, Gowanus, 807.
Brown, Jacob, 165.
Brown, Jacob, Gold Box of, 537.
Brown, Jacob, Medal awarded to, 1317.
Brownlow, W. G., 167.
Brown's Monument, 166.
Bryant, W. C., 168.
Buchanan, James, 169.
Buckingham, W. A., 171.
Bunker's Hill, Plan of Battle of, and Monument, 177.
Burgoyne Addressing the Indians, 178.
Burgoyne, Place of Surrender of, 1365.
Burgoyne, Sir John, 178.
Burke, Edmund, 179.
Burnside, A. E., 181.
Burnside Bridge, Antietam Creek, 53.
Burr, Aaron, 182.
Burrow's Medal, 186.
Butler, Benjamin F., 187.
Butts's Hill, View from, 1165.

C.

CABOT, SEBASTIAN, 189.
Cadwalader, John, 190.
Calhoun, John C., 191.
California, State Seal of, 192.
Canby, E. R. S., 201.
Capitol, Remains of, after the Fire, 1479.
Captors' Medal, The, 203.
Caravel, A Spanish, 277.
Carleton, Guy, 205.
Carondelet, The, 699.
Carpenters' Hall, 317.
Carpenters' Hall, Room in which Congress met, 318.
Carroll, Charles, 207.
Carroll, John, 208.
Cartier, Jacques, 209.
Carver's (Governor) Chair, 210.
Cascade Creek, Mouth of, 34.
Cass, Lewis, 210.
Castine, Fort, Remains of, 211.
Castle Thunder, 212.
Cavalry Obstructions, 213.
Cave Life in Vicksburg, 213.
Cedar Creek Battle-ground, 214.
Centennial Buildings, 216.
Chalmette's Plantation, Battle-ground at, New Orleans, 984.
Chambly, Fort at, 218.
Champlain, Samuel de, 219.
Chancellorsville, Ruins of, 222.
Channing, William Ellery, 223.
Charles II., 225.
Charter Oak, 229.
Chase, Salmon P., 230.
Chatterton's Hill, 1516.
Chesapeake and *Shannon*, 236.
Chicago, Block-house at, 239.
Chicago, Kinzie Mansion at, 239.
Chippewa, Street's Creek Bridge at, 244.
Chrysler's in 1855, 247.
Cincinnati, Certificate of Membership of the, 251.
Cincinnati in 1812, 249.
Cincinnati, Order of the, 250.
Claiborne, William C. C., 253.
Clarke, G. R., 254.
Clay, Green, 255.
Clay, Henry, 256.
Clay's Monument, 256.
Clem, John, 257.
Clinton, De Witt, 258.
Clinton, George, 259.
Clinton, James, 259.
Clinton, Sir Henry, 260.
Clinton's Despatch and Bullet, 260.
Clinton's Monument, 259.
Clipper-built Privateer, 1149.
Cobb, Howell, 262.
Cochrane, Catharine V. R., 1257.
Coddington, Governor of R. I., Residence of, 1209.
Coffee, John, 263.
Coin, First, in the U. S., 265.
Colden, Cadwallader, 266.
Colfax, Schuyler, 267.
Coligni, Jasper de, 267.
Colorado, State Seal of, 272.
Columbus, Banner of the Expedition of, 276.
Columbus, Christopher, 274.
Columbus, Landing of, 276.
Columbus, Ships of, 275.
Colyer, Vincent, 1437.
Combs, Leslie, 279.
Concord, Battle-ground at, 786.
Confederate Naval Commission, 288.
Confederate Rosette and Badge, 289.
Confederate State Department Seal, 291.
Confederate Treasury Note, 286.
Connecticut State Seal, 301.
Constitution House, The, at Kingston, 998.
Constitution, National, Signatures to the, 472.
Constitution, The Frigate, 312.
Continental Bill, Counterfeit, 321.
Continental Bills of Credit, 320.
Continental Draft, 315.
Continental Lottery Ticket, 319.
Contrast, The, 382.
Convention Troops, Encampment of, 324.
Cook, Lemuel, 321.
Cooper, J. Fenimore, 326.
Cooper, Peter, 326.
Cornwallis, Lord, 330.
Cow Chace, Fac-similes of, 338, 340.
Craney Island, Block-house on, 343.
Crawford, S. W., 344.
Crittenden, J. J., 348.
Croghan, Col. George, Medal awarded to, 520.
Croghan, George, 519.
Crosswicks, Friends' Meeting-house at, 979.
Crown Point, 350.
Curtin, A. G., 354.
Curtis, S. R., 354.
Cushing, Caleb, 354.

D.

DACRES, J. R., 356.
Dahlgren, J. A., 357.
Dale, Richard, 358.
Dale's Monument, 358.
Dartmoor Prison, 362.
Davie, W. R., 364.
Davis, Jefferson, 364.
Davis, Jefferson C., 365.
Deane, Silas, 368.
Dearborn, Henry, 368.
Decatur, Stephen, 369.
Decatur, Stephen, Medal awarded to, 1435.
Decatur's Monument, 370.
Declaration of Independence, Fac-simile of Portion of, 372.
Defences of Washington, Map of, 377.
De Grasse, Count, 376.
Delaware, State Seal of, 378.
Delft Haven, 1096.
Democratic Society Seal, 382.
De Monts, Sieur, 383.
Dennison, William, 384.
De Soto, Fernando, 386.

Dickinson, John, 390.
Dix, Famous Order of, 399.
Dix, John A., 398.
Dix Medal, The, 400.
Dorothea, Destruction of, 553.
Doubleday, Abner, 402.
Douglas, Stephen A., 402.
Douglass, Frederick, 402.
Draper, John W., 405.
Drayton, W. H., 405.
Duché, Jacob, 407.
Dunmore's Seal, 409.
Dupont, S. F., 411.

E.

Early, Jubal A., 417.
Earth-work near Newark, Ohio, 935.
Edwards, Jonathan, 424.
Electric Telegraph, Morse Apparatus, 426.
Electric Telegraph, Morse Key, 426.
Electric Telegraph, Morse Register, 426.
Elizabeth, Queen, 428.
Ellet, Charles, 429.
Ellet's Stern-wheel Ram, 869.
Elliott, J. D., 429.
Elliott Medal, The, 430.
Ellsworth, E. E., 431.
Ellsworth, Oliver, 431.
Emancipation Pen, 437.
Emancipation Proclamation, Fac-simile of, 433.
Embargo (Caricatures), 438, 439.
Embargo, Emblematic Representation of the, 1383.
Essex and her Prizes at Nooaheevah, 450.
Estaing, Count d', 451.
Eutaw Springs, 452.
Evans, Sir de Lacy, 456.
Everett, Edward, 456.
Ewell, R. S., 457.

F.

Faneuil Hall, 342.
Fanning, Edmund, 468.
Farragut, D. G., 469.
Federal Hall, 471.
Fersen, Axel, 475.
Fillmore, Millard, 476.
Firemen's Ambulance, Philadelphia, 478.
First Fight in Congress, 375.
Flag, Confederate, 491.
Flag, New England, 492.
Flag, Pine-tree, 492.
Fleury Medal, 494.
Floating Battery, American, 494.
Floating Battery at Charleston, 496.
Floating Battery, Section of, 495.
Florida, State Seal of, 496.
Foote, A. H., 501.
Foote's Flotilla, 602.
Fort Barrancas, 509.
Fort Defiance, Site of, 621.
Fort Erie, Ruins of, 1289.
Fort George, at New York, 994.
Fort George (Castine), Remains of, 661.
Fort Harmar, 1024.
Fort Harrison, 509.
Fort Motte, 514.
Fort Niagara, 515.
Fort Pickens, 516.
Fort Pulaski, 518.
Fort Stephenson, Site of, 520.
Fort Sumter in 1860, 42.
Fort Sumter in 1864, 43.
Fort Sumter, Interior of, after the Bombardment, 465.
Fort Sumter Medal, 455.
Fort Ticonderoga, Ruins of, 522.
Fort Washington, on the Site of Cincinnati, 614.
Fort Wayne in 1812, 524.
Fortress Monroe, 525.
Fox, George, 528.
Franklin, Benjamin, 532.
Franklin Medallion, 532.
Franklin Stove, 533.
Franklin, William B., 534.
Fraunce's Tavern, 1485.
Frederick, Fort, at Pemmaquid, 746.
Fredericksburg, Scene in, 536.
Frémont, J. C., 540.
French Creek, Mouth of, 543.
Frobisher, Martin, 549.
Fulton, Robert, 552.
Fulton the First, 495.
Fulton's Birthplace, 553.

G.

Gaines, E. P., 557.
Gaines's Medal, 557.
Gallatin, Albert, 558.
Gansevoort, Peter, 560.
Garrison, W. L., 560.
Gaspee Point, 562.
Gates, Horatio, 562.
Gates, Horatio, Medal awarded to, 1365.
Genet, E. C., 564.
George III., 566.
George III. in 1776, 567.
George IV., 842.
Georgia, State Seal of, 571.
Gerard, M., 482.
Germain, Lord George, 572.
Germantown, Chew's House at, 573.
Gerry-mander, The, 574.
Gettysburg, Little Round Top near, 576.
Ghent, 577.
Gibbon, Edward, 578.
Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, 579.
Gillmore, Q. A., 579.
Gist, Mordecai, 580.
Goldsborough, L. M., 584.
Goshen, Monument at, 884.
Government Bakeries at the Capitol, 947.
Government Toll-gate on the Cumberland Road, 687.
Grant, Ulysses S., 587.
Grant, U. S., Medal awarded to, 582.
Graves of Burrows, Blyth, and Waters, 445.
Great Bridge, View at, 589.
Great Chain and Mortars, 590.
Greeley, Horace, 591.
Greene and Pulaski Monument, 1160.
Greene, Gold Medal awarded to, 453.
Greene, Nathaniel, 593.
Greenough, H., 595.
Greenway Court, 463.
Gregory, F. H., 596.
Grenville, George, 596.
Gunboats, 601.

H.

Habersham, Joseph, 603.
Halleck, H. W., 606.
Hamilton, A., 606.
Hampden, Meeting-house at, 610.
Hampton, St. John's Church at, 611.
Hancock, John, 611.
Hancock's House, Boston, 611.
Hanging Rock, 612.
Hanover Court-house, 634.
Harnett's House, 615.
Harper's Ferry, 617.
Harper's Publishing House, 616.
Harrington, Jonathan, 785.
Harrison, William H., 619.
Harrison's Grave, 619.
Hartford Convention Candidate, 625.
Hartford Convention, Signatures of Members of the, 624.
Hartford, The, 953.
Havre de Grace, Pringle House at, 628.
Hayes, Rutherford B., 629.
Heckewelder, Maria, 631.
Heintzelman, S. P., 632.
Hendrick, King, 632.
Hendrick's Signature, 695.
Henry, Patrick, 634.
Herkimer's Residence, 1036.
Hicks, Thomas H., 636.
Hobkirk's Hill, Spring on, 639.
Hoe, Richard M., 640.
Holt, Joseph, 642.
Hood, J. B., 643.
Hooker, Joseph, 644.
Hopkins, Esek, 644.
Hornet and *Peacock*, 646.
Horse Island, Light-house on, 1237.
Houdon's Mask of Washington's Face, 648.
Houdon's Statue of Washington, 648.
Houston, Samuel, 649.
Howard, John Eager, 649.
Howard, J. E., Medal awarded to, 649.
Howard, Oliver Otis, 650.
Howe, Richard, 651.
Howe, Robert, 651.
Hudson, Henry, 653.
Hughes, Christopher, 1065.
Hull, Isaac, 656.
Hull, William, 657.
Hull's Albany Gold Box, 309.
Hull's Medal, 308.
Hull's Monument, 658.
Hull's New York Gold Box, 309.
Humphreys, David, 659.
Hutchings, William, 661.
Hutchinson, Thomas, 663.

I.

Illinois, State Seal of, 665.
Independence Hall, 674.
Indian, North American, 682.
Indiana, State Seal of, 681.
Interior Department Seal, 459.
Iowa, State Seal of, 693.
Iron-clad Vessel in 1814, 495.
Irving, Washington, 696.
Isabella of Castile, 697.
Island Number Ten, 698.
Izard, George, 701.

J.

Jackson, Andrew, 702.
Jackson, James, 706.
Jackson, T. J., 706.
Jackson, T. J., Despatch of, 827.
Jackson, William, 707.
Jackson's Statue at New Orleans, 705.
Jackson's Tomb, 703.
Jamestown in 1876, 709.
Jamison, David F., 1322.
Jay, John, 711.
Jefferson Caricatured, 715.
Jefferson, Thomas, 716.
Jefferson's Seal, 717.
Jersey Prison-ship, 1148.
Johnson, Andrew, 723.
Johnson, Sir William, 724.
Johnson's Monument, 1378.
Johnston, Joseph E., 726.
Johnston, William, 1101.
Johnston's Commission, 1101.
Johnston's Surrender, Place of, 726.
Jones, Jacob, 727.
Jones, Jacob, Gold Medal awarded to, 1493.
Jones, John Paul, 728.
Jones, Paul, Gold Medal awarded to, 142.

K.

Kalb, Baron de, 730.
Kalb's (De) Monument, 731.
Kalorama, 370
Kane, E. K., 731.
Kane's Vessel, Cutting-out of, 732.
Kansas, State Seal of, 732.
Kearney, Philip, 735.
Kent, James, 736.
Kenton, Simon, 737.
Kentucky, State Seal of, 738.
Kilpatrick, Judson, 741.
King Philip, 744.
King, Rufus, 745.
King's Ferry, Sign-board at, 747.
King's Mountain Battle-ground, 748.
King's Mountain, Monument on, 748.
Kinnison, David, 749.
Kip's House at New York, 994.
Kirkland, Samuel, 749.
Knapp, Uzel, 791.
Knox, Henry, 750.
Kosciuszko, Thaddeus, 751.

L.

La Colle Mill, 753.
Lafayette, Fort, 895.
Lafayette, Marquis de, 755.
Lafayette's Tomb, 756.
Lake Champlain, Scene of Naval Battle on (1776), 955.
Lamb, John, 761.
Laurens, Henry, 769.
Lauzun, Duke de, 770.
Lawrence and Ludlow's Monument, 772.
Lawrence, James, 771.
Lawrence, James, Medal awarded to, 646.
Lee, Charles, 774.
Lee, Henry, 776.
Lee, Henry, Medal awarded to, 1059.
Lee, Richard Henry, 777.
Lee, Robert E., 777.
Libby Prison, 787.
Liberty Bell, 788.
Liberty Cap Cent, 265.
Lifeguard, Banner of Washington's, 791.
Lifeguard, Fac-simile of Signatures of, 792.
Lincoln, Abraham, 794.
Lincoln, Benjamin, 794.
Lincoln, Medal awarded to, 795.
Lincoln's Inauguration, 797.
Livingston, Robert R., 802.
Livingston, William, 802.
Logan, John A., 804;
Longfellow, H. W., 807.
Longstreet, James, 808.
Lookout Mountain, Slope of, 809.
Louis XVI., 811.
Louis XVI., Memorial Medal of, 811.
Louisiana, State Seal of, 815.
Louisiana, The, 602.
Lundy's Lane, Site of British Battery at, 818.
Lutheran Church, Philadelphia, 1555.
Luzerne, De la, 819.
Lynn Haven Bay, 1556.
Lyon, Nathaniel, 821.

M.

Macarté's—Jackson's Headquarters, 985.
McArthur, Duncan, 821.
McCall Medal, The, 446.
McClellan, G. B., 823.
McConkey's Ferry, 1417.
McCook, A. McDowell, 823.
McCrea, Jane, Grave of, 824.
Macdonough, Thomas, 825.
Macdonough's Medal, 1108.
McDougall, Sir Duncan, 826.
McDowell, Irvin, 827.
McIntosh, Lachlan, 828.
Mackinack, from Round Island, 829.
Mackinaw, Fort, 466.
McLean's House, 55.
Macomb, Alexander, 831.
Macomb's Medal, 1108.
Macomb's Monument, 832.
McPherson Blue, A, 832.
McPherson, J. B., 833.
Madison, Dolly P., 834.
Madison, James, 833.
Maguaga Battle-ground, 835.
Maine, State Seal of, 838.

Malden, View of, 838.
Mallory, S. R., 839.
Manassas, The Ram, 954.
Marion, Fort, St. Augustine, 1181.
Marion, Francis, 845.
Marion's Residence, 845.
Marshall, John, 847.
Maryland, State Seal of, 852.
Mason, George, 1462.
Mason, James M., 854.
Massachusetts Bay (Map), 856.
Massachusetts Song of Liberty, Music of, 859.
Massachusetts, State Seal of, 860.
Mather, Cotton, 861.
Maumee Ford, 614.
Maumee Valley, from Fort Meigs, 511.
Mayflower, 1097.
Meade, G. G., 865.
Meagher, T. F., 866.
Mecklenburg Convention, Signatures of Members of the, 867.
Mercer, Hugh, Jr., 870.
Michigan, State Seal of, 877.
Mifflin, Thomas, 878.
Millen, Prison-pen at, 78.
Miller, James, 881.
Miller, James, Medal awarded to, 819.
Minnesota, State Seal of, 884.
Mischianza Ticket, 896.
Mississippi, State Seal of, 898.
Missouri, State Seal of, 899.
Mitchel, O. M., 903.
Mohawk Church, 909.
Mohawk Church, Communion Plate of the, 909.
Monhegan Island, 837.
Monitor and *Merrimac*, Battle between the, 911.
Monitor and *New Ironsides*, 911.
Monitor, Interior of Turret of, 910.
Monmouth Battle-ground, 913.
Monmouth Court-house, 912.
Monroe, from the Battle-ground, 548.
Monroe, James, 914.
Montcalm and Wolfe's Monument, 916.
Montcalm's Headquarters, 1168.
Montgomery, Richard, 917.
Montgomery's Monument, 917.
Monticello, 692.
Montmorency Falls, 1169.
Montreal in 1760, 918.
Moore's House at Yorktown, 332.
Morgan, Daniel, 920.
Morgan, Dr. John, 922.
Morgan, E. D., 921.
Morgan's Gold Medal, 341.
Morris, Charles, 926.
Morris, Gouverneur, 927.
Morris, Robert, 928.
Morris's House, Harlem Heights, 1515.
Morris's Monument, 927.
Morristown, Washington's Headquarters at, 929.
Morse, S. F. B., 930.
Mortar-boat, A, 698.
Morton, O. P., 932.
Motte, Rebecca, 934.
Moultrie, William, 934.
Mount Desert Island, 936.
Mount Hope, 744.
Mount Vernon, Mansion at, 1482.
Mühlenberg, J. P. G., 937.
Munson, Æneas, 938.
Murray, Lindley, 940.

N.

Naval Pitcher, 1422.
Navy Department Seal, 459.
Navy-yard at Gosport, Destruction of, 960.
Nebraska, State Seal of, 961.
Nelson Mansion, The, 964.
Nelson Monuments, 965.
Nevada, State Seal of, 966.
New Amsterdam, House in, 967.
Newburgh, Washington's Headquarters at, 969.
New Era, The, 602.
New Hampshire, First Seal of, 975.
New Hampshire, State Seal of, 977.
New Jersey, State Seal of, 980.
New London in 1813, 981.
New London, Old Court-house in, 981.
New Netherland, Seal of, 984.
New Orleans, Levee at, 989.
New York in 1664, 997.
New York, State House in, 1000.
New York, State Seal of, 1001.
Norfolk, St. Paul's Church at, 1008.
North Carolina, State Seal of, 1011.
North, Lord, 1009.
Nourse, Rebecca, House of, 1538.

O.

Ogden, Aaron, 1021.
Ogdensburg, Fort Presentation at, 1022.
Oglethorpe, J. E., 1022.
Ohio Battery Men, Graves of, 701.
Ohio, State Seal of, 1023.
Old Church at Jamestown, 86.
Old Colony Seal, 990.
Old Court-house, New Orleans, 704.
Old Magazine at Williamsburg, 409.
Old South Meeting-house, 10.
Ord, Edward O. C., 1033.
Oregon, State Seal of, 1034.
Osceola's Grave, 1038.
Oshawahnah, 1389.
Oswegatchie, Fort, 1039.
Oswego, Attack on, 1040.
Oswego in 1755, 1040.

P.

Paine, Thomas, 1045.
Paine's Monument, 1046.
Palmetto Cockade, 1047.
Paoli Monument, 1048.
Parker, Admiral Sir Peter, 1049.
Parker, Sir Peter, 1050.
Parrott Gun, 1367.
Patterson, Robert, 1057.
Paulding, Hiram, 1057.
Paulding, John, 1058.
Paulding's Monument, 1058.
Peace, Medal in Commemoration of, 1063.
Peace, Medal of Gratitude for, 1063.
Peale, C. W., 1068.
Pecan-tree, New Orleans, 1046.
Penn, William, 1071.
Penn's House, Philadelphia, 1072.
Penn's Seal, 1073.
Penn's Treaty Monument, 1073.
Pennsylvania, State Seal of, 1076.
Pepperell, Sir William, 1079.
Percy, Hugh, 1081.
Perry, Oliver H., 1081.
Perry, O. H., Medal awarded to, 758.
Perry's Battle-flag, 1082.
Perry's Despatch, 1083.
Perry's Monument, 1081.
Perry's Quarters at Erie, 1186.
Perry's Statue, 1082.
Pickens, Andrew, 1093.
Pickens, F. W., 1093.
Pickering, Timothy, 1093.
Pierce, Franklin, 1094.
Pike, Z. M., 1095.
Pilgrims, Signatures of, 1096.
Pinckney, C. C., 1098.
Pinckney, Thomas, 1098.
Pine-tree Shilling, 484.
Pinkney, William, 1099.
Pitt, William, 1103.
Pitt's Statue, 1104.
Plattsburg Bay, Place of Naval Engagement in, 1107.
Plattsburg, Old Stone Mill at, 1106.
Pocahontas, 1113.
Pohick Church, 1503.
Point Levi, from Quebec, 1171.
Polk, James K., 1115.
Polk, Leonidas, 1115.
Porter, David, 1123.
Porter, David D., 1123.
Porter, Fitz-John, 1124.
Porter, Peter B., 1124.
Porter, Peter B., Medal awarded to, 1317.
Post-office Department Seal, 459.
Powder-ship, 506.
Preble, Edward, 1129.
Preble's Medal, 1130.
Prescott's Headquarters, 1133.
President's House, Remains of, after the Fire, 1479.
Price, Sterling, 1142.
Prophet, The, 1392.
Province House, 663.
Provost Jail, 1147.
Pulaski, Count, 1159.
Put-in Bay, 758.
Putnam, General Israel, 1162.
Putnam, Major Israel, 1162.
Putnam's Signboard, 1163.

Q.

Quaker Hill, R. I., 1164.
Quebec, Foot of Cape Diamond, 1172.
Quebec, Place where Arnold was Wounded, 1172.
Queen Charlotte and John Bull (Caricature), 1083.
Queenstown in 1812, 1174.
Quincy, Josiah, 1175.
Quincy, Josiah, Caricature of, 1176.

R.

Raleigh Enjoying his Pipe, 1179.
Raleigh Tavern, 1180.
Raleigh's Ships, Form of, 1178.
Rall's Headquarters, 1417.
Ramsay, David, 1180.
Ramsey, Alexander, 1180.
Randolph, Edmund, 1181.
Randolph, John, 1182.
Randolph, Peyton, 1183.
Rawdon, Francis, 1184.
Red-Jacket, 1188.
Red-Jacket's Medal, 1188.
Reed, Joseph, 1189.
Reid, Samuel C., 1192.
Reverse of a Massachusetts Treasury Note, 130.
Rhode Island, State Seal of, 1210.
Richmond, Fortifications around, 1213.
Ripley, Eleazar W., Medal awarded to, 1317.
Rittenhouse, David, 1219.
Rivington, James, 1220.
Robertson, James, 1222.
Robinson, Beverly, 1222.
Robinson's House, 1223.
Rochambeau, Count, 1224.
Rocky Mount, View at, 1224.
Rodgers, John, 1225.
Rodriguez's Canal, near New Orleans, 986.
Rosecrans, W. S., 1227.
Ross, John, 1228.
Rousseau, L. H., 1228.
Royal Savage, The, 954.
Ruffin, Edmund, 521.
Rumford, Count, 1233.
Rutledge, John, 1235.

S.

Sackett's Harbor in 1812, 1236
St. Clair, Arthur, 1240.
St. John's Church, Richmond, 1461.
St. John's, Military Establishment at, 1241.
St. Simon, Claude Anne, 1243.
Salmon River, Landing-place of Troops at, 545.
Sanders's Creek, View [illegible] 1245.
Sandwich, Barracks at, 1[illegible]7.
Sandy Creek, Place of Battle at, 1247.
Sanitary Commission Seal, 1439.
Scene of Battle on Rhode Island, 1165.
Schofield, J. M., 1254.
School-ship *Sabine*, 1408.
Schuyler, Philip, 1259.
Schuyler's House at Albany, 1256.
Schuyler's House at Saratoga, 1259.
Scott, Winfield, 1261.
Scott's Medal, 1262.
Seabury, Bishop, Monument of, 1263.
Seal of the President of Congress, 1264.
Seal of the United States, 1264.
Semmes, Raphael, 1270.
Seward, William H., 1276.
Shelby, Isaac, 1280.
Shelby's Medal, 1280.
Sherbrooke, Sir John Cope, 689.
Sheridan, Philip H., 1281.
Sherman, W. T., 1282.
Shirley, William, 1285.
Shubrick, W. B., 1286.
Sickles, Daniel E., 1287.
Sigel, Franz, 1289.
Signal-book, 1290.
Signal-tower, 1291.
Signals by Flags, 1290.
Signals, Naval, 1290.
Signatures of the Gaspee Committee, 561.
Signatures to Treaty of Peace, Fac-simile of, 1066.
Signers of the Declaration of Independence, Fac-simile of Signatures of, 1293.
Signers of the Declaration of Independence, Portraits of the, 1292.
Skirmish on the Green at Lexington, 784.
Slater, Samuel, 1298.
Slave-chain, last in Maryland, 1298.
Slidell, John, 1304.
Smallwood, William, 1305.
Smith, Captain John, 1307.
Smith, Samuel, 1310.
Smith's (John) Coat-of-arms, 1307.
Smith's House, 1411.
Smith's (Melancthon) Monument, 1309.
Sodus Bay, Destruction at, 843.
South Carolina Flag, 1319.
South Carolina Institute, 381.
South Carolina Medal, 1319.
South Carolina, Secession Banner of, 1320.
South Carolina, State Seal of, 1318.
Stamp, A, 1334.
Stamp, Back of a, 1334.
Stanton, Edwin M., 1336.
Star of the West, 1337.
Star-spangled Banner, Fac-simile of Portion of the Original Song, 1339.
Stark, John, 1338.
State Department Seal, 458.
State-house, Philadelphia, Walnut-street Front, 1219.
Steamboat, Old Hudson River, 1345.
Steele, Frederic, 1346.
Stephens, Alexander H., 1347.
Steuben, Baron, 1348.
Steuben's Log House, 1348.
Steuben's Monuments, 1348.
Stevens's Floating Battery, 1349.

Stewart, Charles, 1350.
Stewart's Medals, 310, 1355.
Stirling, Lord, 20.
Stockton's House "Morven," 1351.
Stone Idol at Copan, 32.
Stone Tower at Newport, 1027.
Stonington Flag, 1353.
Stony Creek, Battle-ground of, 1354.
Stony Point, View of, 1355.
Story, Joseph, 1356.
Stricker, John, 1013.
Stringham, S. H., 1357.
Sturgis, S. D., 1358.
Stuyvesant, Peter, 1358.
Sugar-house in Liberty Street, 1147.
Sullivan, John, 1361.
Sumter, Privateer, 289.
Sumter, Thomas, 1363.
Swamp-angel Battery, 1367.
Swift, Joseph G., 1368.
Symmes's Monument, 1368.

T.

Talbot. Silas, 1369.
Tallmadge, Benjamin, 1370.
Tammany Hall, 1370.
Tarleton, Sir Banastre, 1371.
Ta-ron-tee, or Rivière aux Canards, 1372.
Taylor, Zachary, 1375.
Taylor's Residence, 1375.
Tecumtha, 1377.
Tecumtha, Birthplace of, 1392.
Temple, The, near Newburgh, 969.
Tennessee, State Seal of, 1380.
Texas, State Seal of, 1384.
Thames, Battle-ground of the, 1389.
Thomas, George H., 1395.
Thomson, Charles, 1396.
Tippecanoe Battle-ground, 1399.
Todd, Charles S., 1401.
Toombs, Robert, 1403.
Toronto, Old Fort at, 1555.
Toronto, Powder-magazine at, 1554.
Toronto, Remains of Western Battery near, 1554.
Torpedo Net, 1558.
Torpedoes, 554, 1405.
Totems, 694.
Towson's Grave, 1407.
Trading Ford on the Catawba, 594.
Treasury Department Seal, 458.
Trumbull, Jonathan, 1421.
Trumbull's House, 1421.
Trumbull's War-office, 1421.
Truxtun, Thomas, Medal presented to, 1422.
Truxtun's Grave, 1422.
Tryon's Seal and Signature, 1423.
Turkey-foot's Rock, 466.
Tyler, John, 1425.

U.

Uncas, Monument of, 1427.
Union Devices, 1431, 1432.

V.

Valladolid Cathedral, 697.
Vallandigham, C. L., 1442.
Valley Forge, Washington's Headquarters at, 1442.
Van Buren, Martin, 1443.
Van Cortlandt's Sugar-house, 1147.
Van Horne, Thomas B., 1446.
Van Rensselaer, Solomon, 1447.
Van Rensselaer, Stephen, 1447.
Van Wart's Monument, 204.
Verazzani, John, 1451.
Vergennes, Charles G., 1452.
Vermont, State Seal of, 1452.
View at the Mouth of the Kenduskeag, 690.
Villeré's Mansion near New Orleans, 987.
Virginia, Colonial Seal of, 1458.
Virginia, State Seal of, 1464.

W.

Warren, Gouverneur Kemble, 1475.
Warren, Joseph, 1475.
Warren, Mercy, 1476.
Warren's Monument, 1475.
Warrington, Lewis, 1476.
Warrington Medal, 1067.
Washington Elm, The, 1489.
Washington Family, Arms of the, 1483.
Washington Family, Residence of the, 1482.
Washington, Fort, 21.
Washington, Gold Medal awarded to, 583.
Washington, Houdon's Bust of, 1481.
Washington, Lawrence, 1483.
Washington, Martha, 1484.
Washington Medal, 1486.
Washington Monument at Baltimore, 1486.
Washington Resigning his Commission, 1488.
Washington, Sarcophagus of, 1486.
Washington, William A., 1489.
Washington, William A., Medal awarded to, 1490.
Washington's Birthplace, Site of, 1481.
Washington's Headquarters at Cambridge, 1485.
Washington's Headquarters at Tappan, 47.
Washington's Mother, Tomb of, 1483.
Washington's New Family Vault, 1486.
Washington's Old Family Vault, 1480.
Washington's Order against Profanity, 1492.
Wasp on a Frolic (Caricature), 1494.
Wayne, Anthony, 1497.
Wayne, Anthony, Gold Medal awarded to, 1498.
Wayne's Monument, 1498.
Wayne's Residence, 1497.
Webb House, The, 1478.
Webster, Daniel, 1501.
Webster, Noah, 1502.
Webster's Spelling-book, Frontispiece to, 1543.
Weems, Mason L., 1503.
Welles, Gideon, 1504.
Wentworth, Benning, 976.
Wentworth Mansion, 1504.
Wesley, John, 1505.
West, Benjamin, 1506.
West Virginia, State Seal of, 1508.
Whipple, Abraham, 1513.
White, William, 1516.
Wigwam, An Indian, 1519.
Wilkes, John, 1521.
Wilkinson, James, 1521.
Willett, Marinus, 1522.
Williams, Eleazar, 1524.
Williams, Otho H., 1525.
Williams, Roger, Landing-place of, 1526.
Wilson, Henry, 1529.
Winder, William H., 1533.
Winslow, Edward, 1533.
Winslow, John A., 1534.
Wintermoot's, 1548.
Winthrop, John, 1535.
Wisconsin, State Seal of, 1536.
Wise, Henry A., 1536.
Witches' Hill, 1539.
Wolfe, James, 1540.
Wolfe's Monument, 1170.
Wolfe's Ravine, 1169.
Woodhull, General, House in which he Died, 1544.
Wood's Monument at West Point, 1542.
Wool, John E., 1544.
Wooster, David, 1545.
Worden, J. L., 1546.
Wright, H. G., 1547.
Wyoming Monument, 1549.

Y.

Yates, Richard, 1551.
Yeo, Sir J. Lucas, 1553.
York in 1813, 1553.
Yorktown, Remains of British Works at, 1556.

Z.

Zinzendorf, Nicolaus Ludwig, 1560.
Zouave, Ellsworth, 1561.

HARPERS' POPULAR CYCLOPÆDIA

OF THE

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES.

A.

Abbadie, M. DE, Governor of Louisiana 1763–65. The King of France had a factory at New Orleans, and, in 1763, Abbadie arrived and assumed the functions of its director-general with the powers of a military commandant. In 1764, he was ordered to surrender the country to Spain, which he did at the close of the year. Grief at this change in his fortunes caused his death, Feb. 4, 1765. Abbadie was a man of noble impulses; he protected the Indians, caused the masters to treat their slaves more kindly, and in many ways endeared himself to the Louisianians.

Abbott, JACOB, an eminent writer for youth, was born at Hallowell, Maine, Nov. 14, 1803; died at Farmington, Maine, Oct. 31, 1879. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1820, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1825. From 1825 to 1829 he was professor of mathematics and natural philosophy in Amherst College. He chose the pursuit of literature in the attractive and useful field of affording instruction to the young. One of the earliest of his almost 200 volumes printed was *The Young Christian*, issued the year of his graduation at Andover. His books are remarkable for their wealth of information, their absolute purity of tone and expression, and for their wonderful attractiveness for the young of both sexes. Few men have done so much for the intellectual and moral training of the young for lives of usefulness as Jacob Abbott. His interest in young people never abated through a long and laborious life. His later years were spent upon the old homestead at Farmington, significantly called "Few Acres," for its area of land was small and it was cultivated and adorned by the hands of its owner. His personal character was as lovely as his most ardent admirer, among his millions of readers, could imagine.

Abbott, JOHN STEVENS CABOT (brother of Jacob), historian, was born at Brunswick, Maine, Sept. 18, 1805. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1825, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1829. Ordained minister in 1830, and first settled at Worcester. His first work, *Mother at Home*, has been translated into several foreign languages. His literary labors have been chiefly in the field of history. He was settled over a congregation in Fair Haven, Conn., at the time of his death, which occurred on June 17, 1877.

Abenakes, or **Abnakis** (men of the Eastern Land), a group of Algonquin tribes originally occupying the State of Maine. They adhered to the French, whose missionaries converted most of them to Christianity. (See *Algonquins.*)

Abercrombie, JAMES, was born at Glassaugh, Scotland, in 1706; died April 28, 1781, while governor of Stirling Castle. In 1746 he became a colonel in the British army; was made major-general in 1756, lieutenant-general in 1759, and general in 1772. He came to America in 1756, where he held the chief military command until the arrival of Lord Loudon. After the departure of that officer, Abercrombie resumed the command. In July, 1758, he attacked Ticonderoga with a large force, but was repulsed (see *Ticonderoga*) with a loss of about 2000 men. He was succeeded by General Amherst in September following, returned to England in 1759, and became a member of Parliament, wherein he advocated the obnoxious measures that led to the war of the Revolution in 1775.

Abercrombie, JAMES W., died at Boston, Mass., June 24, 1775. Son of General James Abercrombie. He had served on the staff of General Amherst, in America, and was commissioned a lieutenant in the British army in March, 1770. While leading the British Grenadiers in the battle of Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, June 17, 1775, he was mortally wounded.

Abercrombie, JOHN JOSEPH, graduated at the West Point Military Academy in 1822. Entering the 1st Infantry, he was its adjutant from 1825 to 1833. Serving in Florida and Mexico, he was promoted to brevet-lieutenant-colonel for gallantry in the battle of Monterey (which see), where he was severely wounded. He was commissioned lieutenant-colonel in May, 1852, colonel in Feb. 1861, and was breveted brigadier-general U. S. Army March 13, 1865. In June following he retired. He was a brigadier-general of volunteers in the Civil War, and commanded a brigade in Patterson's division on the

Upper Potomac in 1861. He was transferred to Banks's division in July. Early in 1862 he joined the Army of the Potomac, and was slightly wounded in the battle of Fair Oaks.

Abolition Convention (1794). Societies and individuals had, from time to time, called the attention of Congress to the subject of the abolition of slavery and the slave-trade. There were several abolition societies formed in various parts of the free-labor states, and these sent delegates to a convention at Philadelphia, which opened Jan. 1, 1794. The Convention presented a carefully worded petition to Congress, praying that body to do what it might, constitutionally, for the suppression of the slave-trade, to which the Constitution gave a lease of life for sixteen years longer. This memorial, with several petitions from Friends, or Quakers, was referred to a select committee. A bill which the committee reported was passed without opposition. It prohibited the fitting-out of ships in the United States for supplying any foreign country with slaves, under penalty of forfeiture of the vessel and a fine of $2000. This was the first act of Congress for the suppression of the slave-traffic.

Abolition of the Slave-trade in Virginia. While Jefferson was on his way to attend a meeting of the Convention of Virginia (August, 1774), he was detained by sickness. He sent forward a paper for the consideration of that body, in which his convictions concerning slavery and the slave-trade were freely uttered, and foreshadowed his draft of the Declaration of Independence. He made special complaints of the wrongs to Virginia by forcing slavery upon her, by the repeated veto of the king, of laws for its banishment. The paper was approved everywhere, and the following resolution, afterwards offered by Peyton Randolph, was passed by the Virginia Assembly: "After the first day of November next, we will neither ourselves import, nor purchase any slave or slaves imported by any other person, either from Africa, the West Indies, or any other place." Nearly all Virginia agreed to it, and the traffic was abolished.

Acadia, or Acadié, the ancient name of Nova Scotia and adjacent regions. It is supposed to have been visited by Sebastian Cabot in 1498, but the first attempt to plant a settlement there was by De Monts, in 1604, who obtained a charter from the King of France for making settlements and carrying on trade. In that charter it is called Cadié, and by the early settlers it was known as L'Acadié. A settlement was made at a place named Port Royal (now Annapolis), by Poutrincourt, a bosom friend of De Monts, but it was broken up in 1613, by Argall, from Virginia (see *De Monts*). In 1621, the peninsula was granted to Sir William Alexander (see *Alexander*). It was finally settled by the French, and was known as Acadia until it was ceded to the English in 1713. The Acadians quietly remained after the cession, and, having taken an oath of fidelity to the British king, they were known in the English-American colonies as the Neutral French (see *Acadians*). After the treaty of Utrecht (1713), the question arose, "What is meant by the 'ancient limits of Acadia?'" The English claimed, under that appellation, both shores of the Bay of Fundy—in fact, the whole region eastward of the Penobscot. The French limited it to the peninsula now known as Nova Scotia, claiming the north shore of the Bay of Fundy as a part of Canada. After the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, these opposing claims were pressed with vigor. De la Galissonniere, governor of Canada, one of the boundary commissioners, proceeded (1749) to Paris, with a vast number of documents, to settle the question; and troops from Canada established the military posts of Gaspereau and Beau Séjour at the narrowest part of the isthmus which connects Nova Scotia with the main and separates the Bay of Fundy from the Gulf of St. Lawrence. In that vicinity was planted a considerable body of French colonists, warmly attached to their ancient government. Colonel Cornwallis, English governor of Nova Scotia, not having sufficient force to expel the intruders, caused two opposing forts to be built at Beau Bassin and Menas. Meanwhile the French had established a fort near the mouth of the St. John.

Acadia, English Settlers in. Nova Scotia having been ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (which see), Parliament voted $200,000 to pay the expenses of settling an English colony there. Nearly 3800 adventurers were sent over in 1749, and settled on the borders of the Bay of Chebucto, where they founded the town of Halifax, and fortified it as the seat of the English government there. These colonists were accompanied by Colonel Edward Cornwallis as their governor. The Acadians, or former French settlers, were allowed peaceably to remain there, and, having sworn never to take up arms against their countrymen, submitted to the English government, and were called "French Neutrals."

Acadians. A colony of Bretons, from France, settled at Port Royal (now Annapolis), in Nova Scotia in 1604–5 (see *De Monts*); and the territory now included in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and the adjacent islands was called Acadia. These French emigrants built cottages sixteen years before the Pilgrims landed on the shores of New England. When English people came, antagonisms arising from difference of religion and nationality appeared, and, after repeated struggles between the English and French for the possession of Acadia, it was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. But for many years not a dozen English families were seen there. The descendants of the early French settlers occupied the land, and were a peaceable, pastoral people, who never engaged in the forays of the French and Indians along the New England frontiers. They were attached to their fatherland and their religion, and they refused to fight against the former or abjure the latter. This attitude was accorded to them by solemn agreements, and they were known as "French Neutrals." They were happy in their neutrality, and in their isolation they formed one great and loving family. Pure in morals, pious without bigotry, honest, industrious and frugal, they presented an outline picture of Utopia. When New-Englanders began to colonize Nova Scotia vigorously, their priests, fired with zeal for the Church, disturbed their repose by dread of "heretics" and warnings not to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain. "Better," said the Jesuits, "surrender your meadows to the sea, and your treasures to the flames, than, at the peril of your souls, to take the oath of allegiance to the British government." So the priests, with which Canada furnished them, and on whom they implicitly relied, disturbed the peace and led them on to their ruinous troubles. At one time they would resolve to flee to Canada; at another the love of their homes would make them resolve to remain. The haughtiness of British officers aided the priests in fomenting disaffection. The English despised the Acadians because they were helpless in their lack of knowledge of English laws, and they were continually robbed of their rights and property by English officials. Was any of their property demanded for the public service, they were "not to be bargained with for payment;" so the orders ran. Under various pretences they were continually shorn, yet they meekly submitted to the tyranny of their masters. The English officers were authorized to punish Acadians for what they might deem misbehavior, at their discretion, and if British troops should be annoyed by them, they might inflict vengeance on the nearest Acadians "whether guilty or not." Finally, persuaded by the French government and their priests, the Acadians abandoned nearly all of the peninsula, and settled themselves in a fertile region on the isthmus between the northern extremity of the Bay of Fundy and Northumberland Strait. The object of the movement was to make them form a barrier against the encroachments of the English. There the French built two forts, the principal of which was Beau Séjour, on the Bay of Fundy, where the isthmus is only fifteen miles wide. In June, 1755, a land and naval armament came from Boston, landed at the head of the Bay of Fundy, captured the forts, and took military possession of the country of the French Neutrals. The French soldiers were sent to Louisburg, and the Acadians who had been forced into the French service were granted an amnesty. They readily took an oath of allegiance, expected forbearance, and went on quietly cultivating their land. But the exasperation of the people of New England, because of the horrible forays of the French and Indians on their frontiers, had to be appeased, and vengeance was inflicted upon these innocent people. It was resolved to banish the French Neutrals from their country. Governor Shirley had proposed it years before, in order to supply their place with Protestants; and the British government had promoted emigration thither, that a strong admixture of Protestants might neutralize the efforts of the priests to make the Acadians disloyal. Now Shirley's scheme was adopted, and General Winslow, who commanded the invaders, was made the executor of it. The Acadians were driven from their country, and scattered among the English colonies. (See *Acadians, Dispersion of the.*) Even in this sad and bitter exile they were subjected to the hatred and cruelty of English officials. When Lord Loudoun was commander-in-chief in America, some of the Acadians settled in Pennsylvania ventured to address a respectful petition to him. Offended because the document was in the French language, the earl seized five of the leading men who signed the petition, and who had been persons of wealth and distinction in Acadia, and sent them to England, with a request that, to prevent their being troublesome in the future, they should be consigned to hard service as common sailors in the Royal navy. The king seems to have approved the measure; and the Lords of Trade, when the desolation of Acadia was made complete, congratulated the profligate monarch that the zeal of the Governor of Nova Scotia, who had driven them away, had been "crowned with entire success." Exquisitely cruel was the treatment these poor people received at the hands of their conquerors. The method employed to legally dispossess the Acadians of their coveted lands was most disgraceful. They had taken the oath of allegiance, but refused to take an oath that they would bear arms against the French if required, and practically abjure their religion. Exemption from this had been solemnly promised them. The Governor of Nova Scotia referred the matter to the chief-justice of the province, as a technical question in law, whether one who refuses to take all required oaths could hold lands in the British dominions. The chief-justice decided against the Acadians, and it was determined to take their lands away from them, and distribute them among the English colonists. The French government asked leave for the Acadians to take with them their effects and to settle where they chose. "No," replied their masters, "they are too useful subjects to be lost; we must enrich our colonies with them." Unfortunately for the poor people, some of their best men presented a petition to the governor at Halifax. He would not receive it, and demanded that they should immediately take the oaths required before the Council. "We will do as our people may determine," they meekly replied, and asked permission to return home and consult them. The next day, perceiving the perilous position of their people, they offered to take the oaths. "By a law of the realm," said the governor, "Roman Catholics, who have once refused to take the oaths, cannot be permitted to do so afterwards, and are considered Popish recusants." They were cast into prison, and the chief-justice decided that all the French inhabitants—hundreds of innocent families who were ignorant of all these proceedings—were "rebels and Popish recusants," and stood in the way of "English interests" in the country, and that they had forfeited all their possessions to the crown. So their doom was sealed.

Acadians, Expulsion of the. The English conquerors of Nova Scotia, or Acadia, were made uneasy by the presence, in that country, of 12,000 or 15,000 French Roman Catholics attached to their fatherland and their Church, and in close friendship with the surrounding Indian tribes. The English also coveted the rich lands in possession of this simple, pastoral people (see *Acadians*), and it was determined at a council of the local government at Halifax to carry out the atrocious proposal of Governor Shirley, namely, to remove them in a body from the peninsula, and distribute them among the several English colonies. If they were permitted to go to Canada or Cape Breton, they would thus strengthen the enemies of the English; to distribute them would destroy their strength and prevent attempts to return. To accomplish this, a disgraceful artifice was employed. The English authorities issued a proclamation, ordering "both old and young men, as well as all the lads of ten years of age," to assemble on Sept. 5, 1755, at designated places. They obeyed. The proceedings at one place afford a fair picture of those at all others. At Grand-Pré, 418 unarmed men and youths were assembled, and marched into the church. There General Winslow told them they had been called together to hear the decision of the King of England in regard to the French inhabitants of the province. "Your lands and tenements," he said, "cattle of all kinds, and live stock of all sorts, are forfeited to the crown, and you, yourselves, are to be removed from this his province. I am, through his majesty's goodness, directed to allow you liberty to carry off your money and household goods, as many as you can, without discommoding the vessels you go in. *You are now the king's prisoners.*" Every household in Grand-Pré was filled with consternation. At Grand-Pré alone 1923 men, women, and children were driven on board British vessels at the point of the bayonet. Full 7000 were thus expelled from their homes in Acadia. The men and boys assembled at the church went first; the sisters, wives, and daughters had to wait for other transports. They marched from the church to the water's edge, some in sullen despair, others with hands clasped and eyes uplifted, praying and weeping, and others singing hymns, while on each side of the sad procession was a row of women and children on their knees, imploring blessings upon the heads of dear ones. They were all finally distributed in the various English colonies. Many families, separated at the outset by the cruel arrangements for their transportation, were never reunited; and for a long time the colonial newspapers contained advertisements seeking information about fragments of dismembered families. They were dropped along the shores of the English colonies, from the Penobscot to the Savannah, without resources, and ignorant of the language of the people among whom they were thrust, excepting in South Carolina, where the Huguenot families treated them with great kindness. They abhorred the alms-house and dreaded service in English families. They yearned intensely for their native land and kindred in language and religion. Many wandered through the forests to Canada and Louisiana—men, women, and children—sheltered in bush-camps and kindly cared for by the Indians, that they might rest under French dominion. Some families went to sea in open boats, to find their way back to Acadia; and, coasting along the shores of New England, were there met by orders from Nova Scotia to stop all returning fugitives. Many touching stories of parents seeking their children, husbands their wives, and lovers their affianced have been related. It is a sad, sad story of man's inhumanity to man.

Accession of Rhode Island to the Union. Rhode Island at first refused to consider the National Constitution; but when the new National Government went into operation under it, the people of that little state (who had been generously offered by the new Constitution an equal representation in the National Senate with the largest state), began to feel their isolation keenly, and early in 1790 the Legislature, by the casting vote of the governor, authorized the calling of a State Convention to take that fundamental law of the land into consideration. In that convention there was a majority of opponents of the Constitution. They dared not reject the instrument outright, and postponed action by carrying a motion for adjournment. The secession of the two commercial towns of Providence and Newport was openly talked of, as was also a partition of the whole state between Massachusetts and Connecticut. At length (May 18, 1790) the National Senate passed a bill, and sent it down to the House, for prohibiting commercial intercourse with the recusant state, and authorizing a demand upon it for her quota towards the Continental debt. On the reassembling of the Rhode Island Convention, the Constitution was ratified by a majority of two votes. The convention proposed twenty-one amendments to the Constitution, and adopted a Bill of Rights. On the 1st of June, 1790, the President, in a message to both Houses, announced the accession of Rhode Island. Thus the thirteen states were again united.

Accidental Discoverers. About the year 860, Noddodr, an illustrious sea-rover, driven by a storm, discovered Iceland, and named it Snowland. Not many years afterwards, Earl Ingolf, of Norway, sought Iceland as a refuge from tyranny, and planted a colony there. Greenland was discovered by accident. One of the early settlers in Iceland was driven westward on the sea by a storm, and discovered Greenland. To that retreat Eric the Red was compelled to fly from Iceland, and finding it more fertile than the latter, named it Greenland, made it his place of abode, and attracted other Northmen thither. Among Eric's followers was a Norwegian, whose son Bjarni, or Biarne, a promising young man, trading between Norway and Iceland, and finding his father gone with Eric, proposed to his crew to go to his parent in Greenland. They were driven westward, and, it is believed, they saw the American continent in the year 986. The sons of Eric heard the stories of Bjarni, and one of them, Lief, sailed in search of the newly discovered land, and found it. (See *Northmen.*)

Acland, CHRISTINA HARRIET CAROLINE FOX, daughter of the Earl of Ilchester, was born in 1750; died at Tetten, near Taunton, England, July 21, 1815. She married, in 1770, Major John Dyke Acland, of the British army, who was with Burgoyne in his campaign in Northern New York, which ended with the capture of himself and army at Saratoga in the autumn of 1777. In the battle of October 7, her husband was severely wounded and taken prisoner. She obtained permission to join him within the American lines, where she tenderly nursed him. She had accompanied her husband during the whole campaign, and had won the admiration of all by her gentle spirit, her wifely devotion, and her fortitude. After Major Acland's recovery they went to New York and thence to England. She is familiarly known as "Lady Harriet Acland." The popular story that, after her husband's death in a duel, she became insane for a time, and finally married Mr. Brudenell, a chaplain in Burgoyne's army (who accompanied her through the lines to her wounded husband), is untrue. She died the widow of Major Acland, as the burial register attests, according to a letter received by William L. Stone from Sir Thomas Dyke Acland, a grand-nephew of Major Acland. In that letter it is asserted that the story that Major Acland was "shot through the head and killed" in a duel is equally untrue. (See *Acland, Major.*)

CHRISTINA HARRIET ACLAND.

Acland, MAJOR JOHN DYKE, was an officer in the British army, and a commander of grenadiers. He was with Burgoyne in his invasion of Northern New York in 1777, and at the same time he was a member of Parliament. In the battle at Saratoga (Oct. 7, 1777) he was severely wounded—shot through the legs—and made a prisoner. Taken to the American headquarters on Bemis's Heights, his devoted wife, Lady Harriet, was permitted to pass through the lines and attend him. She was kindly received and treated by the American officers, and their bearing towards their wounded prisoners excited the Major's gratitude and warm esteem. After his return to England he was provoked to give the lie direct to Lieutenant Lloyd, at a dinner-party, because the latter cast aspersions upon the Americans. A duel ensued on Bampton Down. The Major was unhurt, but a severe cold, which he contracted at the time of the duel, culminated in a fever, which caused his death at his seat at Pixton, Somersetshire (now the residence of the Earl of Carnarvon, a great-grandson of Lady Acland), on the 31st of October, 1778. His widow survived him thirty-seven years.—*Sketch of Lady Acland by W. L. Stone.* (See *Acland, Lady Harriet.*)

MAJOR JOHN DYKE ACLAND.

Acuera's Rebuke. The cruelties of Narvaez and De Soto in Florida aroused among the native tribes feelings of the bitterest hatred. Narvaez caused a captive cacique, or chief, to be mutilated after the first engagement with the hostile Indians. His nose was cut off, and he was otherwise disfigured; and the invader caused fierce blood-hounds to tear the chief's mother in pieces in the presence of her children. Narvaez supposed this would strike terror, and make conquest easy; but he was mistaken. (See *Narvaez.*) De Soto had blood-hounds, iron neck-collars, hand-cuffs, chains, and instruments of torture, wherewith to subdue the barbarians, who were really less barbarous than he. He loaded his captives with chains, and made beasts of burden of them regardless of age or sex. After some acts of this kind, he sought to conciliate Acuera, a Creek cacique, or ruler, whose territory he had invaded, for he was powerful, and commanded many warriors. De Soto invited the dusky sovereign to a friendly interview, when he received from Acuera this haughty reply: "Others of your accursed race [Narvaez and his men] have, in years past, disturbed our peaceful shores. They have taught me what you are. What is your employment? To wander about like vagabonds from land to land; to rob the poor and weak; to betray the confiding [see *Maiden Indian Queen*]; to murder the defenceless in cold blood. No! with such a people I want neither peace nor friendship. War—never-ending, exterminating war—is all I ask. You boast yourselves to be valiant—and so you may be; but my faithful warriors are not less brave, and of this you shall one day have proof, for I have sworn to maintain an unsparing conflict while one white man remains in my borders; not openly in the battle-field, though even thus we fear not to meet you, but by stratagem, ambush, and midnight surprisal." De Soto then demanded that Acuera should yield obedience to the Spanish monarch. "I am a king in my own land," said the cacique, "and will never become the vassal of a mortal like myself. Vile and pusillanimous is he who submits to the yoke of another when he may be free! As for me and my people, we prefer death to the loss of liberty and the subjugation of our country." De Soto could never pacify Acuera, and during the twenty days that he remained in the cacique's dominions his command suffered dreadfully. A Spaniard could not go a hundred paces from his camp without being slain, and his severed head being carried in triumph to Acuera. Fourteen Castilians so perished, and many were severely wounded. "Keep on! robbers and traitors!" said the cacique. "In my province and in Apalacha you will be treated as you deserve. We will quarter and hang every captive on the highest tree." And they did so. (See *De Soto*.)

Adair, JOHN, born in Chester Co., S. C., in 1757; died at Harrodsburg, Ky., May 19, 1840. He served in the Continental army during the Revolution, and in the wars against the frontier Indians, 1791–93. He was U. S. Senator in Congress in 1805–6; and as volunteer aid to General Shelby at the battle of the Thames, in 1813, he showed much bravery and skill. He distinguished himself as commander of the Kentucky troops in the battle of New Orleans, January, 1815. From 1820 to 1824 he was Governor of Kentucky, having served in the Legislature of that state; and from 1831 to 1833 was a representative in Congress.

Adams, CHARLES FRANCIS, LL.D., son of John Quincy Adams, was born in Boston, Aug. 18, 1807, and graduated at Harvard University in 1825. He accompanied his father to St. Petersburg and England, where he passed much of his childhood until the return of his family to America in 1817. Mr. Adams studied law in the office of Daniel Webster, and was admitted to the bar in 1828, but never practised it as a vocation. In 1829 he married a daughter of Peter C. Brooks, of Boston. For five years he was a member of the Legislature of Massachusetts. Having left the Whig Party, he was a candidate of the Free-soil Party (which see) in 1848 for the Vice-Presidency of the United States, Mr. Van Buren being the candidate for the Presidency. They were defeated. In 1850–56 Mr. Adams published the *Life and Works of John Adams* (his grandfather), in ten volumes. In 1859 he was elected to a seat in Congress from the district which his father long represented. He was then a Republican in politics. In March, 1861, he was appointed Minister to Great Britain, where he managed his diplomatic duties with much skill during one of the most trying times in our history—that of the Civil War. He remained as American Minister in London until 1868, when, in February, he resigned. In 1876 Mr. Adams was first a Liberal Republican, and then a Democrat, in politics. His labors in the field of literature have been various. From 1845 to 1848 he edited a daily newspaper in Boston, and has long been either a regular or an occasional contributor to the *North American Review*. His principal task has been the preparation of the *Life and Works of John Adams*, in ten volumes, and a *Life of John Adams*, in two volumes, in 1870. He has also issued the *Life and Works of John Quincy Adams* (his father), in 12 volumes.

CHARLES FRANCIS ADAMS.

Adams, HANNAH, historian, was born in Medfield, Mass., in 1755; died at Brookline, Mass., Nov. 15, 1831. By an early fondness for study, which was promoted by her father, a man of literary tastes, she obtained a knowledge of Latin and Greek from some divinity students boarding at her father's house before she had arrived at full womanhood. Her father, a shop-keeper, failed in business when she was seventeen years of age, and his children were compelled to help themselves. During the war for independence, she supported herself by teaching and lace-making. Miss Adams wrote a *History of the Jews*, in which she was assisted by the Abbé Grégoire, with whom she corresponded. She also wrote a *History of New England*, published in 1799. She also wrote books on religious subjects; and, in 1814, she published a *Controversy with Dr. Morse* (Rev. Jedediah). Her autobiography, continued by Mrs. G. G. Lee, was published in 1832. Miss Adams was small in stature, very deaf in her old age, fond of strong tea, and an inveterate snuff-taker. She derived very little pecuniary gains from her writings; but her friends established a comfortable annuity for her. She was one of the pioneer literary women of our country, possessing rare modesty and great purity of character. Her remains were the first interred in Mount Auburn Cemetery.

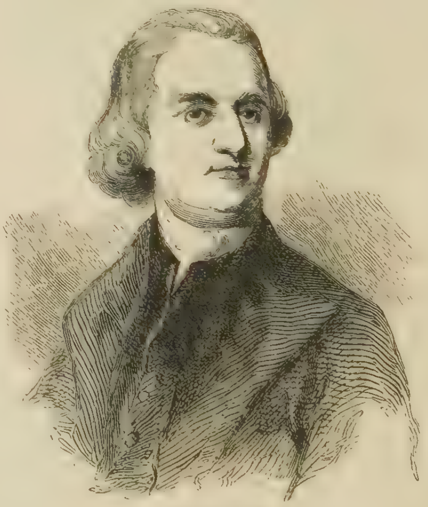
Adams, JOHN, second President of the United States; born at Braintree (near Quincy), Mass., Oct. 19, 1735; died there July 4, 1826. He graduated at Harvard University in 1755, and immediately afterwards taught school at Worcester, where he began the study of law. His father was in moderate circumstances—a selectman and a farmer. Beginning the profession of law in Braintree in 1758, he soon acquired a good practice; and, when he was twenty-nine years of age, he married Abigail Smith, an accomplished woman possessed of great common-sense. His first appearance in the political arena was as author of "Instructions of the Town of Braintree to its Representatives on the Subject of the Stamp Act," which was adopted by over forty towns. Associated with Gridley and Otis in supporting a memorial addressed to the Governor and Council, praying that the courts might proceed without the use of stamps, Adams opened the case by declaring that the Stamp Act was void, as Parliament had no right to make such a law. He began early to write political essays for the newspapers; and, in 1768, he went to Boston, when the town was greatly excited by political disturbances. There he was counsel for Captain Preston in the case of the "Boston Massacre" (which see); and in the same year (1770) he was elected to a seat in the General Court. From that time John Adams was a leader among the patriots in Massachusetts. He was a delegate to the first Continental Congress (1774), where he took a leading part. Returning, he was elected a member of the Provincial Congress. He was an efficient speaker and most useful committee-man in the Continental Congress until he was appointed commissioner to France, late in 1777, to supersede Deane. He advocated, helped to frame, voted for, and signed the Declaration of Independence, and he was a most efficient member of the Board of War from June, 1776, until December, 1777. He reached Paris April 8, 1778, where he found a feud between Franklin and Lee, two other commissioners. He advised intrusting that mission to one commissioner, and Franklin was made sole ambassador. He was appointed minister (1779) to treat with Great Britain for peace, and sailed for France in November. He did not serve as commissioner there, but, in July, 1780, he went to Holland to negotiate a loan. He was also received by the States-General as United States Ambassador, April 19, 1782. He obtained a loan for Congress of two million dollars, and made a treaty of amity and commerce. He returned to Paris in October, and assisted in negotiating the preliminary treaty of peace. With Franklin and Jay, he negotiated a treaty of commerce with Great Britain; and, in the following winter, he negotiated for another Dutch loan. In 1785 Adams went as Minister to the English court, and there he prepared his *Defence of the American Constitution.* Being coldly received, he returned home, and, in 1788, was elected Vice-President of the United States under the National Constitution. He sustained the policy of Washington through the eight years of his administration, opposed the French Revolution, and was a strong advocate for the neutrality of the United States (see *Washington's Proclamation of Neutrality*). In 1796 he was chosen President by a small majority over Jefferson, and his administration was vehemently opposed by the new party known as Republicans, led by the latter, its real founder. He had much trouble with the French Directory (which see) throughout his entire administration, and drew upon himself great blame for favoring the Alien and Sedition Law (which see). In his eagerness for re-election Adams offended a powerful faction of his party, and was beaten by Jefferson at the election for President in 1800. Then he retired to private life, where he watched the course of events with great interest for twenty-five years longer. His death occurred on the same day, and at almost the same hour, as that of Jefferson, his colleague on the drafting-committee and in signing of the Declaration of Independence, fifty years before. His biography, diary, essays, and correspondence were edited and published, in ten octavo volumes, by his grandson, Charles Francis Adams. Though courteous in his manner usually, he was, at times, irritable and imperious.

JOHN ADAMS.

Adams, JOHN QUINCY, sixth President of the United States, was born in Braintree, Mass., July 11, 1767; died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 23, 1848. He was a son of President John Adams, and graduated at Harvard University in 1787. In February, 1778, he accompanied his father to France, where he studied the French and Latin languages for nearly two years. After an interval, he returned to France, and resumed his studies, which were subsequently pursued at Amsterdam and at the University of Leyden. At the age of fourteen years, he accompanied Mr. Dana to Russia as his private secretary. The next year he spent some time at Stockholm, Copenhagen, and Hamburg. He afterwards accompanied his father (who was American Minister) to England and France, and returned home with him early in 1785. After his graduation at Harvard, he studied law with the eminent Theophilus Parsons, practised at Boston, and soon became distinguished as a political writer. In 1791 he published a series of articles in favor of neutrality with France over the signature of "Publius." He was engaged in the diplomatic service of his country as Minister, successively, to Holland, England, and Prussia from 1794 to 1801. He received a commission, in 1798, to negotiate a treaty with Sweden. At Berlin he wrote a series of *Letters from Silesia*. Mr. Adams married Louisa, daughter of Joshua Johnson, American Consul at London, in 1797. He took a seat in the Senate of Massachusetts in 1802, and he occupied one in that of the United States from 1803 until 1808, when, disagreeing with the Legislature of Massachusetts on the embargo question, he resigned. From 1806 to 1809 he was professor of rhetoric in Harvard University. In the latter year he was appointed by President Madison Minister to Russia; and in 1814, while serving in that office, he was chosen one of the United States commissioners to negotiate a treaty of peace at Ghent. After that, he and Henry Clay and Albert Gallatin negotiated a commercial treaty with Great Britain, which was signed July 13, 1815. Mr. Adams remained in London as resident Minister until 1817, when he was called to the cabinet of President Monroe as Secretary of State. In 1824 he was elected President of the United States, and took his seat as such March 4, 1825, serving one term. In 1831 he was elected to a seat in Congress, and was continued in it by successive elections until his death, which occurred suddenly in the Capitol. His last words were, "This is the last of earth; I am content." Mr. Adams was a ripe scholar, an able diplomatist, a life-long opponent of human slavery, a bold and unflinching advocate for its abolition from our land, and an eloquent orator. When he was eighty years of age he was called "The old man eloquent." He wrote prose and poetry with almost equal facility and purity of diction.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Adams, SAMUEL, was born in Boston, Sept. 27, 1722; died there, Oct. 2, 1803. He graduated at Harvard University in 1742, and was honored with the degree of LL.D. by it in 1792. The tendency of his mind was shown when, at the age of twenty-one, receiving the degree of A.M., he proposed, and took the affirmative on, the question, "Whether it be lawful to resist the Supreme Magistrate if the Commonwealth cannot otherwise be preserved?" He published a pamphlet at about the same time entitled *Englishmen's Rights*. He became an unsuccessful merchant, but a successful writer; and gained great popularity by his political essays against the administration of Governor Shirley. Stern in morals, a born republican, and with courage equal to his convictions, Samuel Adams was a natural leader of the opposers of the Stamp Act and kindred measures of Parliament, and from that period (1765) until the independence of the colonies was achieved he was a foremost leader of the patriot host. He suggested the Stamp Act Congress, and was a continual object of dread and hatred to the colonial governors. He proposed the first Committee of Correspondence in Massachusetts in



SAMUEL ADAMS.

1772; and, when General Gage besought him to make his peace with the king, he replied, "I trust I have made my peace with the King of kings. No personal considerations shall induce me to abandon the righteous cause of my country." In 1774 he was the chief in maturing the plan for a Continental Congress; was a member of it; and served in that body most efficiently from that time until 1781. So early as 1769 Mr. Adams advocated the independence of the colonies, and was one of the warmest supporters of it in the Congress. When debating on the Declaration of Independence, Adams said, "I should advise persisting in our struggle for liberty though it were revealed from heaven that nine hundred and ninety-nine were to perish, and one of a thousand were to survive and retain his liberty. One such freeman must possess more virtue, and enjoy more happiness, than a thousand slaves; and let him propagate his like, and transmit to them what he has so nobly preserved." Mr. Adams assisted in drafting the State Constitution of Massachusetts (1779), was President of his State Senate (1781), member of his State Convention that ratified the National Constitution, lieutenant-governor (1789–94), and governor (1794–97). He sympathized with the French Revolutionists, and was a Jeffersonian Democrat in politics in his latter days. The purity of his life, and his inflexible integrity, were attested by friends and foes. Hutchinson, in a letter to his government, said he was of "such an obstinate and inflexible disposition that no gift nor office would ever conciliate him." His piety was sincere, and he was a thoroughbred Puritan. Without fortune, without a profession, he depended on moderate salaries and emoluments of office; and for almost fifty years a daily maintenance, frugal in the extreme, was eked out by the industry and prudence of his second wife, whom he married in 1757. Samuel Adams appears as one of the grandest figures among representative Americans.

Adams and Hancock. Samuel Adams and John Hancock were regarded as arch-rebels by General Gage, and he resolved to arrest them and send them to England to be tried for treason. A capital part of his scheme, in sending out the expedition to Lexington and Concord (April 18–19, 1775), was the seizure of these patriots, who, members of the Provincial Congress, had tarried at Lexington on being informed of Gage's intention to arrest them on their return to Boston. They were at the house of Rev. Jonas Clarke, and Gage thought to surprise and capture them at midnight. The vigilant Warren, learning the secret of the expedition, sent Paul Revere to warn the patriots of their danger. Revere waited at Charlestown for a signal-light from the sexton of the North Church, to warn him of the forward movement of the troops. It was given, and on Deacon Larkin's swift horse Revere sped to Lexington. At a little past midnight he rode up to Clarke's house, which he found guarded by Sergeant Monroe and his men. In hurried words he asked for Hancock. "The family have retired," said the Sergeant, "and I am directed not to allow them to be disturbed by any noise." "Noise!" exclaimed Revere; "you'll have noise enough before long; the regulars are coming out!" He was then allowed to knock at the door. Mr. Clarke appeared at a window, when Revere said, "I wish to see Mr. Hancock." "I do not like to admit strangers into my house so late at night," answered Mr. Clarke. Hancock, who was not asleep, recognized Revere's voice, and called out, "Come in, Revere, we are not afraid of *you*." The warning was given; the whole household was soon astir, and the two patriots awaited the coming of the enemy. When they approached, the "arch-rebels" were persuaded to retire to a more secure retreat, followed by Dorothy Quincy, to whom Hancock was affianced (and whom he married in September following), who was on a visit at Mr. Clarke's. When Adams, from a wooded hill near Clarke's house, saw the beginning of the skirmish at Lexington, he exclaimed, with prophetic prescience, "What a glorious morning for America is this!" In a proclamation (June 12) in which he denounced those in arms and their abettors to be "rebels and parricides of the Constitution," and offered a free pardon to all who should forthwith return to their allegiance, General Gage excepted Adams and Hancock, who were outlawed, and for whom he offered a reward as "arch-traitors."

"Adams and Liberty." In the spring and early summer of 1798, a war-spirit of great intensity excited the American people. The conduct of France towards the United States and its ministers had caused the American government to make preparations for war upon the French. In June, Robert Treat Paine, a poet of considerable merit, and a native of Massachusetts, was engaged to write a patriotic song to be sung at the anniversary of the "Massachusetts Charitable Fire Society." He composed one which he entitled "Adams and Liberty." It was adapted to the spirit of the time, and had a wonderful effect upon the people. It was really a war-song, in nine stanzas. The following verses expressed the temper of the people then:

"While France her huge limbs bathes recumbent in blood,
And Society's base threats with wide dissolution,
May Peace, like the dove, who returned from the flood,
Find an ark of abode in our mild Constitution.
But though Peace is our aim,
Yet the boon we disclaim,
If bought by our Sov'reignty, Justice, or Fame.

"'Tis the fire of the flint, each American warms;
Let Rome's haughty victors beware of collision,
Let them bring all the vassals of Europe in arms—
We're a world by ourselves, and disclaim a division.
While with patriot pride
To our laws we're allied,
No foe can subdue us, no faction divide.

"Our mountains are crowned with imperial oak,
Whose roots, like our liberties, ages have nourished;
But long ere our nation submits to the yoke,
Not a tree shall be left on the field where it flourished.
Should invasion impend,
Every grove would descend
From the hill-tops they shaded, our shores to defend.

"Let our patriots destroy Anarch's pestilent worm,
Lest our Liberty's growth should be checked by corrosion;
Then let clouds thicken round us, we heed not the storm,
Our realm fears no shock but the earth's own explosion.

Foes assail us in vain,
Though their fleets bridge the main,
For our altars and laws with our lives we'll maintain.
For ne'er shall the sons of Columbia be slaves
While the earth bears a plant or the sea rolls its waves."

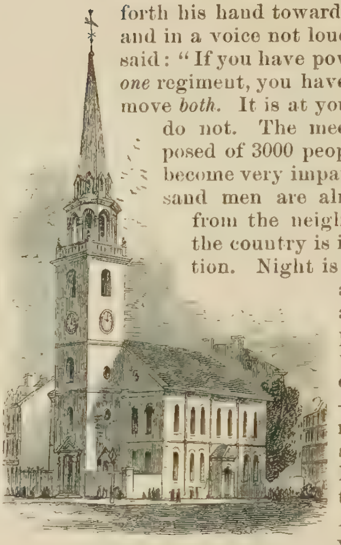
At the home of Major Russell, editor of the *Boston Sentinel*, the author offered it to that gentleman. "It is imperfect," said Russell, "without the name of Washington in it." Mr. Paine was about to take some wine, when Russell politely and good-naturedly interfered, saying, "You can have none of my wine, Mr Paine, until you have written another stanza with Washington's name in it." Paine walked back and forth a few minutes, called for a pen, and wrote the fifth verse in the poem as follows:

"Should the tempest of war overshadow our land,
Its bolts could ne'er rend Freedom's temple asunder;
For, unmoved, at its portal, would Washington stand,
And repulse with his breast the assaults of the thunder!
His sword from the sleep
Of its scabbard would leap,
And conduct with its point ev'ry flash to the deep!
For ne'er shall the sons of Columbia be slaves
While the earth bears a plant or the sea rolls its waves."

This song became immensely popular, and was sung all over the country—in theatres and other public places, in drawing-rooms and workshops, and by the boys in the streets. The sale of it, printed on a "broadside," yielded the author a profit of $750.

Adams (JOHN QUINCY), **Election of, as President.** When Monroe's administration was drawing to a close, several prominent men were spoken of as candidates for the Presidency—William H. Crawford, John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay, John C. Calhoun, and Andrew Jackson. The votes in the autumn of 1824 showed that the people had not elected either of the candidates; and when the votes of the Electoral College were counted, it was found that the choice of President devolved upon the House of Representatives. In February, 1825, that body chose John Quincy Adams President, and John C. Calhoun Vice-President. Mr. Adams received the votes of thirteen states on the first ballot, General Jackson seven states, and Mr. Crawford four states. Mr. Calhoun received the votes of 182 of the electors, against 78 for all others. The Electoral College had given Jackson the largest vote of any candidate—99—and Adams 84.

Adams (SAMUEL) **overawes Hutchinson.** Immediately after the "Boston Massacre" (which see), a monster meeting of citizens of Boston was held in the Old South Meeting-house, and appointed a committee, consisting of Samuel Adams, John Hancock, William Molineux, William Phillips, Joseph Warren, Joshua Henshaw, and Samuel Pemberton, to call on Lieutenant-governor Hutchinson, and demand the removal of the British troops from Boston, by presenting resolutions to that effect adopted by the meeting. Adams submitted the resolutions. The Lieutenant-governor and Colonel Dalrymple were disposed to temporize. Hutchinson said he had no power to remove all the troops. Adams proved that he had, by the terms of the charter. Still the crown officers hesitated. Adams resolved that there should be no more trifling with the will of the people. Stretching forth his hand towards Hutchinson, and in a voice not loud but clear, he said: "If you have power to remove *one* regiment, you have power to remove *both*. It is at your peril if you do not. The meeting is composed of 3000 people. They are become very impatient. A thousand men are already arrived from the neighborhood, and the country is in general motion. Night is approaching; an immediate answer is expected." This was the voice of the province—of the continent. Hutchinson grew pale; his knees trembled; and Adams afterwards said, "I enjoyed the sight." After conferring together in a whisper, Hutchinson and Dalrymple promised to send all the troops to Castle William, in Boston Harbor.



OLD SOUTH MEETING-HOUSE.

Adams's (JOHN) **Cabinet Ministers** (1797). Timothy Pickering, Secretary of State; Oliver Wolcott, Secretary of the Treasury; James M'Henry, Secretary of War; Charles Lee, Attorney-general. This was the cabinet council left by Washington, which Mr. Adams adopted. Washington's first cabinet had all resigned during the early part of his second term of office, and the above-named gentlemen were appointed during 1795 and 1796.

Adams's (JOHN Q.) **Cabinet Ministers** (1825). President Adams nominated for his cabinet Henry Clay, of Kentucky, Secretary of State; Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; James Barbour, of Virginia, Secretary of War. These nominations were all immediately confirmed by unanimous votes excepting that of Mr. Clay, against whom fourteen votes were cast. Samuel L. Southard, whom Monroe had appointed Secretary of the Navy, Dec. 9, 1823, was continued in office; so also was William Wirt, appointed Attorney-general by Monroe, Dec. 15, 1817. John M'Lean, of Ohio, appointed Postmaster-general by Monroe, Dec. 9, 1823, was also continued in office.

Adams's (JOHN) **Prophecy.** While John Adams was teaching school at Worcester, in 1755, at the age of twenty years, he wrote a letter to Nathan Webb, in which he remarked: "Mighty states and kingdoms are not exempted from change. . . . Soon after the Reformation, a few people came over into this new world for conscience' sake. This apparently trivial incident may transfer the great seat of empire to America. . . . If we can remove the turbulent Gallics, our people, according to the exactest calculations, will, in another century, become more numerous than in England itself. The united force of Europe will not be able to subdue us. The only way to keep us from setting up for ourselves is to disunite us." Less than thirty years afterwards the prophet stood before the monarch of England as the representative of an American republic, where, only ten years before, were flourishing English colonies. And just a century after that prophecy was uttered the number and strength of the people here exceeded the calculation of young Adams. The population then was more than double that of England; and, while his country was fiercely torn by civil war, its government defied the power of Great Britain, France, Spain, and the Papal States, whose rulers were enemies of republican government. Lord Kames uttered a similar prophecy in 1765.

Adams's (C. F.) **Resolution** (1860). When the spirit of secession was rampant in Congress late in December, 1860, Charles Francis Adams, of Massachusetts, tried to soothe the passions of the Southern politicians by offering, in the House Committee of Thirty-three (see *Thirty-eighth Congress*), a resolution, "That it is expedient to propose an amendment to the Constitution, to the effect that no future amendments of it in regard to slavery shall be made unless proposed by a slave state and ratified by all the states." It was passed by only three dissenting voices in the committee.

Adams's Scheme of Government. John Adams saw with alarm the contagion of revolution that went out from Paris, in 1789, affecting England, and, in a degree, his own country. It was different, in form and substance, from that which had made his own people free. With a view to avert its evil tendencies, he wrote a series of articles for a newspaper, entitled "Discourses on Davila." These contained an analysis of *Davila's History of the Civil War in France*, in the 16th century. In those essays he maintained that, as self-esteem was the great spring of human activity, it was important in a popular government to provide for the moderate gratification of a desire for distinction, applause, and admiration. He therefore advocated a liberal use of titles and ceremonial honors for those in office, and an aristocratic Senate. He proposed a popular Assembly on the broadest democratic basis to counteract any undue influence; and to keep in check encroachments upon each other he recommended a powerful executive. The publication of these essays at that time was unfortunate, when jealousy was rife in the public mind concerning the National Constitution. His ideas were so cloudily expressed that his meaning was misunderstood by many and misinterpreted by a few. He was charged with advocating a monarchy and a hereditary Senate. The essays disgusted Jefferson, who for a time cherished the idea that Hamilton, Adams, Jay, and others were at the head of a conspiracy to overthrow the republican institutions of the United States.

Addressers. There was far from unanimity of sentiment in opposition to British authority even in Boston. With the Boston Port Bill (which see) came Governor Hutchinson's recall. He had been waiting, in seclusion, for fear of the indignant populace, to find an opportunity to leave the province for England; and before he departed (June 1, 1774) 120 merchants, and many lawyers, magistrates, and principal men of Boston, with others at Salem and Marblehead, signed an address to him, in which they expressed entire approbation of his public conduct, and affectionate wishes for his prosperity. These "addressers" were afterwards required to recant, and those who refused to do so became refugee loyalists, who fled from Boston in 1776.

Addresses and Remonstrances were sent to King George in 1768 against the taxation schemes of Parliament, by the assemblies of Massachusetts, Virginia, Delaware, and Georgia. These were all couched in respectful language, but ever firm and keenly argumentative, having for their premises the chartered rights of the various colonies. But these voices of free-born Englishmen were not only utterly disregarded, but treated with scorn. The pride and the sense of justice and self-respect of the Americans were thereby outraged. It was an offence not easily forgiven or forgotten.

Addresses of the People of New Netherland. The first address of the people of New Netherland to the authorities in Holland was in October and November, 1643. The savage conduct of Governor Kieft (which see) towards the surrounding Indians had brought the Dutch colony into great distress because of the hostilities of the barbarians. Kieft, in the extremity of perplexity, had called the people together to consult upon the crisis, and begged them to choose a new popular council. They chose eight energetic citizens, who seized the reins of government and prepared for defence. On Oct. 24, they addressed to the College of XIX. at Amsterdam, and on Nov. 3, to the States-General, statements of the sad condition of the colony caused by Kieft's bad conduct. Two letters were also sent directly by citizens of New Amsterdam, written in simple but eloquent language. In these letters the eight men drew a pitiable picture of their sufferings — women and children starving; their homes destroyed; the people skulking around the fort at Manhattan, where they were "not one hour safe." They prayed for assistance, to save them from "the cruel heathens." The winter that followed was a terrible one in New Netherland. A second appeal from the Council of Eight Men at Manhattan to the College of XIX., in October, 1644, reached that body while it was considering the first address. The second gave a bolder and more definite statement of the grievances of the colonists, and more specific charges against the governor, to whose acts all their troubles were attributed. They asked for his recall. The States-General had already peremptorily ordered the West Indian Company to take measures to relieve the people, but the corporation was bankrupt and powerless. The immediate purpose of the eight men was gained, for Kieft was ordered to Holland, and Lubbertus van Dincklagen, the former sheriff, was appointed provisional governor, until the commission of Peter Stuyvesant was issued in May, 1645.

Adet, Pierre Augustus, was born in Nevers, France, in 1763; died about 1832. He was educated for the artillery service; but leaving it, he devoted himself to the study of the sciences, and became a skilful chemist. Engaging in politics, he was successively chief of the administration of the colonies; member of the Council of Mines; colleague of the Minister of Marine in 1793; resident at Geneva in 1794; and ambassador to the United States in 1795–97. Here he, too, interfered too much in local politics, and became unpopular with the government party. He issued an inflammatory address to the American people, in which he accused the administration of Washington with violations of the friendship which once existed between the United States and France. On his return to France, Adet was called to the tribunate, and in 1803 was made Prefect of Nevers. In 1807 he was chosen to the French Senate, and to the Chamber of Deputies, in 1814, as a Constitutionalist. M. Adet published some works on chemistry. While in the United States he was a busy partisan of the Republicans. In 1796 he presented to Congress, in behalf of the French nation, the tri-colored flag of France; and just before he left, in 1797, he sent to the Secretary of State the famous note in which the Directory, contrary to the spirit of the treaty of 1778, declared that the flag of the republic would treat all neutral flags as they permitted themselves to be treated by the English. Soon afterwards Adet suspended his diplomatic functions, and returned to France.

Adet's Final Appeal. Ten days after the issuance of his "Cockade Proclamation" (which see), the French minister, Adet, sent a note simultaneously to the State Department and to the *Aurora*—the opposition newspaper—demanding, "in the name of the faith of treaties and of American honor, the execution of that contract [treaty of 1778] which assured to the United States their existence, and which France regarded as a pledge of the most sacred union between two people, the freest upon earth." He announced, at the same time, "the resolution of a government terrible to its enemies, but generous to its allies." With grandiloquent sentences he portrayed the disappointment of the French nation in not finding a warm friend in the American government. "So far from offering the French the succor which friendship might have given," he said, "without compromitting itself, the American government, in this respect, violated the obligations of treaties." This was followed by a summary of these alleged violations, including the circular of 1793, restraining the fitting-out of privateers in American waters; the law of 1794, prohibiting hostile enterprises or preparations against nations with whom the United States were at peace; the cognizance of these matters taken by the American courts of law; and the admission of armed British vessels into American waters. He complained of the "British treaty" as inimical to the interests of France. This paper, published in the *Aurora*, was intended more for the American people than for the American government.

Admiral of New England. Francis West was commissioned Admiral of New England in 1623, with power to restrain such ships as came upon that coast to fish without the consent of the Council of Plymouth; but finding the fishermen too stubborn and numerous to be controlled, on his arrival in June, 1623, he sailed to Virginia. This interference with the New England fisheries called forth a petition to Parliament from the owners of the fishing-vessels, and an order was issued that the business should be free. In the spring of 1624 about fifty English fishing-ships appeared on the New England coasts.

Advertising in the United States. The advertisement of business of every kind in the United States is now almost universally practised. Agencies have been established as mediums between the advertiser and the vehicle for advertising. The first agency in America was established by Orlando Bourne, in 1828, and was followed, in 1840, by V. B. Palmer, who established agencies in Philadelphia, New York, and Boston. The business was fully systematized in 1860, when complete lists of all the American newspapers were kept at the agencies. A New York advertising agency now (1876) publishes an *American Newspaper Directory*, and employs about forty persons permanently. The amount paid for advertising is enormous. *Harper's Weekly* receives from $2.00 to $4.00 a line for advertising, according to position; the *New York Weekly Tribune*, $2.00 to $5.00 a line, the latter price being for advertisements inserted among the news items. Some mercantile firms spend $100,000 and $150,000 a year in advertising. A patent-medicine dealer paid, in one year, $250,000 for advertisements. The Pacific Railway companies paid between $400.000 and $500,000 for advertisements in a year; and in 1867 the United States government collected a tax on nearly $10,000,000 worth of advertisements. The use of pictures in advertising is coming more and more in fashion.

African Labor-supply Association. (See *Slave-trade Reopened.*)

African Slave-trade. In New England this trade was begun in Massachusetts, almost simultaneously with its ship-building and commerce. Indeed, it soon formed an important part of the latter. The ships that took cargoes of stores to the Canaries were in the habit of touching on the coast of Guinea, where they traded for negroes, who were generally, at first, carried to Barbadoes or other English islands of the West Indies. Afterwards the demand for negroes in New England caused many to be brought directly there from Africa, and Newport, R. I., became a profitable slave-market.

Agamenticus. There were a few English settlers in the region now known as York County, Maine, between the mountain and the sea, in 1636, and the territory was named Agamenticus.

It was within the grant given to Gorges and Mason. There a city was formed, and incorporated in 1641, in imitation of English municipalities, with a mayor and aldermen. The city was called Gorgeana. The occupants of the land in Agamenticus were tenants at will of the proprietor. There English apple-seeds were planted and thrived, and one of the trees that sprang up lived and bore fruit annually so late as 1875, when it was cut down.

Agassiz, Louis John Rudolph, naturalist, was born in Mottier parish, near Neufchatel, Switzerland, May 28, 1807; died Dec. 11, 1873. He was of Huguenot descent, was thoroughly educated at Heidelberg and Munich, and received the honorary degree of Ph.D. He prosecuted his studies in natural history in Paris, where Cuvier offered him his collection for the purpose. The liberality of Humboldt enabled him to publish his great work (1834–44) on *Fossil Fishes*, in five volumes, with an atlas. He arrived in Boston in 1846, and lectured there on the Animal Kingdom and on Glaciers. In the summer of 1847 the Superintendent of the Coast Survey (which see) tendered him the facilities of that service for a continuance of his scientific investigations. Professor Agassiz settled in Cambridge, and was made Professor of Zoology and Geology of the Lawrence Scientific School at its foundation in 1848. That year he made, with some of his pupils, a scientific exploration of the shores of Lake Superior. He afterwards explored the southern coasts of the United States, of Brazil, and the waters of the Pacific Ocean. An account of his explorations on the Brazilian coast was given in *A Journey to Brazil*, by Mrs. Agassiz, in 1867. He received the Copley Medal from the Royal Society of London; from the Academy of Sciences of Paris, the Monthoyon Prize and the Cuvier Prize; the Wollaston Medal from the Geological Society of London; and the Medal of Merit from the King of Prussia. He was a member of many scientific societies, and the universities of Dublin and Edinburgh conferred on him the honorary degree of LL.D. Professor Agassiz published valuable scientific works in Europe and in this country.

LOUIS AGASSIZ.

Agnew, James, a British general, who came to Boston late in 1775; participated in the military movements there; and was engaged in the battle of Long Island, where, and in subsequent campaigns, he commanded the fourth brigade of the Royal army. He accompanied ex-Governor Tryon in his marauding expedition to Danbury, Conn., April 26, 1779. He was slightly wounded in the battle of Brandywine (Sept. 11), and in the battle of Germantown (Oct. 4, 1777) he was slain. His remains were interred, with those of Lieutenant Bird, in the South Burying-ground at Germantown; and over them John F. Watson, the annalist, placed a neat white-marble slab.

Agricultural Colleges. In 1857, J. S. Morill, M.C., Chairman of the Committee on Agriculture of the House of Representatives, introduced a bill appropriating to the several states a portion of the public lands for the purpose of encouraging institutions for the advancement of agriculture and the mechanic arts. The bill lingered in Congress (having been vetoed by President Buchanan) until July, 1862, when it became a law. The act provided that each state should receive a quantity of land equal in value to thirty thousand dollars for each of its senators and representatives in Congress under the census of 1860, to establish at least one college in each state where "all the needful sciences for the practical avocations of life" should be taught, and "where agriculture, the foundation of all present and future prosperity, may look for troops of earnest friends studying its familiar and recondite economies." It provided that all expenses of location, management, taxation, etc., should be paid by the respective state treasurers, that the entire proceeds of the sales of the land may forever remain undiminished, and that every state receiving the grant must provide an institution within five years from the date of filing its acceptance of the grant. Every state in the Union but Nebraska had established one or more of these industrial colleges in 1876, in which persons of both sexes may equally enjoy the benefits of the institution. Each student is paid a stipulated sum of money for every hour of labor given to the institution; and by this means students are materially aided in defraying the expenses of their education. In these colleges the mechanic arts and certain branches of the fine arts are studied. The movement in Congress was undoubtedly suggested by the success of the "Pennsylvania Agricultural College," established in 1854 by the late Dr. Evan Pugh. It was the first institution of the kind established in this country.

Agricultural Implements. The manufacture of agricultural implements in the United States is a very extensive and profitable industry. In 1870 there were over 2000 establishments devoted to this manufacture, of every kind, from the hand-rake to the reaper, employing more than 25,000 persons, who received annually over $12,000,000 in wages, and produced yearly wares valued at about $53,000,000. Scarcely a single agricultural implement remains in its old form of structure, having been improved so as to economize material, time, and form.

Agricultural Societies. The first society in the United States was formed by planters of South Carolina in 1784, and it is yet in existence. The next year the "Philadelphia Society for Promoting Agriculture" was formed, and in 1791 citizens of New York organized a similar society. In 1792 the "Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture" was organized. These were city institutions, and not composed of practical farmers. They dealt with facts and theories. The majority of husbandmen then did not hear nor heed their appeals for improvement. But finally the more intelligent of that class of citizens became interested, and a convention of practical farmers in the District of Columbia, held in 1809, resulted in the formation of the "Columbian Agricultural Society for the Promotion of Rural and Domestic Economy." They offered premiums; and their fair, held in May, 1810, is believed to be the first exhibition of its kind in this country. Elkanah Watson (which see) founded the "Berkshire (Mass.) Agricultural Society" in 1810, and there was a grand "Agricultural Fair and Cattle Show" at Pittsfield in September, 1811. It was the first of the county fairs held in this country. From that time until now there has been, at first a gradual, and then a rapid, increase in such institutions; and in 1876 they existed in every state and territory of the Union. There were then full two thousand of them in the Republic, the greater number of them being in the comparatively new State of Iowa. There were one hundred and ninety-two in that commonwealth.

Agriculture and Manufactures, VALUE OF IN THE UNITED STATES. The entire value of the annual agricultural products of the United States and Territories in 1870, including crops and betterments, animals slaughtered and sold for slaughter, home manufactures, and forest, market-garden, and orchard products, was estimated in value at about $3,000,000,000. The total product of our manufactures the same year was valued at $4,232,325,000, or $1,232,325,000 more than the total value of the agricultural products of the country. The rapid increase in our manufactured products is shown by the fact that the amount produced in 1870 was $3,213,325,000 more than in 1850, an increase of over 300 per cent. in twenty years.

Aid from France. In the spring of 1777 arms and ammunition for the American patriots were sent from France (see *Beaumarchais*). These arrived at Portsmouth, N. H., in a French vessel of twenty-four guns. There were more than eleven thousand muskets and one thousand barrels of gunpowder. At about the same time ten thousand stand of arms arrived from the same country at another American port. These were intended as gifts to the Americans, to enable them to carry on the war against England; but circumstances frustrated this intention, and payment, in part, was made for them.

Aitken, ROBERT, publisher of the first American edition of the Holy Scriptures. He was born in Scotland in 1734, and died in Philadelphia in July, 1802. Mr. Aitken arrived in Philadelphia from Scotland in 1769. He was a practical printer, and published the *Pennsylvania Magazine,* or *American Monthly Museum,* from January, 1775, to June, 1776. He was a warm Whig, and was thrown into prison after the British took possession of Philadelphia, late in 1777. He very narrowly escaped the horrors of a British prison-ship in New York. (See *Prison-ships.*) He issued the first American edition of the Bible in 1782, by which he lost considerable money. He is supposed to have been the author of a paper entitled *An Inquiry Concerning the Principles of a Commercial System for the United States.*

Aix-la-Chapelle, TREATY OF (1748). This treaty, between Great Britain, France, Holland, Germany, Spain, and Greece, was a famous one, and was signed by the representatives of these respective powers on the 18th of October (N. S.), 1748. By it the treaties of Westphalia (1648), of Nimeguen (1678–79), of Ryswick (1697), of Utrecht (1713), of Baden (1714), of the Triple Alliance (1717), of the Quadruple Alliance (1718), and of Vienna (1738), were renewed and confirmed. It was fondly hoped this treaty would insure a permanent peace for Europe.

Alabama. The soil of this state was first trodden by Europeans in 1540. These were the followers of De Soto (which see). In 1702, Bienville, the French Governor of Louisiana, entered Mobile Bay, and built a fort and trading-house at the mouth of Dog River. In 1711 the French founded Mobile, and there a colony prospered for a while. Negro slaves were first brought into this colony by three French ships of war in 1721. By the treaty of 1763 this region was transferred by France to Great Britain. Alabama formed a portion of the State of Georgia, but in 1798 the country now included in the states of Alabama and Mississippi was organized as a territory called Mississippi. After the Creeks disappeared (see *Creek War*) the region of Alabama was rapidly settled by white people, and in 1819 it entered the Union as a state. The slave population increased more rapidly than the white. In the Democratic National Convention at Charleston in 1860 the delegates of Alabama took the lead in seceding from the convention (see *Charleston Convention*). A convention assembled at Montgomery early in January, 1861, and on the 11th passed an ordinance of secession. (See *Alabama Ordinance of Secession.*) The Alabama senators and representatives withdrew from Congress Jan. 21, 1861. On March 13 a State Convention ratified the constitution adopted by the Confederate Congress. The authorities of the state seized the national property within its borders, and sent troops to Florida to assist in capturing Fort Pickens and other public works there. Alabama sent a commissioner to Washington as an ambassador, but he was not received. During the civil war that

STATE SEAL OF ALABAMA.

ensued, Alabama bore her share of the burden, and her cities and plantations suffered from the ravages of the conflict. Wilson's cavalry raid through the state caused great destruction of property. (See *Wilson's Raid.*) During the war Alabama furnished one hundred and twenty-two thousand troops to the Confederate army, of whom thirty-five thousand were killed or wounded. Montgomery, in the interior of the state, was the Confederate capital until July, 1861, when the seat of government was removed to Richmond. At the close of the war a provisional governor for Alabama was appointed (June 21, 1865), and in September a convention reordained the civil and criminal laws, excepting such as related to slavery; declared the ordinance of secession and the state war-debt null; passed an ordinance against slavery; and provided for an election of state officers, who were chosen in November. The government thus constituted remained in force until superseded by military rule in 1867. In November of that year a convention formed a new constitution for the state, which was ratified Feb. 4, 1868. State officers and members of Congress having been duly chosen, and all requirements complied with, Alabama became entitled to representation in Congress; and on July 14, 1868, the military relinquished to the civil authorities all legal control. The Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the National Constitution were ratified by Alabama, the latter Nov. 16, 1870.

Alabama, DESTRUCTION OF THE. The *Alabama* was a Confederate privateer; a British vessel, manned chiefly by British subjects at a British port; armed with British cannon, and provided with coal and other supplies from British soil. She had no acknowledged flag, nor recognized nationality, nor any accessible port to which she might send her prizes, nor any legal tribunal to adjudge her captures. She was commanded by Raphael Semmes, a native of Maryland, and roamed the seas, plundering and destroying vessels belonging to American citizens. Her commander avoided contact with American armed vessels, but finally encountered the *Kearsarge*, Captain John A. Winslow, off Cherbourg, France, in the summer of 1864. On June 19 Semmes went out of the harbor of Cherbourg to fight the *Kearsarge*, which was watching her outside. She was followed by the yacht *Deerhound* (belonging to Mr. Lancaster, one of the English gentry), a sort of tender to the *Alabama*, to take care that Semmes, if defeated, should not fall into the hands of Winslow. The *Alabama* was accompanied by a French frigate to a point beyond the territorial waters of France. At a distance of seven miles from the Cherbourg breakwater, the *Kearsarge* turned and made for the Confederate cruiser, when, within 1200 yards of her, the latter opened fire. After receiving two or three broadsides, the *Kearsarge* responded with telling effect. They fought for an hour, the steamers moving in a circle. At the end of the hour the *Alabama* was at the mercy of her antagonist, and a white flag was displayed over her stern. Respecting this, Winslow ceased firing. Two minutes afterwards the *Alabama* treacherously fired two guns at the *Kearsarge*, and attempted to run to the protection of French neutral waters, not more than three miles distant. Winslow opened fire again, and very soon a boat came to his vessel from the *Alabama*, saying she had surrendered and was fast sinking. Just then the *Deerhound* passed by, when Winslow humanely asked her owner to assist him in saving the unfortunate crew of the *Alabama*, which, in twenty minutes, went to the bottom of the sea. The *Kearsarge* rescued sixty-five of the crew; the *Deerhound* picked up Semmes, his officers, and a few mariners, and carried them away from the lawful custody of Winslow, to England, where that commander was received with great honor. The *Kearsarge* had three men badly wounded—one of them mortally. The *Alabama* had nine men killed and twenty-one wounded. (See *Tribunal of Arbitration.*)

THE ALABAMA.

Alabama Ordinance of Secession (1861). Elections for members of a State Convention in Alabama were held Dec. 24, 1868, and, as in some of the other states, the politicians were divided into "Secessionists" and "Co-operationists." (See *Mississippi Ordinance of Secession.*) The latter were also divided; one party wishing the co-operation of all the slave-labor states, and the other caring only for the co-operation of the cotton-producing states. The vote for all but ten counties was, for secession, 24,445; and for co-operation, 33,685. In the ten counties, some were for secession and some for co-operation. In the convention assembled at Montgomery, June 7, 1861, every county in the state was represented. William Brooks was chosen president. There was a powerful infusion of Union sentiment in the convention, which endeavored to postpone a decision, under the plea of the desirableness of co-operation. A committee of thirteen was appointed to report an Ordinance of Secession. It was submitted on the 10th. It was longer than any other already adopted, but similar in tenor. They assumed that the commonwealth, which had been created by the national government first a territory and then a state (1819), had "delegated sovereign powers" to that government, which were now "resumed and vested in the people of the State of Alabama." The convention favored the formation of a confederacy of slave-labor states, and formally invited the others to send delegates to meet those of Alabama, in general convention, on the 4th of February, at Montgomery, for consultation on the subject. The convention was not harmonious. Union men were not to be put down without a struggle. There was a minority report on Secession; and some were for postponing the act until the 4th of March, with a hope of preserving the Union. Nicholas Davis, from Northern Alabama, declared his belief that the people of his section would not submit to any disunion scheme, when Yancey (which see) denounced him and his fellow-citizens of that region as "tories, traitors, and rebels," and said they "ought to be coerced into submission." Davis was not moved by these menaces, but assured the secessionists that the people of his section would be ready to meet their enemies on the line and decide the issue at the point of the bayonet. The final vote on the Ordinance of Secession was taken at two o'clock P.M. on Jan. 11, and resulted in sixty-one ayes to thirty-nine nays. An immense mass-meeting was immediately held in front of the State-house, and timid "co-operationists" assured the multitude that their constituents would support the ordinance. A Secession flag, which the women of Montgomery had presented to the convention, was raised over the capital. In Mobile, when the news reached that city, one hundred and one guns were fired in honor of Alabama, and fifteen for Florida. At night the city blazed with fireworks, the favorite pieces being the "Southern Cross" and the "Lone Star." The convention had voted against the re-opening of the slave-trade, and adjourned on Jan. 30, 1861.

Alabama preparing for revolt (1860). Herschell V. Johnson, the candidate for Vice-President on the Douglas ticket, declared, in a speech at the Cooper Institute, New York, so early as Oct. 24, 1860, that Alabama was ripe for revolt in case Mr. Lincoln should be elected; that it was pledged to withdraw from the Union, and had appropriated $200,000 for military contingencies. The governor suggested secession at the beginning of November; and in December, 1860, the conference of the "Methodist Church South," sitting at Montgomery, declared that "African slavery, as it existed in the Southern States of the Republic, to be a wise, humane, and righteous institution, approved of God, and calculated to promote, to the highest possible degree, the welfare of the slave; that the election of a sectional President of the United States was evidence of the hostility of the majority to the people of the South, and which in fact, if not in form, dissolves the compact of union between the states." Northern Alabama was opposed to the movement.

Alarçon, Francisco. (See *Coronado.*)

Alarm at New York. When Sir Henry Clinton, at New York, heard of the arrival of D'Estaing's fleet off the Southern coasts, in the fall of 1779, he feared that city might be attacked; so he ordered the evacuation of Rhode Island and the forts on the Hudson, and the concentration of the forces around the headquarters of the army. He had held Rhode Island about three years. An expedition about to sail for the West Indies was also detained for the defence of New York. As soon as Clinton was assured of the departure of D'Estaing for France (see *Siege of Savannah*), Clinton embarked for Georgia (Dec. 24, 1779) with 7000 troops. About that time there were embodied about 5000 American loyalists. Of these, 1000 were already at Savannah, 2000 more sailed with Clinton, and the remainder were left at New York, with Knyphausen, who held that city with a strong garrison.

Alarm in New England. Early in September, 1774, a rumor spread over New England that British ships were cannonading Boston. Wherever the rumor reached there was a cry to arms. Men of all ages immediately responded; and within two days full 30,000 minute-men were under arms and hastening towards the suffering town. The rumor was false, and they returned to their homes; but this demonstration of the patriotism of the people, of their determination to sustain Boston in its defiant attitude, and of their amazing moral and physical strength, alarmed Gage and made him more circumspect and conciliating. It induced him to call a meeting of the Massachusetts Assembly. (See *Provincial Congress of Massachusetts*). This great uprising of the people was the beginning of mighty movements towards the grand end, independence.

Alarming Order from the War Department (1814). At the beginning of August, 1814, Armstrong, the Secretary of War, ordered General Izard, in command of a large body of troops at Plattsburg, to march a larger portion of them to co-operate with the army on the Niagara frontier. This order produced amazement and indignation in the mind of Izard and his officers, for they knew the imminent peril of immediate invasion, from the region of the St. Lawrence, of a large body of Wellington's veterans, who had lately arrived in Canada. (See *Downfall of Napoleon.*) Both the army and people were expecting an occasion for a great battle near the foot of Lake Champlain very soon, and this order produced consternation among the inhabitants. Izard wrote to the War Department in a tone of remonstrance, Aug. 11, "I will make the movement you direct, if possible; but I shall do it with the apprehension of risking the force under my command, and with the certainty that everything in this vicinity but the lately erected works at Plattsburg and Cumberland Head will, in less than three days after my departure, be in the possession of the enemy." Nine days afterwards Izard wrote to the Secretary: "I must not be responsible for the consequences of abandoning my present strong position. I will obey orders, and execute them as well as I know how." The removal of this force invited the invasion of Prevost immediately afterwards, which was checked by the American army and navy at Plattsburg, where, with great diligence, General Macomb concentrated troops for defence immediately after Izard left.

Alaska, formerly known as "Russian America," is a region in the extreme northwestern portion of North America, lying north of the parallel of 50° 40′ N. latitude, and west of the meridian of 140° W. longitude, including many islands lying off the coast. The Russians acquired possession of this territory by right of discovery by Vitus Behring (which see), in 1741. He discovered the crowning peak of the Alaska mountains, Mount St. Elias, on July 18. That mountain rises to a height of between 16,000 and 17,000 feet above the sea. In the same chain is Mount Fairweather, 14,000 feet in height. The mountain country has now ten volcanoes that are active. The entire coast-line of Alaska measures about 4000 miles, taking into account the smaller indentations. The climate in some parts is most agreeable. In the interior are said to be numerous lakes. Its valleys are fertile; its streams abound with fish and its forests with game; and its islands afford the most extensive and richest fur-seal fishing in the world. (See *Fur-trade.*) Sitka, or New Archangel, the capital of Alaska, is the oldest settlement. It was founded by Russian fur-traders, in the last century. The country was a sort of independent province, under the rule of the Russian-American Fur Company, to whom it was granted by the Emperor Paul in 1799. It was invested with the exclusive right of hunting and fishing in the American waters of the Czar. The charter of the company expired in 1867, when the government declined to renew it. In 1865–67, the country was explored by a scientific corps sent out by the United States to select a route for the Russo-American telegraph line, a project which was abandoned in consequence of the successful laying of the Atlantic cable (which see). Early in 1867, negotiations were begun for the purchase of the territory by the United States, and a treaty to that effect was ratified by the U. S. Senate May 20th, the same year. The price paid was $7,200,000. In October General Lovel H. Rousseau (which see), a commissioner for the purpose, formally took possession of the region. Alaska promises to be one of the most valuable of the territories of the Republic. It is a military and collection district, with headquarters at Sitka. There is not yet (1876) a territorial government organized for Alaska.

Albany, First Colonial Convention at (1689). Thoroughly alarmed by the opening hostilities of the French and Indians on the frontiers, the colonies of Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut sent commissioners to Albany to hold a conference with the chiefs of the Five Nations, all of whom, excepting the Mohawks, had renewed their covenant of friendship with the English. This covenant was renewed June 27, 1689, previous to the arrival of Count Frontenac in Canada. The commissioners held the conference in September following. They tried to persuade the Five Nations to engage in the war against the Eastern Indians. They would not agree to do so, but ratified the existing friendship with the English colonies. "We promise," they said, "to preserve the chain inviolably, and wish that the sun may always shine in peace over all our heads that are comprehended in the chain."

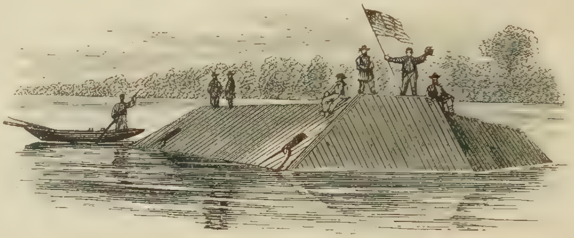
Albany, Second Colonial Convention at (1748). In the summer of 1748, when news of the preliminary treaty of peace reached the colonies, a convention or congress of colonial governors was called at Albany for a twofold purpose: (1) to secure a colonial revenue, and (2) to strengthen the bond of friendship between the Six Nations and their neighbors in the West, and the English. Only Governors Clinton and Shirley, two able commissioners from Massachusetts, and one (William Bull) from South Carolina, were present. With the latter came the Grand Sachem and some chiefs of the Catawbas, a nation which had long waged war with the Iroquois. (See *Catawbas.*) There was an immense number of the Six Nations present. The royal governors failed to gain anything for themselves in the way of a revenue, but satisfactory arrangements with the Indians, including the tribes along the southern borders of Lake Erie, were made. At that conference the commissioners from Massachusetts (Andrew Oliver and Thomas Hutchinson) presented a memorial for adoption, praying the king so far to interpose as that, while the French remained in Canada, the more southern colonies, which were not immediately exposed to hostilities, might be obliged to contribute in a just proportion towards the expense of protecting the inland portions of New York and New England. Clinton and Shirley signed and approved of the memorial, which was sent with it to the Board of Trade and Plantations (which see).

Albany, Third Colonial Convention at (1751). The kindly attitude manifested towards the French by the Six Nations excited the jealousy and alarm of the English, especially of Governor Clinton, of New York. As yet, the Iroquois had never recognized the claim of the English to dominion over their land, and they were free to act as they pleased. Clinton called a convention of representatives of the several English-American colonies, at Albany, and invited the Six Nations to send representatives to meet with them. Only Massachusetts, Connecticut, and South Carolina chose to incur the expense. Delegates from these colonies met the chiefs of the Six Nations (July 5, 1751) and made a treaty of friendship. The "King" of the Catawbas and several chiefs accompanied the South Carolina delegate (William Bull), and a peace between that Southern nation and the Iroquois was settled at the same time. (See *Catawbas* and *Iroquois.*)

Albany, Fourth Colonial Convention at (1754). There were indications that the Six Nations, influenced by French emissaries, were becoming alienated from the English. The colonists were uneasy, and the British government, acting upon the advice of the royal governors in America, sent a circular letter to all the colonial assemblies, proposing the holding of a convention at Albany, to be composed of committees from the several legislatures and representatives of the Six Nations. Seven of the assemblies responded, and on June 19, 1754, twenty-five delegates assembled in the old City Hall at Albany. James De Lancey, acting Governor of New York, presided, and he was authorized by the Virginia Legislature to represent that colony in the convention. The chiefs of the Six Nations were there in great numbers, of whom "King Hendrick," of the Mohawks, was leader. To the Indians De Lancey first spoke, and Hendrick responded in words of bitter reproof of the English for their neglect of preparations for danger. "Look at the French," he said; "they are men; they are fortifying everywhere; but, we are ashamed to say it, you are like women, bare and open, without any fortifications. It is but one step from Canada hither, and the French may easily come and turn you out of doors." But the business with the Six Nations was closed amicably and satisfactorily by a treaty of friendship. The Massachusetts delegation was authorized to propose a measure quite as important as a treaty with the Indians. It was an invitation for the convention to consider the question whether a union of the colonies for mutual defence was not desirable; and they were empowered to agree to articles of union or confederation. The proposition was favorably received, and a committee, composed of one delegate from each colony, was appointed to draw up a plan. The fertile brain of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, a delegate from Pennsylvania, had conceived a plan before he went to the convention. It was reported by the committee and adopted by the convention, the Connecticut delegates alone dissenting. It proposed a grand council of forty-eight members, to be chosen by the several assemblies, the representatives of each colony to be, in number, in proportion to the contribution of each to the general treasury. No colony was to have more than seven nor less than two members. This congress was to choose their own speaker and have the general management of all civil and military affairs, and to enact general laws in conformity to the British Constitution. It proposed to have a president-general, appointed and paid by the crown, who should have a negative or veto power on all acts of the congress, and to have, with the advice and consent of the congress, the appointment of all military officers, and the entire management of Indian affairs; the civil officers to be appointed by the congress with the approval of the president-general. This plan of government bore a strong resemblance to our national constitution, which Franklin assisted in framing more than thirty years afterwards. (See *National Constitution*). This plan was submitted to the Lords of Trade and Plantations (which see). They did not approve of it, nor recommend it to the king for consideration. They thought there was too much *democracy* in it. The assemblies did not favor it, because they thought there was too much *prerogative* in it. So it was rejected.

Albany Regency. A name popularly given to a few active and able men of the Democratic Party more than fifty years ago, of whom Martin Van Buren was a leader, having their headquarters at Albany, the political capital of the State of New York, and who, in a great degree, controlled the action of their party throughout the Union. Their first great trial of strength was seen in an effort to elect William H. Crawford President of the United States in 1824, instead of John Quincy Adams.

Albemarle, DESTRUCTION OF THE (1864). The *Albemarle* was a powerful Confederate "ram" that patrolled the waters off the coast of North Carolina. It was a frightful bugbear to the national blockading vessels. Late in October, 1864, Lieutenant W. B. Cushing, a daring young officer of the United States Navy, undertook to destroy it. It was lying at Plymouth, behind a barricade of logs thirty feet in width. With a small steam-launch equipped as a torpedo-boat, Cushing moved in towards Plymouth on a dark night (Oct. 27, 1864) with a crew of thirteen officers and men, part of whom had volunteered for this service. The launch had a cutter in tow. They were within twenty yards of the "ram" before they were discovered, when its pickets began firing. In the face of a severe discharge of musketry, Cushing pressed to the attack. He drove his launch far into the log barricade, lowered his torpedo boom, and drove it directly under the overhang of the "ram." The mine was exploded, and at the same moment one of the guns of the *Albemarle* hurled a heavy bolt that went crashing through and destroying the launch. Cushing and his companions leaped into the water, but only one besides the commander escaped drowning or capture. Cushing swam ashore, crept into a swamp, and was found and cared for by some negroes. The torpedo had destroyed the *Albemarle*, and she settled down in the mud in Plymouth harbor. Plymouth was recaptured (Oct. 31) by a squadron under Commodore Macomb, with some prisoners and valuable stores.


RAM ALBEMARLE.

Albemarle Sound, NAVAL BATTLE IN. The Confederate general Hoke, after capturing Plymouth (which see), proceeded to Newbern and demanded its surrender. The commander of the *Albemarle*, a powerful "ram," started out on Albemarle Sound to assist Hoke, when his vessel encountered (May 5, 1864) the *Sassacus*, Lieutenant-commander F. A. Rose, one of Captain Melancthon Smith's blockading squadron in the Sound. The *Albemarle* was heavily armed with Brooks and Whitworth guns. After a brief cannonade the *Sassacus* struck the monster a blow which pushed it partly under water and nearly sunk it. When the "ram" recovered, the two vessels hurled 100-pound shot at each other at a distance of a few paces. Most of those from the *Sassacus* glanced off from the *Albemarle* like hail from granite. Three of the shots from the *Sassacus* entered a part of the "ram" with destructive effect, and at the same moment the *Albemarle* sent a 100-pound Brooks bolt through one of the boilers of the *Sassacus*, killing three men and wounding six. The vessel was filled with scalding steam and was unmanageable for a few minutes. When the smoke and vapor passed away, the *Albemarle* was seen moving towards Plymouth, firing as she fled. The *Sassacus* slowly followed, but finally desisted for want of steam. The victorious *Sassacus* had captured another Confederate vessel with valuable guns. Hoke fell back from Newbern.

Alcott, Amos Bronson, an American educator; was born at Wolcott, Conn., Nov. 27, 1799. He became a successful teacher of an infant school in his native state. Removing to Boston, he soon became conspicuous as a teacher of the very young. He finally settled in Concord, Mass., where he studied natural theology and the best methods for producing reforms in diet, education, and civil and social institutions. By invitation, he went to England in 1842, to teach at "Alcott House," a name given to a school at Ham, near London. Returning to America, with two English friends, he attempted the founding of a new community, calling the farm "Fruit Lands." It was a failure, and he again went to Concord, where he has since resided, living the life of a peripatetic philosopher, conversing in cities and in villages, wherever invited, on divinity, human nature, ethics, as well as on a great variety of practical questions. His daughter, Louisa Mary, is a pleasing writer of fiction.

Alden, James, Rear-admiral of the United States Navy, was born in Portland, Maine, March 31, 1810; died in San Francisco, Cal., Feb. 6, 1877. He became a midshipman in 1828; lieutenant in 1841; commander in 1855; captain, Jan. 2, 1863; and commodore, July 25, 1866. He was a participant in the South Sea Exploring Expedition (which see) under Lieutenant Wilkes, and served under Commodore Conner on the Gulf coast of Mexico during the war with that country. He was active in the reinforcement of Fort Pickens; in the expedition against Galveston; as commander of the *Richmond* in the passage of Forts Jackson and St. Philip; in the capture of New Orleans; and at Vicksburg, Port Hudson, Mobile Bay, and Fort Fisher. Admiral Alden was appointed Chief of the Bureau of Navigation and Detail in 1869.

Aldrich, Thomas Bailey, was born in Portsmouth, N. H., in 1836. He entered upon mercantile life at an early age, and at the same time engaged in writing verses for the New York journals. The first collection of his poems was published, under the name of "The Bells," in 1855, when he was nineteen years of age. His most successful poem, "Babie Bell," was published in 1856, and soon afterwards he abandoned mercantile for literary pursuits. In 1856 he joined the staff of the *Home Journal*, published by Morris and Willis. Mr. Aldrich is also a pleasing writer of fiction in prose. He edited *Every Saturday* from its foundation, and has contributed largely to the periodical publications of our country.

Alexander and Philip, Indian kings. Massasoit (which see) died in 1660. Three or four years before his death he took his two sons, Wamsutta and Metacomet, to Plymouth, and asked that both should receive English names. The first (and the oldest) was named Alexander, and the second Philip. Alexander succeeded his father as chief sachem of the Wampanoags. In 1661 he was compelled to go to Plymouth a prisoner, on suspicion of being leagued with the Narragansets in hostile designs against the English. The suspicion was not sustained by evidence. On his way to Plymouth the chief was taken suddenly ill, and in a few hours died, it was said of a fever brought on by rage and mortification. His young wife, who became the squaw sachem Witamo (which see), believed he had been poisoned by the English. This event soured the minds of Philip and his followers towards the English, and was one of the indirect causes which led to King Philip's War (which see).

Alexander, Archibald, D.D., was born in Augusta (now Rockbridge) County, Va., April 17, 1772; died in Princeton, N. J., Oct. 22, 1851. He was of Scotch descent, and became teacher in a Virginian family at the age of seventeen years. In 1791 he entered the ministry as an itinerant missionary in his native state. In 1789 he became President of Hampden-Sidney College; left it in 1801; married a daughter of Rev. Mr. Waddell, the celebrated "blind preacher" in Virginia, and afterwards (1807) became pastor of a Presbyterian church in Philadelphia. In 1810 he was elected President of Union College, Georgia, but did not accept it. On the establishment of the Theological Seminary at Princeton, in 1811, Dr. Alexander was chosen its first professor, which position he held until his death, a period of forty years. Among his numerous writings his *Outlines of the Evidences of Christianity*, used as a text-book in several colleges, is most extensively known. It has passed through many editions in various languages.

Alexander, Barton Stone, a brevet Brigadier-General U. S. Army, was born in Kentucky in 1819, and graduated at the Military Academy at West Point in 1842. He was made Second Lieutenant of Engineers in 1843, and captain in 1856. For services at the battle of Bull's Run, July, 1861, he was breveted major, and in March, 1863, was commissioned Major of the Engineer Corps. For meritorious services during the Civil War, he was breveted brigadier-general in March, 1865. Active during the war, he was consulting engineer in Sheridan's army in the Shenandoah Valley, and was at the battle of Cedar Creek, Oct. 19, 1864.

Alexander, James, an active public man in the province of New York, to which he emigrated from Scotland in 1715, where he was born. He died in New York City, April 2, 1756. He had fled from Scotland because of his peril there as an adherent of the "Young Pretender." He was accompanied by William Smith, afterwards chief-justice of the province and its historian. He was made Surveyor-general of New Jersey and New York, was secretary of the latter colony, and attained eminence in the profession of the law. As attorney-general of the province and occupant of other important positions, he became distinguished. He was one of the able counsel who defended the freedom of the press in the person of John Peter Zenger in 1735. (See *Zenger, J. P.*) Because of the part which he took in that famous trial he was arbitrarily excluded from the bar, but was reinstated in 1737. Mr. Alexander was associated with Franklin and others in founding the American Philosophical Society. He was the father of William Alexander, known as Lord Stirling, a general in the Continental army.

Alexander, Sir William, patentee of Nova Scotia, was a poet and court favorite, to whom James I. and Charles I. were much attached. He was born at Menstrie, Scotland, in 1580; died in 1640. He became the author of verses when he was fourteen years old, and was cherished by Scotchmen as a descendant of the Macdonalds. His *Aurora* contained more than one hundred sonnets, songs, and elegies which displayed the effects of ill-requited love. When the Council for New England (see *Plymouth Company*) perceived the intention of the French beyond the St. Croix to push their settlements westward, they granted to Sir William (who had been knighted in 1614) all of the territory now known as New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, excepting a part of Acadia proper; and the king confirmed it, and issued a patent Sept. 10, 1621. The territory granted was called Nova Scotia—New Scotland—and it was given to Sir William and his heirs in fee without conditions. It was erected into a royal palatinate, the proprietor being invested with the rights and powers of a count-palatine. It was designed to settle the territory with Scotch emigrants, who should form a barrier against French encroachments. A colony was accordingly planted, and Sir William held possession ten years before he was displaced by the French. In 1625, Charles I. (who had just succeeded his deceased father), in order to help Sir William plant a successful colony or sell the domain in parcels, created the order of "Baronets of Nova Scotia," the title to be conferred upon purchasers of large tracts of land there. He also gave the proprietor the privilege of coining base copper money. In 1626 Sir William was appointed Secretary of State for Scotland, Keeper of the Signet in 1627, Commissioner of the Exchequer in 1628, also Lord of Canada. In 1630 he was created Viscount Stirling, and in 1633 Earl of Stirling and Viscount of Canada. In 1628 the Council for New England gave him a grant of territory, which included a part of Long Island, opposite Connecticut; but he was not able to manage his colonization schemes in Nova Scotia, and he sold his domain to the French. Lord Stirling's title expired with the fifth earl (1739), but other claimants appeared afterwards. (See *Stirling, General Lord.*)

LORD STIRLING.

Alexander, William (Lord Stirling), was born in New York City in 1726. He was a son of Secretary Alexander of New Jersey. His mother was the widow of David Provoost, a wealthy merchant of New York, when his father married her. Attached to the commissariat of the army, he attracted the notice of General Shirley, and was for three years his aid-de-camp and private secretary. He went to England and Scotland in 1755, and before his return he prosecuted his claim to the earldom of Stirling, but was unsuccessful. He spent much of his fortune in the matter. It was generally believed that he was the rightful heir to the title and estates, and he assumed the title of Lord Stirling, by which he was ever afterwards known in America. When the quarrel with Great Britain began in the colonies Lord Stirling espoused the cause of the patriots. In 1775 he was appointed a colonel, and in March, 1776, was commissioned a brigadier-general in the Continental army. When General Lee went south, Lord Stirling was placed in command of the troops in and around the city of New York. After conspicuous service in the battle of Long Island (Aug. 27, 1776) he was made a prisoner, but was soon exchanged; and in 1777 he was commissioned by Congress a major-general. He fought with Washington on the Brandywine on Sept. 11, 1777, and was specially distinguished at Germantown and Monmouth, commanding the left wing of the American army in the last-named engagement. He was one of the most faithful of Washington's soldiers during the war. William Alexander (Lord Stirling) married a daughter of William Livingston, of New Jersey, and had been, like his father, surveyor-general. He was an excellent mathematician and astronomer. Lord Stirling was one of the founders of the "New York Society Library," and also of King's (now Columbia) College. Alexander Humphreys, born in Birmingham, England, in 1783, claimed the earldom of Stirling. In 1824 he obtained the royal license to assume the name of Alexander, because he had a maternal grandfather of that name, and his deceased mother was a great-great-granddaughter of John Alexander, fourth son of William Alexander, the last earl of Stirling, and all intermediate heirs had become extinct. For a short time he exercised the privileges of an earl, and he even claimed vast possessions in Nova Scotia. (See *Sir William Alexander.*) But after a legal investigation he was stripped of his titles and pretensions, and in 1839 he sank into oblivion.

Alexander VI., Pope. Rodrigo Lenzuolo, a native of Valencia, Spain, was elected Pope, and assumed the name of Alexander VI. He was born in 1431; made Pope Aug. 11, 1492; and died Aug. 8, 1503. His mother was a Borgia, and Cæsar and Lucretia Borgia were two of his five illegitimate children by his mistress, Rosa Vanozza. His death, some historians say, was caused by his accidentally taking a poisoned draught intended for a large party of cardinals whom he had invited to a banquet. (See *Pope's Gift.*)

Alexandria plundered. While the British forces were making their way across Maryland towards Washington (August, 1814), a portion of the British fleet, consisting of two frigates of 36 and 38 guns, two rocket-ships of 18 guns, two bomb-vessels of 8 guns, and one schooner of 2 guns, sailed up the Potomac under the charge of Commodore Gordon of the *Sea Horse* (see *Rodgers's Long Cruise*), and easily passed the guns of Fort Washington, the defences of which the government had neglected. The British squadron appeared before the fort (Aug. 27), when the commander blew up the magazine and fled. The squadron passed and anchored in front of Alexandria, nine miles below Washington, on the 28th, prepared to lay the city in ashes with bombs and rockets if demands were not complied with. There was no effective force at Alexandria to oppose the invaders, for the able-bodied men and heavy guns had been called to the defence of Washington. The citizens sent a deputation to ask Commodore Gordon upon what terms he would consent to spare the town. He replied that all naval stores and ordnance, all the shipping and its furniture, merchandise of every description in the city or which had been carried out of it to a place of safety, and refreshments of every kind, must be immediately given up to him. Also, the vessels which had been scuttled to save them from capture must be raised and delivered to him. "Do all this," he said, "and the town of Alexandria, with the exception of the public works, shall be spared and the inhabitants shall be unmolested." The inhabitants were allowed only one hour to consider these harsh terms. They were powerless, and were compelled to submit. The invader contented himself with burning one vessel and loading several others with plunder, for he became in too great a hurry to depart to wait for the hidden merchandise and the raising of the scuttled vessels. The squadron sailed down the Potomac, annoyed all the way by batteries and the militia on the shore, the former quickly constructed and armed with heavy guns from vessels sent by Commodore Rodgers from Baltimore, and also others sent down from Washington. The British squadron, having an aggregate of 173 guns, passed out safely into Chesapeake Bay on Sept. 5.

FORT WASHINGTON.

Algiers, Tribute to. Stretching along the southern shores of the Mediterranean Sea, from the western frontier of Egypt to the Atlantic Ocean, are four provinces—Tunis, Tripoli, Algeria, and Morocco—called Barbary States, from the Berbers, the ancient inhabitants. From their ports, especially from Algiers, went out piratical vessels to depredate upon the commerce of other peoples. So early as 1785 two American vessels had been captured by these corsairs, and their crews (twenty-one persons) had been held in slavery for ransom. The Dey, or ruler, of Algiers demanded sixty thousand dollars for their redemption. As this sum would be a precedent, other means were sought to obtain the release of the captives. In a message, in 1790, President Washington called the attention of Congress to the matter, but the United States were without a navy to protect their commerce. For what protection American vessels enjoyed they were indebted to Portugal, then at war with Algiers. In 1793 the British government made a secret arrangement with that of Portugal, whereby peace with Algiers was obtained. In that arrangement it was stipulated that for the space of a year Portugal should not afford protection to the vessels of any nation against Algerine corsairs. This was for the purpose of injuring France. The pirates were immediately let loose upon commerce. David Humphreys, who had been sent to Algiers by the government of the United States to make arrangements for the release of American commerce there from danger, was insulted by the Dey. Humphreys wrote, "If we mean to have commerce, we must have a navy." Meanwhile the United States were compelled to pay tribute to the Dey to keep his corsairs from American commerce.

From 1785 until the autumn of 1793, when Washington called the attention of Congress to the necessity of a navy, the Algerine pirates had captured fifteen American vessels and made one hundred and eighty officers and seamen slaves of the most revolting kind. To redeem the survivors of these captives, and others taken more recently, the United States government paid about one million dollars in ransom-money. In the autumn of 1795 the government was compelled to agree, by treaty, to pay to the Dey of Algiers an annual tribute for the relief of captured seamen, according to long usage among European nations. It was humiliating, but nothing better could then be done, and humanity demanded it. In 1812, the Dey, offended because he had not received from the American government the annual tribute in precisely such articles as he wanted, dismissed the American consul, declared war, and his corsairs captured American vessels and reduced the crews to slavery. The American consul—Mr. Lear—was compelled to pay the Dey twenty-seven thousand dollars for the security of himself and family and a few other Americans there from horrid slavery. Determined to pay tribute no longer to the insolent semi-barbarian, the American government accepted the Dey's challenge for war, and in May, 1815, sent Commodore Decatur to the Mediterranean with a squadron to humble the Dey. Decatur found the Algerine pirate-fleet cruising for American vessels. He played havoc with the corsairs, entered the Bay of Algiers (June 28), demanded the instant surrender of all American prisoners, full indemnification for all property destroyed, and absolute relinquishment of all claims to tribute from the United States thereafter. The terrified Dey complied with the demand. (See *Barbary Powers, War with the.*)

Algonquins. The most powerful of the eight distinct Indian nations found in North America by the Europeans in the 17th century was the Algonquin. (See *Indians.*) It was composed of several powerful tribes, the most important of which were the Ottawas, Chippewas, Sacs and Foxes, Menomonees, Miamis, Pottawattomies, Kickapoos, Illinois, Shawnoese, Powhatans, Corees, Nanticokes, Lenni-Lenapes or Delawares, Mohegans, the New England Indians, the Abenakes, and Micmacs. There were smaller independent tribes, the principal of which were the Susquehannas in Pennsylvania; the Mannahoacs in the hill-country between the York and Potomac rivers; and the Monacans, on the head-waters of the James River, Virginia. All of these tribes were divided into cantons or clans, sometimes so small as to afford a war-party of only forty men. The domain of the Algonquins covered a vast region, bounded on the north and northeast by the Esquimaux; on the northwest by the Knistenaux and Athabascas; on the west by the Dakotas; on the south by the Catawbas, Cherokees, Mobilians, and Natchez; and on the east by Nova Scotia. West of the Mississippi, the Blackfeet and Cheyennes are regarded as a family of the Algonquins. The original land of the *Ottawas* was on the west side of Lake Huron; but they were seated upon the Ottawa River, in Canada, when the French discovered them, and claimed sovereignty over that region. (See *Ottawas.*) The *Chippewas* and *Pottawattomies* were closely allied by language and friendship. The former were on the southern shores of Lake Superior; the latter occupied the islands and mainland on the western shores of Green Bay when first discovered by the French. In 1701 they seated themselves on the southern shores of Lake Michigan. (See *Chippewas* and *Pottawattomies.*) The *Sacs* and *Foxes* are really one tribe. They were found by the French, in 1680, at the southern extremity of Green Bay. (See *Sacs and Foxes.*) The *Menomonees* are among the few Indian tribes who occupy the same domain as when they were discovered by Europeans in 1699. That domain is upon the shores of Green Bay, and there the tribe remains. (See *Menomonees.*) The *Miamis* and *Piankeshaws* inhabited that portion of Ohio lying between the Miami or Maumee, on Lake Erie, and the watershed between the Wabash and Kaskia rivers. The English and the Five Nations called them the Twightwees. (See *Miamis, Piankeshaws*, and *Twightwees.*) The *Kickapoos* were on the Wisconsin River when discovered by the French. (See *Kickapoos.*) The *Illinois* formed a numerous tribe, twelve thousand strong, when discovered by the French. They were seated on the Illinois River, and composed a confederation of five families, namely, Kaskaskias, Cahokias, Tamaronas, Michigamies, and Peorias. (See *Illinois* and *Kickapoos.*) The *Shawnoese* occupied a vast region west of the Alleghany Mountains, and their great council-house was in the basin of the Cumberland River. (See *Shawnoese.*) The Powhatans constituted a confederacy of more than twenty tribes, including the Accohannocks and Accomacs, on the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay. The confederacy occupied the region in Virginia consisting of the navigable portion of the James and York rivers, with their tributaries. (See *Powhatans.*) The *Corees* were south of the Powhatans, on the Atlantic coast, in Northern North Carolina. The *Cheraws* and other small tribes occupied the land of the once powerful Hatteras family, below the Corees. (See *Corees, Cheraws*, and *Hatteras.*) The *Nanticokes* were upon the peninsula between the Chesapeake and Delaware bays. (See *Nanticokes.*) The *Lenni-Lenapes*, or *Delawares*, comprised powerful families—namely, the Minsis and Delawares proper. The former occupied the northern part of New Jersey and a portion of Pennsylvania, and the latter inhabited lower New Jersey, the banks of the Delaware River below Trenton, and the whole valley of the Schuylkill. (See *Lenni-Lenapes* and *Delawares.*) The *Mohegans* were a distinct tribe on the east side of the Hudson River, and under that name were included several independent families on Long Island and the country between the Lenni-Lenapes and the New England Indians. (See *Mohegans.*) The *New England Indians* inhabited the country from the Connecticut River eastward to the Saco, in Maine. The principal tribes were the Narragansets on

Rhode Island; the Pokanokets and Wampanoags on the eastern shore of Narragauset Bay and in a portion of Massachusetts; the Massachusetts in the vicinity of Boston and the shores southward; and the Pawtuckets in the northeastern part of Massachusetts, embracing the Pennacooks of New Hampshire. (See *Narragansets, Pokanokets, Wampanoags, Massachusetts, Pawtuckets*, and *Pennacooks*.) The *Abenakes* were eastward of the Saco. Their chief tribes were the Penobscots, Norridgewocks, Androscoggins, and Passamaquoddies. (See *Penobscots, Norridgewocks, Androscoggins*, and *Passamaquoddies*.)

Alien and Sedition Laws (1798). The greater part of the emigrants to the United States since the adoption of the National Constitution had been either Frenchmen, driven into exile by political troubles at home, or Englishmen, Scotchmen, and Irishmen, who had espoused ultra-republican principles, and who, flying from the severe measures of repression adopted against them at home, brought to America a fierce hatred of the government of Great Britain and warm admiration of republican France. Among these were some men of pure lives and noble aims, but many were desperate political intriguers, ready to engage in any scheme of mischief. It was estimated that at the beginning of 1798 there were 30,000 Frenchmen in the United States organized in clubs, and at least 50,000 who had been subjects of Great Britain. These were regarded as dangerous to the Commonwealth, and in 1798, when war with France seemed inevitable, Congress passed acts for the security of the government against internal foes. By an act (June 18, 1798), the naturalization laws were made more stringent, and alien enemies could not become citizens at all. By a second act (June 25), which was limited to two years, the President was authorized to order out of the country all aliens whom he might judge to be dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States. By a third act (July 6), in case of war declared against the United States, or an actual invasion, all resident aliens, natives or citizens of the hostile nation, might, upon proclamation of the President, issued according to his discretion, be apprehended and secured or removed. These were known as *Alien Laws*. The President never had occasion to put them in force, but several prominent Frenchmen, who felt that the laws were aimed at them, speedily left the United States. Among these was M. Volney, who, in the preface to his work *A View of the Soil and Climate of the United States*, complained bitterly of "the public and violent attacks made upon his character, with the connivance or instigation of a certain eminent personage," meaning President Adams. On July 14, 1798, an act was passed for the punishment of sedition. It made it a high misdemeanor, punishable by a fine not to exceed $5000, imprisonment from six months to five years, and binding to good behavior at the discretion of the court, for any person unlawfully to combine in opposing measures of the government properly directed by authority, or attempting to prevent government officers executing their trusts, or inciting to riot and insurrection. It also provided for the fining and imprisoning of any person guilty of printing or publishing "any false, scandalous, and malicious writings against the government of the United States, or either House of Congress, or the President, with intent to defame them, or to bring them into contempt or disrepute." This was called the *Sedition Law*. These laws were assailed with great vigor by the Opposition, and were deplored by some of the best friends of the administration. Hamilton deprecated them. He wrote a hurried note of warning against the Sedition Act (June 29, 1798) to Wolcott, while the bill was pending, saying, "Let us not establish a tyranny. Energy is a very different thing from violence. If we take no false step, we shall be essentially united; but if we push things to the extreme, we shall then give to parties *body* and *solidity*." Nothing contributed more powerfully to the downfall of the Federal party two years later than these extreme measures.

Alison, Francis, D.D., was born in Donegal County, Ireland, in 1705; died in Philadelphia, Nov. 28, 1779. He came to America in 1735, and in 1752 he took charge of an academy in Philadelphia. From 1755 until his death he was Vice-provost and Professor of Moral Philosophy of the College of Pennsylvania. His chief claim to honor among men is that he was the tutor of a large number of Americans who were conspicuous actors in the events of the revolution that accomplished the independence of the United States of America.

Allatoona Pass and Marietta, Events between. The Confederates, retreating from Resaca, took a strong position at Allatoona Pass. Sherman, after resting his army, proceeded to flank them out of their new position. J. C. Davis's division of Thomas's army had moved down the Oostenaula to Rome, where he destroyed important mills and founderies, and captured nearly a dozen guns. He left a garrison there. Meanwhile Sherman had destroyed the Georgia State Arsenal, near Adairsville. The Nationals proceeded to gather in force at and near Dallas. Johnston was on the alert, and tried to prevent this formidable flank movement. Hooker's corps met Confederate cavalry near Pumpkinvine Creek, whom he pushed across that stream and saved a bridge they had fired. Following them eastward two miles, he (Hooker) found the Confederates in strong force and in battle order. A sharp conflict ensued, and at 4 o'clock P.M. he made a bold push, by Sherman's order, to secure possession of a point near New Hope Church, where roads from Ackworth, Marietta, and Dallas met. A stormy night ensued, and Hooker could not drive the Confederates from their position. On the following morning Sherman found the Confederates strongly intrenched, with lines extending from Dallas to Marietta. The approach to their intrenchments must be made over rough, wooded, and broken ground. For several days, constantly skirmishing, Sherman tried to break through their lines to the railway east of the Allatoona

Pass. McPherson's troops moved to Dallas, and Thomas's deployed against New Hope Church, in the vicinity of which there were many severe encounters, while Schofield was directed to turn and strike Johnston's right. On May 28 the Confederates struck McPherson a severe blow at Dallas; but the assailants were repulsed with heavy loss. At the same time, Howard, nearer the centre, was repulsed. Sherman, by skilful movements, compelled Johnston to evacuate his strong position at Allatoona Pass (June 1, 1864). The National cavalry, under Garrard and Stoneman, were pushed on to occupy it, and there Sherman, planting a garrison, made a secondary base of supplies for his army. Johnston made a stand at the Kenesaw Mountains, near Marietta; but Sherman, who had been reinforced by two divisions under General Frank P. Blair (June 8), very soon caused him to abandon that position, cross the Chattahoochee River, and finally to rest at Atlanta. (See *Kenesaw.*)

Allatoona Pass, BATTLE AT. After the evacuation of Atlanta (Sept. 2, 1864), Sherman and Hood reorganized their armies in preparation for a vigorous fall campaign. Satisfied that Hood intended to assume the offensive and probably attempt the seizure of Tennessee, Sherman sent Thomas, his second in command, to Nashville, to organize the new troops expected to gather there, and to make arrangements to meet such an emergency. Thomas arrived there Oct. 3. Meanwhile the Confederates had crossed the Chattahoochee, and by a rapid movement had struck the railway at Big Shanty, north of Marietta, and destroyed it for several miles. A division of infantry pushed northward and appeared before Allatoona, where Colonel Tourtellotte was guarding one million National rations with only three thin regiments. Sherman made efforts at once for the defence of these and his communications. Leaving Slocum to hold Atlanta and the railway bridge across the Chattahoochee, he started on a swift pursuit of Hood with five army corps and two divisions of cavalry. He established a signal station on the summit of Great Kenesaw Mountain, and telegraphed to General Corse, at Rome, to hasten to the assistance of Tourtellotte. Corse instantly obeyed; and when the Confederates appeared before Allatoona, at dawn (Oct. 5), he was there with reinforcements, and in command. The Confederates were vastly superior in numbers, and invested the place. After cannonading the fort two hours, their leader (General French) demanded its surrender. Then he assailed it furiously, but his columns were continually driven back. The conflict raged with great fierceness; and Sherman, from the top of Kenesaw, heard the roar of cannon and saw the smoke of battle, though eighteen miles distant. He had pushed forward a corps (Twenty-third) to menace the Confederate rear, and by signal-flags on Kenesaw he said to the commander at Allatoona, "Hold out, for relief is approaching." And when Sherman was assured that Corse was there, he said, "He will hold out; I know the man." And so he did. He repulsed the Confederates several times; and when they heard of the approach of the Twenty-third corps, they hastily withdrew, leaving behind them two hundred and thirty dead and four hundred prisoners, with about eight hundred small arms. The Nationals lost seven hundred and seven men.

ALLATOONA PASS.

Allen, ETHAN, born at Litchfield, Conn., Jan. 10, 1737; died at Burlington, Vt., Feb. 12, 1789. In 1762 he was one of the proprietors of the iron-works at Salisbury, Conn. In 1766 he went to the then almost unsettled domain between the Green Mountains and Lake Champlain, where he was a bold leader of the settlers on the New Hampshire Grants (which see) in their bitter controversy with the authorities of New York. During the controversy several pamphlets were written by Allen, in his peculiar style, which forcibly illustrated the injustice of the action of the New York authorities. The latter declared Allen an outlaw, and offered a reward of £150 for his arrest. He defied his enemies, and persisted in his course. Early in May, 1775, he led a few men and took the fortress of Ticonderoga by surprise. His followers were called "Green Mountain Boys." His success as a partisan caused him to be sent twice into Canada, during the latter half of 1775, to win the people over to the republican cause. In the last of these expeditions he attempted, with Colonel Brown, to capture Montreal (Sept. 25, 1775), but was made a prisoner himself and sent to England in irons, whence, after a confinement of some weeks, he was sent to Halifax.

Five months later he was removed to New York. On the 6th of May, 1778, he was exchanged, after a captivity of about two years, for Colonel Campbell, and returned home, where he was received with joy and honors. He was invested with the chief command of the state militia. Congress immediately gave him the commission of lieutenant-colonel in the Continental army. When, in the course of the war, Vermont (see *New Hampshire Grants*) assumed and maintained an independent position, a fruitless attempt was made by Beverly Robinson to bribe Allen to lend his support to a union of that province with Canada. He was supposed to be disaffected towards the revolted colonies, and he fostered that impression in order to secure the neutrality of the British towards his mountain state until the close of the war. As a member of the legislature of Vermont, and as a delegate in Congress, he secured the great object of his efforts—namely, the ultimate recognition of Vermont as an independent state. He removed to Bennington before the close of the war, thence to Arlington, and finally died in Burlington.

Allen, Ethan, Capture of (1775). With less than one hundred recruits, mostly Canadians, Colonel Allen crossed the St. Lawrence (Sept. 25, 1775) to attack Montreal. This was done at the suggestion of Colonel John Brown, who was also recruiting in the vicinity, and who agreed to cross the river at the same time a little above the city, the attack to be made simultaneously by both parties. For causes never satisfactorily explained, Brown did not cross, and disaster ensued. General Robert Prescott was in command in the city. He sallied out with a considerable force of regulars, Canadians and Indians, and after a short skirmish made Allen and his followers prisoners. When Prescott learned that Allen was the man who captured Ticonderoga, he treated him very harshly. He was bound hand and foot with irons, and these shackles were fastened to a bar of iron eight feet in length. In this plight he was thrust into the hold of a vessel to be sent to England, and in that condition he was kept five weeks; but when she sailed from Quebec the humane captain struck off his irons. He was confined seven weeks in Pendennis Castle in England, when he was sent to Halifax, and thence to New York, where he was exchanged in the spring of 1778.

Allen, Henry Watkins, was born in Prince Edward County, Va., April 29, 1820; died in the city of Mexico, April 22, 1866. He became a lawyer in Mississippi; and in 1842 raised a company to fight in Texas. He settled at West Baton Rouge, Louisiana, in 1850; served in the State Legislature; was in the Law School at Cambridge in 1854; and visited Europe in 1859. He took an active part with the Confederates in the Civil War, and was at one time military governor of Jackson, Mississippi. In the battles of Shiloh and at Baton Rouge he was wounded. He was commissioned a brigadier-general in 1864, but was almost immediately elected governor of Louisiana, the duties of which he performed with great ability and wisdom. At the close of the war he made his residence in Mexico, where he established the *Mexican Times*, which he edited until his death.

Allen, Ira, a younger brother of Ethan, was born in Cornwall, Conn., April 21, 1751; died in Philadelphia, Jan. 7, 1814. He was an active patriot, and took a distinguished part in public affairs in Vermont, his adopted state, where he served in the Legislature, and was Secretary of State, Surveyor-General, and Member of the Council. He was a military leader in the war for independence, and was one of the commissioners sent to Congress to oppose the claims of neighboring provinces to jurisdiction in Vermont. He effected an armistice with the British in Canada in 1781, and by so doing brought about a settlement of the controversy with New York. (See *New Hampshire Grants.*) A senior major-general of the state militia in 1795, he went to Europe to purchase arms for his commonwealth, and on his way homeward with muskets and cannon he was captured, taken to England, and charged with being an emissary of the French, and intending to supply the Irish malcontents with arms. After long litigation the matter was settled in Allen's favor. He wrote a *National and Political History of Vermont*, published in London in 1798.

Allen, Robert, a native of Ohio, graduated at West Point in 1836, and served with distinction in the war with Mexico. He was a very useful officer in the Civil War, and attained the rank of brigadier-general of volunteers, and brevet major-general. He was stationed at St. Louis, where his services were of great value during the war. At its close he was made assistant quartermaster-general (1866), and afterwards chief-quartermaster of the division of the Pacific.

Allen, William, Chief-justice of Pennsylvania, died in England in September, 1780. He married a daughter of Andrew Hamilton, a distinguished lawyer of Pennsylvania, whom he succeeded as Recorder of Philadelphia in 1741. He assisted Benjamin West, the painter, in his early struggles, and co-operated with Benjamin Franklin in establishing the College of Pennsylvania. Mr. Allen was chief-justice of that state from 1750 to 1774. A strong loyalist, he withdrew to England in 1774. In London he published a pamphlet entitled, *The American Crisis*, containing a plan for restoring American dependence upon Great Britain.

Allen, William Henry, was born at Providence, R. I., Oct. 21, 1784; died at Plymouth, England, Aug. 15, 1813. He entered the navy as a midshipman in April, 1800, and sailed in the frigate *George Washington* to Algiers. He afterwards went to the Mediterranean in the *Philadelphia*, under Barron; then in the *John Adams*, under Rodgers; and in 1804 as sailing-master to the *Congress*. He was in the *Constitution* frigate in 1805; and in 1807 he was third lieutenant of the *Chesapeake* when she was surrendered to the *Leopard*. It was Lieutenant Allen who drew up the memorial of the officers of the *Chesapeake* to the Secretary of the Navy, urging the arrest and trial of Barron for neglect of duty. (See *Chesapeake* and *Leopard.*) In 1809 he was made first lieutenant of the frigate *United States*, under Decatur. He behaved bravely in the conflict with the *Macedonian;* and after her capture took her safely into New York harbor, Jan. 1, 1813. In July, 1813, he was promoted to master commandant while he was on his voyage in the brig *Argus* that took W. H. Crawford, American minister, to France. That voyage ended in a remarkable and successful cruise among the British shipping in British waters. After capturing and destroying more than twenty British merchantmen (see *Argus*), his own vessel was captured; and he was mortally wounded by a round shot (Aug. 14), and died the next day at Plymouth, England, whither he was conveyed a prisoner.

WILLIAM HENRY ALLEN.

Allibone, SAMUEL AUSTIN, LL.D., bibliographer and author, was born in Philadelphia, April 17, 1816. He is the author of *A Critical Dictionary of English Literature and British and American Authors, Living and Deceased, from the Earliest Accounts to the Latter Half of the Nineteenth Century.* This work is in three volumes royal octavo, and exhibits evidence of great care, industry, good judgment, most extensive research, and immense labor in its preparation. Dr. Allibone spent many years in gathering and arranging his materials. The volumes were published in 1858, 1870, and 1871. The work contains notices of 47,000 authors, with forty classified indexes of subjects. Dr. Allibone has contributed articles to the *North American Review*, the *Evangelical Review*, and other periodicals, and is the author of some religious controversial essays. He has also privately printed and circulated a number of tracts. He is now (1879) Librarian of the Lennox Library, New York.

Allied Armies, THE, IN VIRGINIA. In August, 1781, a French frigate, from the fleet of De Grasse in the West Indies, brought word that he would sail directly for the Chesapeake Bay. Already Washington had had his thoughts turned towards a campaign of the allies against Cornwallis in Virginia by a letter from Lafayette, who had taken a position only eight miles from Yorktown. The marquis had plainly perceived the mistake of Clinton in ordering Cornwallis to take a defensive position in Virginia. So early as July he wrote to Washington from Randolph's, on Malvern Hill, urging him to march into Virginia in force, saying, "Should a French fleet enter Hampton Roads, the British army would be compelled to surrender." Foiled in his plan of attacking New York, Washington anxiously contemplated the chance of success in Virginia, when his determination was fixed by a letter from Admiral de Barras (the successor of Admiral Ternay, who had died at Newport), which contained the joyful news that De Grasse was to sail for the Chesapeake at the close of August with a powerful fleet and more than three thousand land troops. De Barras wrote: "M. de Grasse is my junior; yet, as soon as he is within reach, I will go to sea to put myself under his orders." Washington at once made ample preparations for marching into Virginia. To prevent any interference from Clinton, he wrote deceptive letters to be intercepted, by which the baronet was made to believe that the Americans still contemplated an attack upon New York City. So satisfied was Clinton that such was Washington's design, that, for nearly ten days after the allied armies had crossed the Hudson (Aug. 23 and 24), and were marching through New Jersey, he believed the movement to be only a feint to cover a sudden descent upon the city with an overwhelming force. It was not until Sept. 2 that he was satisfied that the allies were marching against Cornwallis. On the arrival of a body of Hessians at New York, he had countermanded an order for the earl to send him troops, and for this he was now thankful. On Sept. 5, while the allies were encamped at Chester, Pennsylvania, Washington was informed that De Grasse had entered Chesapeake Bay. In that event he saw a sure prophecy of success, and of the independence of his country. De Grasse had moored his fleet in Lynn Haven Bay, and so barred the entrance to the York River against reinforcements for Cornwallis. He had landed three thousand troops on the peninsula, near old Jamestown. Meanwhile De Barras had sailed for Newport with a fleet convoying ten transports laden with ordnance for the siege of Yorktown. The British admiral, Graves, on hearing of the approach of the French fleet, had sailed for the Chesapeake. De Grasse went out to meet him, and on Sept. 5 they had a sharp engagement. The British fleet was so shattered that it retired to New York, leaving De Grasse master of the Chesapeake. When Clinton was assured that the allies were bound for Virginia, he tried by military movements to call them back. He menaced New Jersey; threatened to attack the works in the Hudson Highlands; and sent Arnold on a marauding expedition into New England. (See *Arnold at New London.*) But neither Clinton's menaces nor Arnold's atrocities stayed the onward march of the allies. They made their way to Annapolis, and thence by water to the James River in transports furnished by De Barras. From Baltimore Washington, accompanied by Rochambeau and the Marquis de Chastellux, visited his home at Mount Vernon, from which he had been absent since June, 1775. There they remained two days, and then journeyed to Williamsburg, where they arrived on the 14th. There the allies rendezvoused, and prepared for the siege of Yorktown.

Allied Armies, THE, ON THE HUDSON. Count de Rochambeau received intelligence at the close of May, 1781, that the Count de Grasse might be expected on the coast of the United States with a powerful French fleet in July or August. This news caused the French forces, which had lain idle at Newport many months, to move immediately for the Hudson River, to form a junction with the Continental army there under Washington. A part of them moved on June 10, and the remainder immediately afterwards. They formed a junction with the American army, near Dobb's Ferry, on the Hudson, July 6. The Americans were encamped on Valentine's Hill, in two lines, with the right wing resting on the Hudson River near the ferry. The French army were stationed on the hills at the left, in a single line, reaching from the Hudson to the Bronx River. There was a valley of considerable extent between the two armies. The American army had been encamped at Peekskill, and marched down to Valentine's Hill on the morning of the 2d of July.

Allied Forces, THE (1782). At the beginning of 1782 the American army encamped in the vicinity of New York; their French allies, who had assisted in the capture of Cornwallis, remained in Virginia, and De Grasse took his fleet to the West Indies.

Allies, JUSTICE TO. Much of the earlier part of the session of Congress of 1797–98 was devoted to the consideration of private matters, particularly to Revolutionary claims. An act was passed authorizing grants of land to refugees from Canada and Nova Scotia who had joined and adhered to the American cause during the Revolution. At a former session, in spite of violent opposition, based on the alleged want of power in Congress for that purpose, a sum of money had been granted to the daughters of the Count de Grasse, who had been reduced to poverty by the death of their father. He had been guillotined during the Reign of Terror in France. (See *Grasse, de.*) That sum had been exhausted, and a new act was now passed, in further acknowledgment of De Grasse's services in the war for independence, granting to his four daughters $400 a year each for five years. At this time many banished Frenchmen arrived in America. Among them were the young Duke of Orleans (afterwards King Louis Philippe), and two of his younger brothers. The hearts of Americans were gladdened at the same time by news of the release of Lafayette from an Austrian dungeon, in which he had long been confined. For the purpose of affording pecuniary relief to his family, Congress had already appropriated to their use the full amount of the pay of a major-general in the American service to that time.

Allouez, CLAUDE JEAN, was one of the earliest French missionaries and explorers of the country near the Great Lakes. He was born in 1620, and died in 1690. After laboring among the Indians on the St. Lawrence several years, he penetrated the Western wilds and established a mission on the western shores of Lake Michigan, where he heard much of the Mississippi River, and made notes of what he learned concerning it. He explored Green Bay, and founded a mission among the Foxes, Miamis, and other tribes there. A mission begun by Marquette at Kaskaskia, Illinois (see *Marquette*), Allouez sought to make his permanent field of labor; but when La Salle, the bitter opponent of the Jesuits, approached in 1679, he retired. Returning to the Miamis on the St. Joseph's River, he labored for a while, and died. The contributions of Father Allouez to the *Jesuit Relations* are most valuable records of the ideas and manners of the Indians.

Allston, WASHINGTON, was a distinguished American painter, born at Wacomaco, S. C., Nov. 5, 1779; died at Cambridge, Mass., July 9, 1843. He graduated at Harvard University in 1800, went to Europe the next year to study art, and became a student in the Royal Academy of England. He remained eight years abroad, and, returning to Cambridge, married a sister of Dr. William Ellery Channing. He was a poet as well as a painter. His numerous works of art exhibit great power in delineating the pictures of a fertile imagination. His skill as a colorist earned him the title of "The American Titian."

WASHINGTON ALLSTON.

Almagro, DIEGO DE, one of the Spanish conquerors of Peru, and principal associate of Pizarro. He was a foundling, born about 1464; died July, 1538. Almagro, Pizarro, and a priest named Luque undertook the conquest of Peru, and effected it, with a small force, in 1533. Almagro was appointed governor of what is now Chili, in 1534, extending his conquests into that region in 1535. He and Pizarro became bitter enemies. He conquered Cuzco, the ancient capital of Peru. In a decisive battle near that place, in 1538, Almagro was defeated, made prisoner, and put to death by order of Pizarro. Almagro was profligate, perfidious, and cruel. His barbarous treatment of the Inca, Atahualpa, covered his name and fame with infamy. The Inca's son rallied men, who assassinated Pizarro, July 26, 1541, and these were executed by order of the Viceroy of Peru, in 1542.

Alsop, Richard, a witty poet and essayist, was born at Middletown, Conn., Jan. 23, 1761; died at Flatbush, L. I., Aug. 29, 1815. He is best known in literature as the principal author of a series of burlesque pieces, begun in 1791 and ended in 1805, entitled, in collective form, *The Echo.* They were thus published in 1807. Dwight, Hopkins, and Trumbull were associated with Alsop in the production of *The Echo*, which, from a work provocative of mirth, became a bitter political satirist of the Democratic Party. He wrote a "Monody on the Death of Washington," in heroic verse, which was published in 1800. Alsop ranked among the "Hartford Wits" at the close of the last century.

Alvarado, Pedro de, a Spanish conqueror in America, was born at Badajos, Spain, and died in 1541. Sailing from Spain to Cuba, in 1518, he accompanied Grijalva on his exploring expedition along the Gulf coasts. He took an important part in the expedition of Cortez in 1519, which resulted in the conquest of Mexico. Left in charge of the city of Mexico, Alvarado's cruelty and rapacity caused an insurrection, and he narrowly escaped with his life. On his return to Spain the king made him Governor of Guatemala (a province which, in 1523, he had conquered) and Honduras. Going to South America with some troops, he marched over the Andes with the design of seizing Quito, but, meeting Pizarro's troops, he peaceably returned after receiving an enormous indemnity for his expenses. Alvarado made explorations and discoveries on the coast of California, and was killed in a skirmish with the natives.

Alvarez, Juan, a Mexican leader, was born in 1790. He was popular among the republicans of Mexico, and, by energy and courage in leadership, put an end to the dictatorship of Santa Aña by a decisive battle at Saltillo, July 22–23, 1855. He was then proclaimed President, and entered the city of Mexico attended by an Indian body-guard. He found his position uncomfortable, so he resigned in less than a month; and placing Commonfort, his Minister of War, in power, he took $200,000 from the treasury, and a quantity of arms and ammunition, and returned, with his Indians, to their homes in Southern Mexico.

Amelia Island and Galveston. In the summer of 1817, Gregor McGregor, styling himself "Brigadier-general of the armies of New Granada and Venezuela, and general-in-chief employed to liberate the provinces of both the Floridas," commissioned by the supreme councils of Mexico and South America, took possession of Amelia Island, at the mouth of the St. Mary's River, near the boundary of the State of Georgia. His followers were a band of adventurers which he had collected in Charleston and Savannah; and when he took possession of Amelia Island, he proclaimed a blockade of St. Augustine. In the hands of these desperadoes the island was soon converted into a resort of buccaneering privateers under the Spanish-American flag, and a depot for smuggling slaves into the United States. Another similar establishment had been set up on Galveston Island, off the coast of Texas, under a leader named Aury. This establishment was more important than that on Amelia Island, as well on account of numbers as for the greater facilities afforded for smuggling. An adventurer named Louis Aury was at the head of this establishment, and had organized a sort of civil government. It was a second Barataria, and to it several of the old privateers and smugglers of Lafitte's band of Baratarians resorted. (See *Lafitte and the Baratarians.*) Under a secret act, passed in 1811, now (1817) first made public, the President took the responsibility of suppressing both these establishments. Aury had joined McGregor with the Galveston desperadoes, and their force was formidable. The President sent Captain Henly, in the ship *John Adams*, with smaller vessels, and a battalion of Charleston artillery under Major Bankhead, to take possession of Amelia Island. McGregor was then on the main, leaving Aury in command of the island. He was summoned to evacuate it; and on Dec. 23 the naval and military commanders took quiet possession. Aury left it in February, and so both nests of pirates and smugglers were broken up. At the same time there was much sympathy felt in the United States for the revolted Spanish-American colonies, and, in spite of the neutrality laws, cruisers were fitted out in American ports under their flags.

America and Ireland. The bold stand taken by the Americans early in 1775 made the British ministry sore afraid of like movements in Ireland, where the Protestant minority had hitherto been employed to keep the majority, who were Roman Catholics, in subjection. That majority, amounting to seven eighths of the entire population, were not only deprived of all political privileges, but were subjected to a great many rigorous and cruel restraints, designed to keep them ignorant, poor, and helpless. Even the Protestants in Ireland were not allowed an equality with their fellow subjects in England. Their parliament did not possess the rights enjoyed by the American colonial assemblies; and Ireland, in matters of trade, was treated very much like a foreign country. The ideas of political liberty aroused in the colonies was already sowing the seeds of revolution in Ireland, and it was judged expedient to conciliate the Irish by just legislation that should relax the harsh commercial restrictions. This, however, was done so sparingly that it fell far short of accomplishing permanent good.

America, AREA AND POPULATION OF, IN 1870.

COUNTRIES.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.
NORTH AMERICA.		
British America	3,500,000	4,455,000
United States	3,600,000	38,558,000
Mexico	800,000	9,175,000
Total, North America	7,900,000	52,188,000
CENTRAL AMERICA.		
Costa Rica	20,000	135,000
Guatemala	40,000	1,180,000
Honduras	47,000	350,000
Nicaragua	58,000	400,000
San Salvador	10,000	600,000
Total, Central America	175,000	2,665,000
SOUTH AMERICA.		
Argentine Confederation	600,000	1,800,000
Bolivia	575,000	200,000
Brazil	3,140,000	11,780,000
Chili	150,000	1,900,000
Colombia	500,000	2,800,000
Ecuador	275,000	1,300,000
Guiana	480,000	300,000
Paraguay	70,000	325,000
Patagonia	350,000	4,000
Peru	600,000	2,500,000
Uruguay	75,000	300,000
Venezuela	425,000	1,250,000
Total, South America	7,240,000	26,259,000
ISLANDS	100,000	4,000,000
Total, America	15,410,000	85,112,000

America, DISCOVERERS OF. There are unquestioned historical records of America for the space of about five hundred years. It was undoubtedly discovered by Northern navigators (see *Northmen*) early in the eleventh century, and the colony of the son of a Welsh prince (see *Madoc*) probably landed on the North American continent about the year 1170. There is no evidence that the Northmen saw more than the coasts of Labrador and New England—possibly Newfoundland; and the landing-place of Madoc is wholly conjectural. On the 11th of October, 1492, Christopher Columbus discovered one of the Bahama Islands, east of Florida, but not the continent. (See *Columbus.*) In the summer of 1498, Sebastian Cabot (commissioned by King Henry VII. of England), who sailed from Bristol in May with two caravels, discovered the North American continent at Labrador. He was seeking a northwest passage to "Cathay" (which see), and being barred from the Polar Sea by pack-ice, sailed southward, discovered Labrador, and possibly went along the coast as far as the Carolinas. He discovered and named Newfoundland, and found the treasures of cod-fishes in the waters near it. (See *Cabot.*) On the 1st of August, the same summer, Columbus discovered the continent of South America, near the mouth of the Orinoco River. Americus Vespucius, a Florentine, and an agent of the De' Medici family of Florence, was in Spain when the great discovery of Columbus was made. In May, 1499, Vespucius sailed from Spain with Alonzo de Ojeda as an adventurer and self-constituted geographer for the new-found world. They followed the southern track of Columbus in his third voyage, and off the coast of Surinam, South America, they saw the mountains of the continent. That was a year after Columbus first saw the continent of America. On his return, in 1500, Vespucius revealed these discoveries in a letter to the Medici, and by afterwards antedating it 1497, either intentionally or accidentally, made it appear that his claim to the honor of being the first discoverer of the Western Continent was well founded. It was called *America* in his honor. (See *Vespucius;* also *America, Origin of Name of.*) In the year 1499, Vincent Yañez Pinzon sailed from Palos with his brother and four caravels, and, reaching the coast of South America, discovered the great river Amazon in the spring of 1500. Before Pinzon's return, Pedro Alvarez Cabral, sent by Emanuel, King of Portugal, while on an exploring expedition discovered Brazil, and took possession of it in the name of the crown of Portugal. It was within the territory donated by the Pope to the Spanish monarchs. (See *Pope's Gift.*) A friendly arrangement was made, and it was ultimately agreed that the King of Portugal should hold all the country he had discovered from the river Amazon to the river Platte. On the announcement of the discoveries of Cabot in the Northwest, King Emanuel of Portugal sent Gaspard Cortereal, a skilful navigator, with two caravels on a voyage of discovery towards the same region. He saw Labrador, and possibly Newfoundland, and went up the coast almost to Hudson's Bay; and it is believed that he discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence. (See *Cortereal.*) In 1504 Columbus, in a fourth voyage to America, sailed with four caravels through the Gulf of Mexico, in search of a passage to India, and discovered Central America. (See *Columbus.*) Eight years later, Juan Ponce de Leon, an old Spanish nobleman, sailed from Porto Rico, in the West Indies, of which he was governor, in search of an island containing a fabled fountain of youth. He did not find the spring, but discovered a beautiful land covered with exquisite flowers, and named it Florida. (See *Florida* and *Ponce de Leon.*) In 1520, Lúcas Vasquez D'Allyon, a wealthy Spaniard, who owned mines in Santo Domingo, voyaged northwesterly from that island, and discovered the coast of South Carolina. (See *D'Allyon.*) Meanwhile the Spaniards had been pushing discoveries westward from Hispaniola, or Santo Domingo. (See *Hayti.*) Ojeda also discovered Central America. In 1513 Vasco Nuñez de Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean from a mountain summit on the Isthmus of Darien. (See *Nuñez.*) Francisco Fernandez de Cordova discovered Mexico in 1517. (See *Mexico.*) Pamphila de Narvaez and Ferdinand de Soto traversed the country bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, the former in 1528, and the latter in 1539–41. In the latter year De Soto discovered and crossed the Mississippi, and penetrated the country beyond. (See *De Soto.*) This was the last attempt of the Spaniards to make discoveries in North America before the English appeared upon the same field. (See *Narvaez* and *De Soto.*) It is claimed for Juan Verazzani, a Florentine navigator, that he sailed from France with four ships, in 1524, on a voyage of discovery, and that he traversed the shores of America from Florida to Nova Scotia. He is supposed to have entered Delaware Bay and the harbors of New York, Newport, and Boston, and named the country he had discovered New France. (See *Verazzani.*) Jacques Cartier discovered the gulf and river St. Lawrence in 1534, and, revisiting them the next year, gave them that name, because the day when he entered their waters was dedicated to St. Lawrence. In 1576, Sir Martin Frobisher went to Greenland and Labrador, and coasting northward discovered the bay that bears his name. (See *Frobisher.*) Huguenot adventurers from South Carolina, floating on the ocean helplessly, were picked up, taken to England, and by the stories which they told of the beautiful land they had left, caused Queen Elizabeth to encourage voyages of discovery in that direction. Sir Walter Raleigh, favored by the queen, sent two ships, commanded by Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow, to the middle regions of the North American coast. (See *Raleigh.*) They discovered Roanoke Island and the main near (see *Roanoke*), and in honor of the unmarried queen the whole country was named Virginia. In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold, sailing from England directly across the Atlantic, discovered the continent on the 14th of May, near Nahant, Mass., and sailing southward also discovered a long, sandy point, which he named Cape Cod, because of the great number of that fish found there. He also discovered Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, and the Elizabeth Islands. (See *Gosnold.*) In 1604 Martin Pring discovered the coast of Maine. Again the French had turned their attention to North America. M. de Chastes, Governor of Dieppe, having received a charter from the King of France to form a settlement in New France (which see), he employed Samuel Champlain, an eminent navigator, to explore that region. He sailed from Honfleur in March, 1603, went up the St. Lawrence in May to Quebec, and, returning to France, found De Chastes dead, and the concession granted to him transferred by the king to Pierre du Gast, Sieur de Monts, a wealthy Huguenot, who accompanied Champlain on another voyage to the St. Lawrence the next year. In 1608 he went up the St. Lawrence again; and the following summer, while engaged in war with some Hurons and Algonquins against the Iroquois, he discovered the lake that bears his name in Northern New York. (See *Champlain.*) At the same time, Henry Hudson, a navigator in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, entered the harbor of New York (Sept., 1609) and ascended the river that bears his name as far as Albany. (See *Hudson.*) The region of the Great Lakes and the upper valley of the Mississippi was discovered and explored by French traders and Jesuit missionaries in the seventeenth century. So early as 1640 the former penetrated the western wilds from Quebec. Father Allouez set up a cross and the arms of France westward of the lakes in 1665. (See *Allouez.*) Father Marquette, another Jesuit missionary, pushed farther in 1673, and discovered the upper waters of the Mississippi. (See *Marquette.*) Father Hennepin, who accompanied La Salle, explored the Mississippi in a canoe from the mouth of the Illinois River, northward, in 1680, and discovered and named the Falls of St. Anthony. (See *Hennepin.*) A little later Robert, Cavalier de La Salle, an enterprising young trader, penetrated to the Mississippi, and afterwards visited the coast of Texas from the sea and planted the germ of a colony in Louisiana. (See *La Salle.*)

America, ORIGIN OF THE NAME OF. Americus Vespucius sailed from Spain with Alonzo de Ojeda, in May, 1499. They followed the track of Columbus to South America, and saw the continent off the coast of Surinam. Vespucius, after his return to Spain, gave an account of the voyage in a letter to Lorenzo de' Medici. He made other voyages, and in a letter to René, Duke of Lorraine, written in 1504, he gave an account of his four voyages, in which he erroneously dated the time of his departure on his first voyage May 29, 1497, or a year or more *before* Columbus and Cabot severally discovered the *continent* of North and South America. In 1505 a narrative of his voyages to America was published at Strasburg, entitled *Americus Vesputius de Orbe Antarctico per Regum Portugalliæ Pridem Juventa.* From that publication, bearing the untrue date of his first voyage, Vespucius acquired the reputation of being the first discoverer of America. Alluding to that false date and the statements under it, the learned and conscientious Charlevoix wrote that "Ojeda, when judicially interrogated, gave the lie direct to the statement." And Herrera, an early Spanish historian, accuses Vespucius of purposely falsifying the date of two of his voyages, and of confounding one with the other, "in order that he might arrogate to himself the glory of having discovered the continent." Finally, when Columbus was dead, and no voice of accusation or denial could escape his lips, the narratives of Vespucius were published at St. Diey, in Lorraine, then, as now, a German frontier province. At that time Vespucius was in correspondence with a learned German school-master named Woldseemüller (Wood-lake-miller), who was a correspondent of the Academy of Cosmography at Strasburg, founded by the Duke of Lorraine. Waldseemüller suggested to the members of that institution, under whose auspices the narrative of Vespucius had been published, the name of "America" for the Western Continent, in compliment to the reputed discoverer. This proposition was published, with approval, in a work entitled *Cosmographie Rudimenta,* in 1507. It is believed that this action was taken at the request or suggestion of Vespucius; at any rate, he is responsible for the fraud, for it was published seven years before the death of the Florentine, and he never repudiated it. "Considering the intimacy of the two parties," says the learned Viscount Santerem, "there is no doubt that the geographer was guided by the navigator in what he did." The name of *America* was given in honor of Americus Vespucius, for whom a fraudulent claim to be the first discoverer of the Western Hemisphere was made, and it was done at the suggestion of a German school-master. Both Columbus and Cabot were deprived of the rightful honor. (See **Columbus** and **Cabot.**)

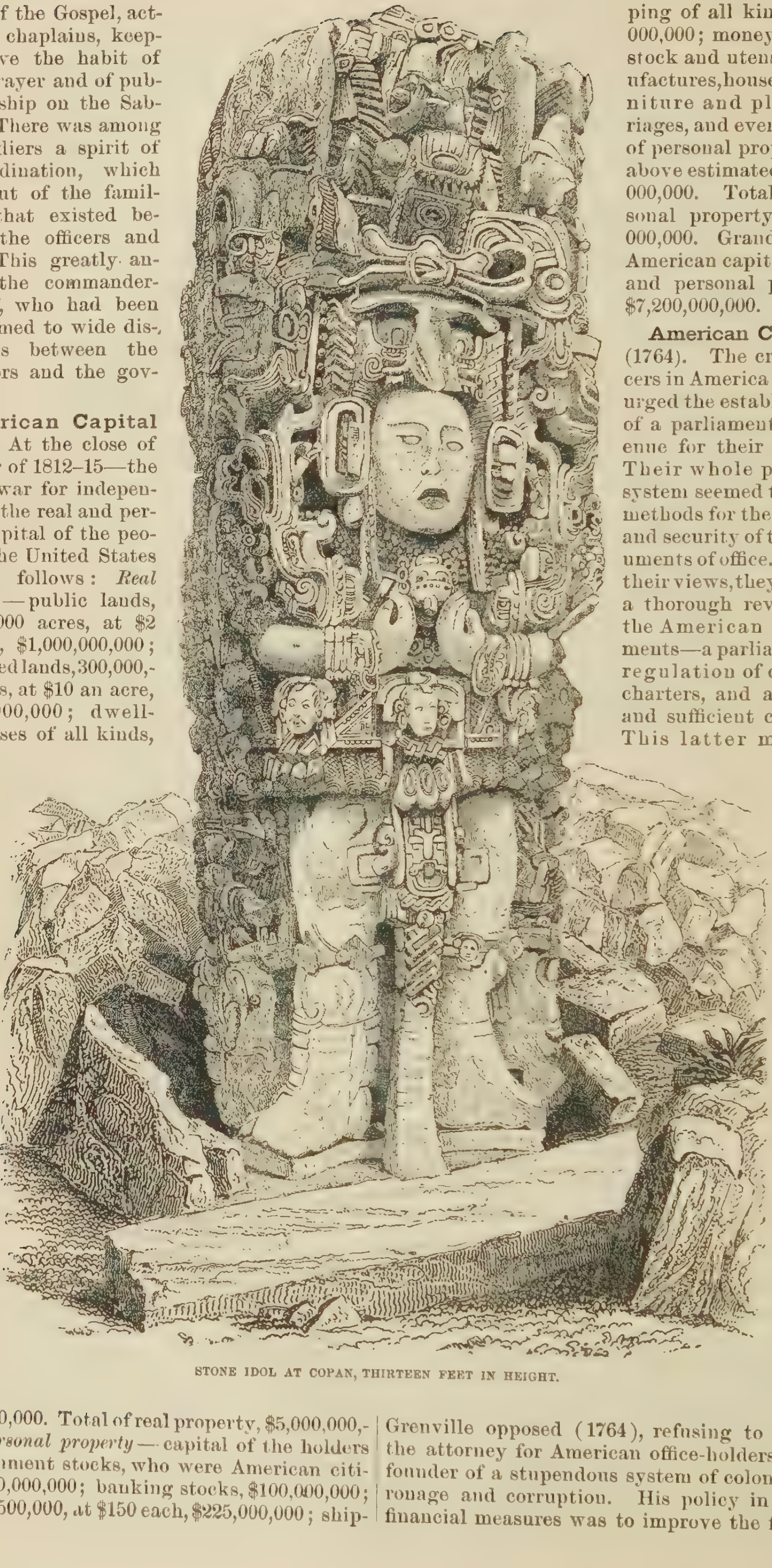
American Ambassador AT THE FRENCH

COURT, THE FIRST. After the treaty of alliance with France was promulgated, Dr. Franklin, Silas Deane, and Arthur Lee were admitted to a public audience with the king on March 20, 1778. Franklin, on that occasion, tried somewhat to comply with the customs of the court by wearing a wig, but he could not find one in Paris large enough to fit his head; so he "wore his own hair"—venerable, long, white locks. He was dressed in a simple but elegant suit of black velvet, contrasting most conspicuously with the brilliant dress of the courtiers. Here was a novelty for Paris! and this, with the fame of Franklin as a philosopher, created a social sensation in the French capital. The beautiful young queen (Marie Antoinette) kept him near her person at levees and in the *salons;* the women gathered about him, and some of the more enthusiastic ones imprinted kisses on his forehead. Franklin was then seventy-two years of age. Deane and Lee were soon afterwards recalled, and Franklin was left sole ambassador at the French court.

American Antiquities. A greater portion of objects which constitute American antiquities consist of the architectural and other remains of the handiwork of the aborigines who inhabited the continent before any of the present races appeared here and subjugated or displaced them; also the ruins occasioned by the Spanish conquest. These are chiefly, in Central and South America, ruined temples, and, in North America, rude earth-works, now overgrown with venerable forest trees which attest their antiquity. In connection with those in the more southern regions, there are remains of elaborate carvings and ornamented pottery. There are many features in common between the temples and other works of art in Mexico, Central America, and Peru. The explorations of Stephens and Catherwood (1840–43) revealed to the world vast remains of cities in Central America, which were doubtless inhabited at the period of the conquest, three hundred and fifty years ago. There they found carved monoliths and the remains of highly ornamented temples. The monoliths at Copan (see the following page) some antiquaries are disposed to rank, as to use, with those ruder ones at Stonehenge, in England, and older ones in Arabia. The remains of Aztec art in Mexico attest the existence of a high degree of civilization there at the period of their structure. So, also, the ruins of the Temple of the Sun, at Cuzco, in Peru, tell of great advancement in the arts under the empire of the Incas. These remains occupy a living place on the borders of the historic period, but the mounds in North America, showing much mathematical skill in their construction and ingenuity in their contents, have hitherto eluded the keen skill of antiquaries, who have sought in vain among prehistoric mysteries for a clew to the origin of the people who fashioned them. (See *Mound-builders.*) European civilization on our continent is of too recent introduction to supply anything to a collection of real American antiquities originating with itself.

American Association, THE. On the 20th of October, 1774, the first Continental Congress adopted a "non-importation, non-consumption, and non-exportation agreement," applied to Great Britain, Ireland, the West Indies, and Madeira, by which the inhabitants of all the colonies were bound to act in good faith as those of certain cities and towns had already done, under the penalty of the displeasure of faithful ones. The agreement was embodied in fourteen articles, and was to go into effect on the first of December next ensuing. In the second article, the congress struck a blow at slavery, in the name of their constituents, declaring that, after the first day of December next ensuing, they would neither import nor purchase any slave imported after that date, and they would in no way be concerned in or abet the slave-trade. Committees were to be appointed in every county, city, and town to enforce compliance with the terms of the association. They also resolved that they would hold no commercial intercourse with any colony in North America that did not accede to these terms, or that should thereafter violate them, but hold such recusants as enemies to their common country. The several articles of the association were adopted unanimously, except the one concerning exportations. The South Carolinians objected to it, because it would operate unequally, and insisted upon *rice* being exempted from the requirement concerning non-exportation. When the article was adopted, all but two of the South Carolina delegation seceded. Gadsden and another, in the spirit of Henry, declared they were not "South Carolinians," but "Americans." The seceders were brought back and signed the articles of association after a compromise was agreed to, which allowed their colony to bear no part of the burden of sacrifice imposed by the association. Short letters were addressed to the colonies of St. John (now Prince Edward's), Nova Scotia, Georgia, and the two Floridas, asking them to join the association.

American Camp at Cambridge (1775), **THE.** The camp of the Continental Army at Cambridge, when Washington took command of it (July, 1775), presented a curious and somewhat picturesque spectacle. There was no conformity in dress. The volunteers from Rhode Island were lodged in tents, and had more the appearance of regular troops than any of the others; others were quartered in Harvard College buildings, the Episcopal church, and private dwellings; and the fields were dotted with lodges of almost every description, varying with the tastes of their occupants. Some of them were constructed of boards, some of sail-cloth, and some partly of both. There were huts of stone and sods, others of bushes, while a few had regular doors and windows, constructed of withes and reeds. To these the feminine relatives of the soldiers—mothers, sisters, wives—were continually repairing with supplies of clothing and gifts for comfort. With them came flocks of boys and girls from the surrounding country, to gratify their curiosity and behold some of the mysteries of war. Among the soldiers in the camp might be seen eminent and eloquent ministers of the Gospel, acting as chaplains, keeping alive the habit of daily prayer and of public worship on the Sabbath. There was among the soldiers a spirit of insubordination, which grew out of the familiarity that existed between the officers and men. This greatly annoyed the commander-in-chief, who had been accustomed to wide distinctions between the governors and the governed.



STONE IDOL AT COPAN, THIRTEEN FEET IN HEIGHT.

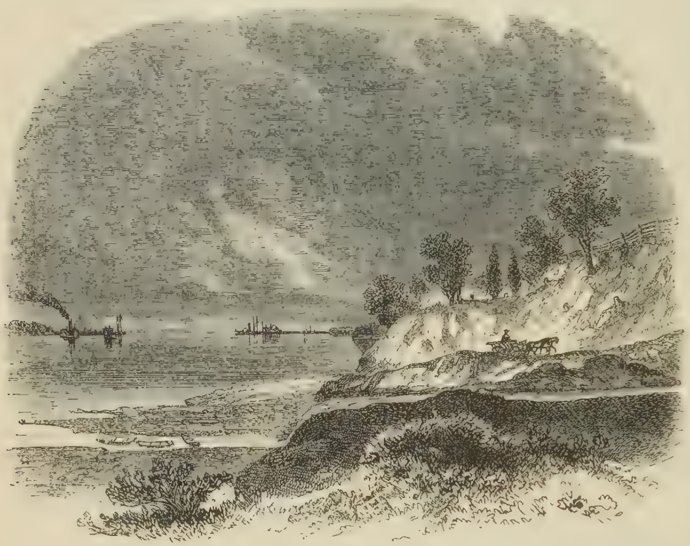
American Capital (1815). At the close of the War of 1812–15—the second war for independence—the real and personal capital of the people of the United States was as follows: *Real property*—public lands, 500,000,000 acres, at $2 an acre, $1,000,000,000; cultivated lands, 300,000,000 acres, at $10 an acre, $3,000,000,000; dwelling-houses of all kinds, $1,000,000,000. Total of real property, $5,000,000,000. *Personal property*—capital of the holders of government stocks, who were American citizens, $100,000,000; banking stocks, $100,000,000; slaves, 1,500,000, at $150 each, $225,000,000; shipping of all kinds, $225,000,000; money, farming stock and utensils, manufactures, household furniture and plate, carriages, and every species of personal property not above estimated, $1,550,000,000. Total of personal property, $2,200,000,000. Grand total of American capital, in real and personal property, $7,200,000,000.

American Civil List (1764). The crown officers in America had long urged the establishment of a parliamentary revenue for their support. Their whole political system seemed to be but methods for the increase and security of the emoluments of office. To meet their views, they advised a thorough revision of the American governments—a parliamentary regulation of colonial charters, and a certain and sufficient civil list. This latter measure Grenville opposed (1764), refusing to become the attorney for American office-holders, or the founder of a stupendous system of colonial patronage and corruption. His policy in all his financial measures was to improve the finances of his country and replenish its exhausted treasury. When the Earl of Halifax proposed the payment of the salaries of colonial crown-officers directly from England, Grenville so strenuously opposed it that the dangerous experiment was postponed. The rapacity of crown-officers in America for place, money, and power was a chief cause of public discontent at all times.

American Conditions for Peace (1782). Dr. Franklin, who well knew the condition of parties in England, and how precarious was the hold of Lord Shelburne on the premiership, hastened to promote immediate negotiations for peace, for which he had been appointed. Ten days after Shelburne's accession (July, 1782), he invited Oswald, the British agent in Paris to prepare for negotiations, to come to his own house. Oswald went there, when Franklin laid before him the articles for a treaty which the Americans would never depart from. They were: Independence absolute and complete in every sense to the whole thirteen states, and all British troops to be withdrawn from them; for boundaries, the Mississippi on the west, and on the side of Canada as they were before the Quebec Act of 1774 (which see); and the freedom of fishing off the Banks of Newfoundland. Franklin explained that nothing could be done for the loyalists in the United States, the separate states having confiscated their property, and the United States having no control in the matter; and he showed that Great Britain had forfeited any right to intercede for them by its conduct and example. He gave Oswald, as an example, the orders of the British in the Carolinas for confiscating the lands and other property of all patriots, under the direction of the military; and declared that, whatever the separate states might do in compassion for the loyalists, the United States commissioners for peace could not make the compensation of refugees a part of the treaty. Franklin recommended—but not as an ultimatum—a perfect reciprocity in regard to ships and trade; and he called Oswald's attention to the reckless destruction of property by the British forces, which might furnish a claim for indemnity. These negotiations were carried on with the knowledge and approval of Vergennes, but everything relating to their conditions was concealed from him. Oswald was given to understand that the American commissioners were ready to sign a preliminary treaty whenever one should be negotiated. (See *Preliminary Treaty of Peace.*) Oswald reported the result of this interview to Shelburne. The minister accepted Franklin's ultimatum as just, and sent full powers to Oswald to negotiate a treaty on that basis.

American Flag, First British Assault upon the. The American ship *Baltimore*, Captain Phillips, sailed out of the harbor of Havana on the morning of Nov. 16, 1798, in charge of a convoy, bound for Charleston, S. C. In sight of Morro Castle she met a British squadron, and Phillips bore up to the *Carnatic*, the British flag-ship, to speak to the captain, when three of the convoys were cut off from the rest and were captured by the British vessels. Captain Phillips, by invitation, went on board the *Carnatic*, when he was informed that every man on the *Baltimore* not having an American protection should be transferred to the British flagship. Phillips protested against the outrage, and declared that he would formally surrender his vessel and refer the matter to his government. On returning to the *Baltimore*, he found a British officer mustering his men. Fifty-five of them were transferred to the *Carnatic*, and the colors of the *Baltimore* were lowered. Five of the men were pressed into the British service; the remainder were sent back, and the *Baltimore* was released. The case was laid before the government of the United States. This outrage upon the sovereignty of the nation—the practical application of the claim of the British government to the right of search and impressment (see *Impressment*) without leave—aroused fierce indignation throughout the Union; yet the American government, influenced, if not controlled, by the mercantile interest (the trade with Great Britain was then very profitable), not only submitted meekly, but committed an act of the most flagrant injustice. Captain Phillips was dismissed from the navy, without a trial, because he surrendered his vessel without a show of resistance; and no notice was taken of the British outrage. The administration, in obsequious deference to Great Britain, had instructed the American naval commanders not to molest the cruisers of any nation (the French excepted) on any account—not even to save their own vessels; and Phillips, because of his strict adherence to this order, was cashiered.

American Fleet on Lake Erie (1813). Who shall be masters of Lake Erie? was an important question to be solved in 1813. The government did not fulfil its promise to Hull to provide means for securing the naval supremacy on Lake Erie. The necessity for such an attainment was so obvious before the close of 1812 that the government took vigorous action in the matter. Isaac Chauncey was in command of a little squadron on Lake Ontario late in 1812, and Captain Oliver Hazard Perry, a zealous young naval officer, of Rhode Island, who was in command of a flotilla of gunboats on the Newport station, offered his services on the lakes. Chauncey desired his services, and on Feb. 17 Perry received orders from the Secretary of the Navy to report to Chauncey with all possible despatch, and to take with him to Sackett's Harbor all of the best men of the flotilla at Newport. He sent them forward, in companies of fifty, under sailing-masters Almy, Champlin, and Taylor. He met Chauncey at Albany, and they journeyed together in a sleigh through the then wilderness to Sackett's Harbor. In March, Perry went to Presque Isle (now Erie, Pa.) to hasten the construction and equipment of a little navy there designed to coöperate with General Harrison in attempts to recover Michigan. Four vessels were speedily built at Erie, and five others were taken to that well-sheltered harbor from Black Rock, near Buffalo, where Henry Eckford had converted merchant-vessels into war-ships. The vessels at Erie were constructed under the immediate supervision of Sailing-master Daniel Dobbins, at the mouth of Cascade Creek. Early in May (1813) the three smaller vessels were launched, and on the 24th of the same month two brigs were put afloat. The whole fleet was finished on the 10th of July, and consisted of the brig *Lawrence*, 20 guns; brig *Niagara*, 20 guns; brig *Caledonia*, 3 guns; schooner *Ariel*, 4 guns; schooner *Scorpion*, 2 guns and 2 swivels; sloop *Trippe*, 1 gun; schooner *Tigress*, 1 gun; and schooner *Porcupine*, 1 gun. The command of the fleet was given to Perry, and the *Lawrence*, so named in honor of the slain commander of the *Chesapeake*, was his flag-ship. But men and supplies were wanting. A British squadron on the lake seriously menaced the fleet at Erie, and Perry pleaded for materials to put his vessels in proper order to meet danger. "Think of my situation," he wrote to Chauncey—"the enemy in sight, the vessels under my command more than sufficient and ready to make sail, and yet obliged to bite my fingers with vexation for want of men."



MOUTH OF CASCADE CREEK, WHERE PERRY'S FLEET WAS BUILT.

American Fort on the Mississippi (1780). Clarke designed to extend his invasion to Detroit (see *Clarke's Expedition*), but troops to reinforce him had been added to the force of another bold leader (see *Shelby, Evan*), and he had to abandon the undertaking. Jefferson, then Governor of Virginia, gave instructions for the occupation of a station on the Mississippi River between the mouth of the Ohio and the parallel of 36° 30′; and in the spring of 1780 Clarke chose a strong position five miles below the mouth of the Ohio, whereon he built Fort Jefferson. Here the Americans planted their first sentinel to watch over the freedom of the navigation of the "Father of Waters."

American Forts. The following is a list of forts in existence when war was declared in 1812, and their location: Fort Sumner, Portland, Me.; Fort William and Mary, Portsmouth, N. H.; Fort Lily, Gloucester, Cape Anne; Fort Pickering, Salem, Mass.; Fort Sewall, Marblehead, Mass.; Fort Independence, Boston Harbor; Fort Wolcott, near Newport, R. I.; Fort Adams, Newport Harbor; Fort Hamilton, near Newport; North Battery, a mile northwest of Fort Wolcott; Dumplings Fort, entrance to Narraganset Bay, R. I.; 'Tonomy Hill, a mile east of North Battery, R. I.; Fort Trumbull, New London, Conn.; Fort Jay, Governor's Island, New York Harbor; Works on Ellis and Bedlow's Islands, New York Harbor; Fort Mifflin, Delaware River, below Philadelphia; Fort McHenry, Baltimore; Fort Severn, Annapolis; Forts Norfolk and Nelson, on Elizabeth River, below Norfolk, Va.; Forts Pinckney, Moultrie, and Mechanic, for the protection of Charleston, S. C.; Fort Mackinaw, island of Mackinaw; Fort Dearborn, Chicago; Fort Wayne, at the forks of the Maumee, Ind.; Fort Detroit, Michigan; Fort Niagara, mouth of the Niagara River; Fort Ontario, Oswego; Fort Tompkins, Sackett's Harbor, N. Y. Some of these were unfinished, and others were strengthened.

American Influence in Great Britain (1770). The influence of political agitation in the colonies began to be sensibly felt in Great Britain at the beginning of 1770. The friends of liberty in England were the friends of the colonists. The cause was the same in all places. There was a violent struggle for relief from thralls everywhere. America responded to calls for help from England, as well as calls for help in America had been responded to in England. In December, 1769, South Carolina sent £10,500 currency to London for the society for supporting the Bill of Rights, "that the liberties of Great Britain and America might alike be protected," wrote members of the South Carolina Assembly. In Ireland, the dispute with America aroused Grattan, and he began his splendid career at about this time. The English toilers in the manufacturing districts longed to enjoy the abundance and freedom which they heard of in America; and 1769 is marked by the establishment, in England, of the system of public meetings to discuss subjects of importance to free-born Englishmen. The press, too, spoke out boldly at that time. "Can you conceive," wrote the yet mysterious Junius (which see) to the king, "that the people of this country will long submit to be governed by so flexible a

House of Commons? The oppressed people of Ireland give you every day fresh marks of their resentment. The colonists left their native land for freedom and found it in a desert. Looking forward to independence, they equally detest the pageantry of a king and the supercilious hypocrisy of a bishop."

American Literature, from the beginning of the old war for independence (1775), gradually assumed a distinct type, spirit, and substance. During the earlier colonial period there were a considerable number of works written and published in the English-American colonies, chiefly of a religious and controversial character. The first literary work produced in America was a translation into English of *Ovid's Metamorphoses*, by George Sandys, Treasurer of Virginia, in 1724, and published, in folio (with illustrations), in London in 1726. The first original work published in New England was a volume of poems by Mrs. Anne Bradstreet, a daughter of Governor Dudley of Massachusetts, and published in 1640. Eliot's translation of the Bible into the Indian tongue, issued in 1663, was the first publication of the Scriptures in America. This was followed by translations of other works into the language of the barbarians near Boston. Religious writers monopolized the colonial press—Williams, Hooker, Davenport, Norton, and the Mathers. Finally, late in the colonial period, Jonathan Edwards appeared as a brilliant writer on theology and metaphysics, with Dr. Franklin on morals, politics, and science. The papers of the latter were read with avidity by all classes of cultivated people, for the spirit of his writings were catholic, large-hearted, and humane. At the Revolution politics naturally took possession of the public mind and expelled from it polemical theology, and the ardent theologian became a sharp political combatant. The state papers put forth by the Continental Congress, in style and expression, won the applause of European statesmen. Edwards did not live to hear more than the distant rumblings of the tempest; Franklin was a colossus of strength when the storm of the Revolution burst. There were ready writers, younger in years, to aid him. Franklin and Washington, Jefferson and Adams, Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, laid the foundation of American literature upon which our writers have built a noble structure. From 1776 until 1812 the most eminent writers were its earnest statesmen. The *Federalist*, written by Hamilton, Jay, and Madison, will ever remain a monument of literary excellence and political sagacity. There were some poets at that period —Trumbull, Dwight, Humphreys, Barlow, and Hopkins—who grasped the political and historical subjects of the time; but after the second war for independence the field of American authorship widened, and the question asked by Sidney Smith, in the *Edinburgh Review* in 1820—"Who reads an American book?"—may now be answered by a host of English readers. Our American authors have since then boldly traversed every field of literature, whether historic, scientific, or æsthetic. America now has a distinct and notable literature of its own.

American Loyalists. There was a great diversity of sentiment in the English-American colonies during the disputes with the mother country before war commenced in 1775 and during its progress. Probably every American citizen desired the freedom which the most zealous patriot sought; they differed only in their opinions as to the best method to be employed for obtaining it. The Whigs, or the popular party, were radicals; the Tories, or the adherents of the crown and Parliament, were conservatives. The latter defended or condoned the oppressive measures of Parliament; the former denounced them as absolutely tyrannical and not to be endured. The question, Which party is right? was a vital one. The imperial government settled it in favor of the Whigs by rescinding their oppressive measures one after another; and this decision has been ratified by the judgment of posterity on both sides of the Atlantic. The Declaration of Independence compelled men of opposite opinions to avow them publicly. Then the important question arose concerning the policy of tolerating the Tories, or loyalists—their acts must be restrained as a prudential measure against injury to the patriot cause. Having the power, and believing themselves to be in the right, the Whigs took decisive measures to that end. Imprisonment or other odious restraint at home, or banishment, was the alternative presented. To a large proportion of the loyalists the latter horn of the dilemma appeared the least affliction, and many hundreds abandoned their country and fled to Nova Scotia or to England; while a considerable number, especially of the young men, were embodied in military corps, and took up arms against their Whig countrymen. This embodiment was undertaken by the deposed Governor Tryon of New York. He was ably seconded by Oliver De Lancey, brother of a lieutenant-governor of the province of New York, and Courtlandt Skinner, of New Jersey. But these loyalist corps numbered far less, for a long time, than the ministry or their partisans in America anticipated. The greatest exertions of the three leaders above named had not caused an enrollment of over twelve hundred of them so late as the spring of 1777. Afterwards the number greatly increased, though there were not a great many in the field at one time. Sabine (*Lives of the American Loyalists*) estimates the whole number enrolled during the war at twenty thousand. The first organization was under Lord Dunmore in Virginia (see *Dunmore*), and Martin in North Carolina, in 1775 (see *Josiah Martin*). Later there were loyalists under Sir John Johnson and Colonel Butler in New York; also under Tryon and De Lancey in the same state, and Skinner of New Jersey. Later still the loyalists of the Carolinas, who were numerous in the western districts, were embodied under Major Patrick Ferguson, killed at King's Mountain in 1781. Altogether, there were twenty-nine or thirty regiments, regularly officered and enrolled. The most noted loyalist corps in the war was that of the Queen's Rangers, led by Major Simcoe, afterwards Governor of Canada. The loyalists were of two kinds. Some were honorable, conscientious men, governed by principle, and friends of the British government by conviction; others were selfish and unscrupulous, siding with the supposed stronger side for purposes of gain, spite, or opportunities for plunder and rapine under legal sanction. The majority of the latter class filled the military ranks, and their oppressions and cruelties excited the fiercest animosities of the Whigs, who suffered dreadfully. They were made to hate the name of Tory, and in many instances the aversion was felt for at least two generations in Whig families towards the descendants of Tories. Banishments and confiscations by the Whig authorities were popular; but when peace came and animosities subsided, mercy and justice combined to do right. In the negotiation of the treaty of peace (1782), the British commissioners claimed indemnity for the losses of the loyalists. It was denied on the ground that the Whigs during the war had really suffered greater losses through the acts of the Tories, and the claim was not allowed. At the close of the war the military organizations of the loyalists were disbanded, and some of the officers were transferred to the royal army and continued in service for life. Others, less fortunate, went with a host of civil and military companions into exile, the northern ones chiefly to Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Canada, and the southern ones to the Bahamas, Florida, and the British West Indies. Many also went to England, and for years were importunate petitioners for relief from the British government. The officers generally received half pay. Towards the close of 1782 the British Parliament appointed a committee to attend to the claims of the loyalists. By their decision (June, 1783) the sum of $216,000 was to be distributed annually among 687 loyalist pensioners. The claimants finally became so numerous that a permanent board of commissioners was appointed, which continued about seven years. On March 25, 1784, the number of claimants was 2063, and the aggregate amount of property claimed to have been destroyed or confiscated, besides debts which they had lost, was about $35,000,000. In 1790 the Parliament settled the whole matter by enactment. Altogether, nearly $15,000,000 were distributed among the American loyalists by the British government. It was regarded as a most generous act in a nation which had expended nearly $100,000,000 in the war, and by it lost a vast and valuable domain.

American Loyalists, Expatriation of. In consequence of laws still in force against the loyalists, several thousand Americans found it necessary to abandon their country when the British army left. A considerable portion of these exiles belonged to the wealthier class—officials, merchants, large land-holders, and conspicuous members of the colonial aristocracy. Many of them still retained much wealth, though suffering from confiscations of lands. Those from the North settled principally in Nova Scotia or Canada. To the former places about one thousand had fled on the British evacuation of Boston. Those from the South found refuge in the Bahamas and other West India islands. The evacuation of New York City by the British troops was delayed by the necessity and difficulty of providing transportation for the numerous loyalists assembled there where the remaining troops of Burgoyne and Cornwallis had been collected.

American Navigation Acts (1816–18). Nearly all the nations of Europe, since the downfall of Napoleon and the return of peace, had adopted a very discriminating policy in favor of their own shipping. Of the effect of this policy the navigating interest of the United States loudly complained; and, finally, by an act (March 1, 1816), copied from the famous English Navigation Act (which see), the Americans retaliated. Importations by foreign ships were to be limited to the produce of their respective countries—a provision not to apply except to nations having a similar regulation. The coasting-trade, hitherto open to foreign vessels, was now restricted to those American built and owned. To promote the increase of American seamen, all coasting and fishing vessels were required to have crews three fourths of whom were Americans, and all registered vessels crews of whom two fifths were Americans, under penalty of an additional tonnage duty, and, in case of fishing-vessels, forfeiture of the fishing bounties. In April, 1818, an act was passed closing the ports of the United States against British vessels from any British colonial port into which American vessels were not admitted. This policy, which totally failed of its object, was kept up for twelve years, and then abandoned.

American, or Know-nothing, Party, The, originated in 1853, and was so anti-American that it soon disappeared from the arena of politics. The members of the "American Party" were called "Know-nothings," because in their endeavors to preserve the secrecy of their movements they were instructed to reply "I don't know" to any question asked in reference to the party. It was at first a secret political organization, the chief object of which was the proscription of foreigners by the repeal of the naturalization laws of the United States, and the exclusive choice of Americans for office. The more radical members of the party advocated a purely American school system, and uncompromising opposition to the Roman Catholics. Such narrow views were incompatible with the generosity and catholic spirit of enlightened American citizens, and they gave place to broader ideas and aspirations.

American Petitions rejected (1769). When it became evident, late in 1768, that the British government meant to bring the Americans to submission by military force, each assembly, as it convened, denied the assumed right of Parliament to tax the Americans without their consent, and embodied that denial in petitions to the king. The monarch disapproved and rejected them because the ministry were pledged to enforce the absolute supremacy of Parliament. He assured the assemblies, through the proper officers, in more or less soothing or harsh words, that he would never listen to "the views of wicked men" who questioned the supreme authority of Parliament. This unwise treatment of the sacred right of petition by the king did much towards alienating the affections of his American subjects.

American Prisoners in England (1778). When it was ascertained that there were hundreds of American prisoners of war in England, enduring great sufferings for want of the necessaries of life, a subscription was made by the friends of the Americans in Great Britain, which speedily gave them relief. At that time there were nine hundred of them suffering in British prisons. A subscription started in London soon procured about two thousand dollars, which was more than sufficient to relieve the immediate wants of the captives. These wants consisted chiefly in a lack of sufficient clothing.

American Privateers in Spanish Ports (1778). While the Spanish court was opposed to the establishment of a republic in America, as being dangerous to the colonial interests of Spain, American merchant-ships and privateers were allowed free entrance to Spanish ports. Every remonstrance from England was met by the plea that they hoisted English colors, and that their real character could not be known. Spain was willing to hurt England, if it could be done with safety.

American Property, SEIZURE OF, IN EUROPE (1810). Bonaparte declared, in 1810, that no trade would be allowed with the allies of France in which France herself was forbidden to participate. In the ports of Spain under French control, of Holland, and at Naples, a large number of American vessels and a great amount of American property were seized; also at Hamburg, in Denmark, and in the Baltic ports, it being alleged that many American and many British vessels were employed in bringing British produce from British ports under forged papers seeming to show that the property and vessels were American, directly from the United States. The seizures were, therefore, made indiscriminately, and a vast amount of *bona fide* American property was thus lost. The seizures at Naples were particularly piratical, for the ships were lured into that port by a special proclamation of King Joachim Murat. These spoliations constituted the basis of claims subsequently made upon, and settled by, France and Naples. (See *French and Neapolitan Spoliations, Claims for.*) The only country in Europe into whose ports American vessels might enter with safety was Russia.

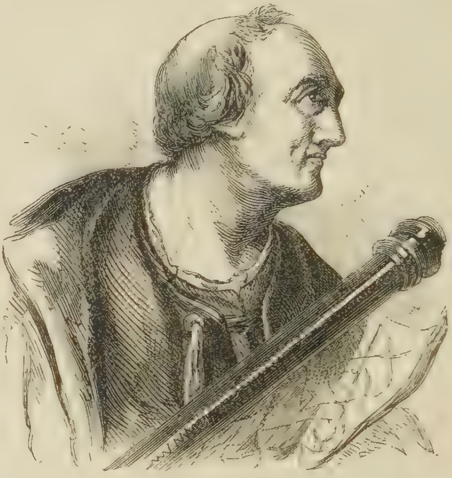
American Society for the Promotion of National Union. Early in 1861 there seemed to be concerted action all over the State of New York to discountenance anti-slavery movements, and to silence the men whose agency, it was alleged, had caused "the public sentiment of the North to have the appearance of hostility to the Union." Anti-slavery meetings were broken up by violence, and the Democratic State Committee called a convention at Albany of four delegates from each assembly district in January, 1861. That convention declared, by a series of resolutions, as expressive of the sense of the party, that a "conflict of sectional passions had produced the present convulsions; that war could not restore the Union, but would *defeat forever its reconstruction*," and that the Union could only be preserved by the adoption of a border-state policy, embodied in the Crittenden Compromise (which see). They appointed a committee to prepare a memorial to the Legislature, urging it to submit that compromise to a vote of the electors of the state. Early in March (1861) an association was formed in the city of New York called the "American Society for the Promotion of National Union," of which Professor Samuel F. B. Morse was chosen president. Its proposed object was "to promote the union and welfare of our common country by addresses, publications, and all other suitable means adapted to elucidate and inculcate, in accordance with the Word of God, the duties of American citizens, especially in relation to slavery. In its "Programme" this society denounced the seminal doctrine of the Declaration of Independence, saying: "The popular declaration that all men are created equal, and entitled to liberty, intended to embody the sentiments of our ancestors respecting the doctrine of the divine right of kings and nobles, and perhaps, also, the more doubtful sentiment of the French school, may be understood to indicate both a sublime truth and a pernicious error." In its numerous publications scattered broadcast over the land, this society advocated the righteousness of slavery in the United States, saying: "Four millions of immortal beings, incapable of self-care, and indisposed to industry and foresight, are providentially committed to the care of our Southern friends. This stupendous trust they cannot put from them if they would. Emancipation, were it possible, would be rebellion against Providence and destruction to the colored race in our land." The political publications of this society were all in favor of the confederated citizens of the republic who were trying to destroy the Union. This society was the germ of that powerful Peace Party which, like the Peace Faction (which see) in the war of 1812–15, embarrassed the government in every way in its efforts to save the liberties and free institutions of our country.

American Squadrons in the West Indies. Late in 1798 the United States had four squadrons among the West Indian islands: one of nine vessels, commanded by Commodore Barry (the senior officer of the navy), cruised to the eastward as far south as Tobago; a second, of five vessels, under Commodore Truxton, had its rendezvous at St. Christopher's (St. Kitts), its business being to watch the island of Guadaloupe; and two smaller squadrons guarded, one the passage between Cuba and Santo Domingo, the other the neighborhood of Havana, whence privateers were accustomed to issue under French colors. Each of these squadrons had captured French privateers. War with France was considered inevitable at that time.

American System, THE. To Henry Clay is due the credit of originating the system of tariffs for the protection of American manufactures known as the "American System." In this effort he was associated with John C. Calhoun, W. J. Lowndes, and others; and, in 1816, a new tariff of duties was laid, but it proved inadequate to sustain many domestic manufactures which, in consequence of embargo acts and the restrictions upon commerce by the war, had been brought into existence. When commerce was made free at the close of the war, excessive importations of manufactured goods prostrated that industry in the United States. In 1818 a heavier tariff was laid in order to protect American manufactures, there being a large majority in Congress in favor of the American System. The duties laid by the tariff of 1816 were continued for seven years; and in 1824 much heavier duties were laid on cotton and woollen manufactures imported from abroad, with a view to encourage the yet feeble American manufacturing interest. But the cotton-growers of the South soon began to perceive that this tariff was injurious to their business, as it was calculated to lessen the demand for that product in the British markets which had become important to them. In a convention held at Harrisburg, Pa., in July, 1827, to discuss the matter, delegates from only four of the slave-labor states appeared. The result of the deliberations at that convention was a memorial to Congress asking an augmentation of the duties on several articles then manufactured in the United States. In the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, in December following, he called attention to the subject; and, during the session of 1827–28, Congress enacted a very stringent tariff law (May 15, 1828), and the American System became very popular among the manufacturers of the North. At the same time it was denounced by the cotton-growers of the South as both oppressive and unconstitutional. The opposition to this tariff led to open opposition to the laws. (See *Nullification.*)

Americans excluded from New Orleans. On Oct. 18, 1802, the French Intendant, or governor, of New Orleans issued a decree by which the Americans were no longer permitted to deposit their merchandise in New Orleans. That port was also shut, on the same day, against all foreign commerce, which could be carried on, thereafter, only by Spanish subjects in Spanish vessels. This virtual shutting-up of the Mississippi as a highway of commerce led to negotiations with France, which resulted, early in 1803, in the purchase of Louisiana from the latter-named country by the United States. (See *Louisiana, Purchase of.*)

Americus Vespucius, born in Florence, March 9, 1451; died in Seville, Feb. 22, 1512. When Columbus was in Seville preparing for his second voyage, Vespucius was there as a commercial agent of the Medici family of Florence, and he became personally acquainted with the discoverer. That acquaintance inspired the Florentine with an ardent desire to make a voyage to the newly found continent, and he was gratified when, in 1499, he sailed from Spain with Alonzo de Ojeda as an adventurer and self-constituted geographer of the expedition. Ojeda followed the track of Columbus in his third voyage, and discovered mountains in South America when off the coast of Surinam. He ran up the coast to the mouth of the Orinoco River (where Columbus had discovered the continent the year before), passed along the coast of Venezuela, crossed the Caribbean Sea to Santo Domingo, kidnapped some natives of the Antilles, and returned to Spain in June, 1500, and sold their victims for slaves to Spanish grandees. In May, 1501, Vespucius, then in the service of the King of Portugal, sailed on his second voyage to America, exploring the coast of Brazil. In 1503 he commanded a caravel in a squadron destined for America, but parted company with the other vessels, and off the coast of Brazil discovered the Bay of All-saints. He then ran along the coast two hundred and sixty leagues, and, taking in a cargo of Brazil wood, returned to Lisbon in 1504. He entered the Spanish service again in 1505, was made chief pilot of the realm, and again voyaged to America. In 1504, Vespucius, in a letter to the Duke of Lorraine, gave an account of his four voyages to the New World, in which was given the date of May 29, 1497, as the time when he sailed on his first voyage. That was a year earlier than the discovery of the continent of South America by Columbus and of North America by Cabot (see *Columbus* and *Cabot*), and made it appear that Vespucius was the first discoverer. After the death of Columbus



AMERICUS VESPUCIUS.

in 1506, a friend of Vespucius proposed to the Academy of Cosmography at Strasburg, upon the authority of the falsely dated letter, to give the name *America* to the Western Continent in compliment to its "first discoverer." It was done, and so Columbus and Cabot were both deprived of the honor of having their names associated with the title of this continent by fraud. (See *America, Origin of Name of.*)

Americus Vespucius, VOYAGE OF, TO BRAZIL. (See *Cabral.*)

Ames, ADELBERT, was born in Maine, and graduated at West Point in 1861. He entered the military service, and for his gallant conduct in the battle of Bull's Run (1861) he was breveted major. He served in the conflicts on the Peninsula in 1862. At Chancellorsville he led a brigade, also at Gettysburg, in 1863, and before Petersburg, in 1864, he commanded a division. In the expedition against Fort Fisher, near the close of that year, he commanded a division of colored troops, and afterwards led the same in North Carolina. In the spring of 1865, he was breveted Major-general of Volunteers and Brigadier-general in the U. S. Army. In 1871 he was a representative of Mississippi in the U. S. Senate, and was governor in 1874.

Ames, FISHER, LL.D., was born in Dedham, Mass., April 9, 1758; died there July 4, 1808. He graduated at Harvard University in 1774, which he entered at the age of thirteen years. He taught school until 1781, when he began the successful practice of law, and soon displayed rare oratorical powers. Mr. Ames wrote political essays for Boston newspapers, over the signatures of "Brutus" and "Camillus." In Congress from 1789 until 1797 he was always distinguished for his great business talent, exalted patriotism, and brilliant oratory. Ardently devoted to Washington, personally and politically, he was chosen by his colleagues to write the address to the first President on his retiring from office in 1797. After leaving Congress he devoted himself to the practice of his profession; but finally, on account of declining health, gave it up to engage exclusively in agricultural pursuits. In 1804 he was chosen President of Harvard University, but declined the honor. He received the degree of LL.D. from that institution. His orations, essays, and letters were collected and published in one volume, with a biographical sketch by Rev. Dr. Kirkland, in 1809. So powerful was his great speech in Congress in favor of Jay's Treaty (which see), on April 28, 1795, that an opposition member moved to postpone the decision of the question that they might not "vote under the influence of a sensibility which their calm judgment might condemn."

FISHER AMES.

Amherst, SIR JEFFREY, was born in Kent, England, Jan. 29, 1717; died Aug. 3, 1797. He became an ensign in the army in 1731, and was aid to Lord Ligonier and the Duke of Cumberland. In 1756 he was promoted to major-general, and given the command of the expedition against Louisburg in 1758, which resulted in its capture, with other French strongholds in that vicinity. In September that year he was appointed commander-in-chief in America, and led the troops in person, in 1759, that drove the French from Lake Champlain. The next year he captured Montreal, and completed the conquest of Canada. For these acts he was rewarded with the thanks of Parliament and the Order of the Bath. In 1763 he was appointed governor of Virginia. He was made governor of the island of Guernsey in 1771; created a baron in 1776; was commander-in-chief of the forces from 1778 until 1795; and field-marshal in July, 1796.

SIR JEFFREY AMHERST.

Amherst and Pontiac. The atrocities of the Indians in May and June, 1763 (see *Pontiac's War*), aroused the anger and the energies of Sir Jeffrey Amherst, commander of the British forces in America, and he contemplated hurling swift destruction upon the barbarians. He denounced Pontiac as the "chief ringleader of mischief;" and, in a proclamation, said, "Whoever kills Pontiac shall receive from me a reward of £100" ($500). He bade the commander at Detroit to make public proclamation for an assassin to pursue him. He regarded the Indians as "the vilest race of creatures on the face of the earth; and whose riddance from it must be esteemed a meritorious act, for the good of mankind." He instructed his officers engaged in war against them to "take no prisoners, but put to death all that should fall into their hands."

Amidas, PHILIP, was of a Breton family in France, but was born at Hull, England, in 1550. When Raleigh sent two ships to America in 1584, the chief command was given to Arthur Barlow, who commanded one of the vessels, and Philip Amidas the other. They were directed to explore the coasts within the parallels of N. latitude 32° and 38°. They touched at the Canary Islands, the West Indies, and Florida, and made their way northward along the coast. On the 13th of July, 1584, they entered Ocrakoke Inlet, and landed on Wocoken Island. There Barlow set up a small column with the British arms rudely carved upon it, and took formal possession of the whole region in the name of Queen Elizabeth, as he waved the English banner over it in the presence of the wondering natives. They spent several weeks in exploring Roanoke Island and Pamlico and Albemarle Sounds. (See *Roanoke.*) On Roanoke Island the Englishmen were entertained by the mother of King Wingini, who was absent, and were hospitably received everywhere. After getting what information they could about the neighboring main, and inspired by the beauties of nature around them, the navigators returned to England, attended by Manteo and Wanchese, two Indian chiefs. The latter was afterwards created "Lord of Roanoke," and was the first and last American peer of England. (See *Manteo.*) The glowing accounts given by Amidas and Barlow of the country they had discovered captivated the queen, and she named the region, as some say, in allusion to her unmarried state, Virginia; others say it was in allusion to the virgin country. Amidas was in the maritime service of England long afterwards; and a few years after his voyage to Virginia, he commanded an expedition to Newfoundland. He died in England in 1618, a short time before Raleigh was beheaded. (See *Raleigh.*)

Amnesty and Pardon. On Dec. 25, 1868, President Johnson issued a proclamation of unconditional amnesty, which reinstated all persons, "without reservation," "who, directly or indirectly, participated in the late insurrection or rebellion." He granted "full pardon and amnesty for the offence of treason against the United States." This embraced Jefferson Davis, the head of the league formed for the destruction of the Union, and who had been released from prison on bail. His trial had been commenced at Richmond, Va., on the 3d of December, before Chief-justice Chase and Judge Underwood. His counsel moved that the indictment should be quashed, on the ground that the 14th Amendment had punished him by disfranchisement. The court was divided in opinion, Chief-justice Chase favoring the idea of Davis's counsel. The President's proclamation of amnesty and pardon, twenty-two days afterwards, seemed to remove all occasion for further action, and Davis was never tried. On May 22, 1872, Congress passed an amnesty bill for removing the political disabilities imposed by the 14th Amendment from all persons excepting members of the 36th and 37th Congress, heads of departments, members of diplomatic corps, and officers of the army and navy who had engaged in the rebellion. About six hundred persons were denied the privileges of the act. Mr. Davis was among the exceptions.

Amphibious Engagement ON THE JAMES RIVER, 1864. While a greater part of the national naval force on the James River was on the expedition against Fort Fisher (which see), the Confederates sent down from the shelter of Fort Darling, on Drewry's Bluff, a squadron of vessels for the purpose of breaking the obstructions at the lower end of the Dutch Gap Canal (which see), and destroying the pontoon bridges below, so as to separate the national troops lying on both sides of the James. The squadron moved silently under cover of darkness, but was observed and fired upon when passing Fort Brady. The vessels responded, and dismounted a 100-pounder Parrott gun in the fort. The *Fredericksburg* broke the obstructions at Dutch Gap and passed through, but two other iron-clads and an unarmored gunboat grounded. At dawn the gunboat (*Drewry*) had been abandoned, and a shell from a national battery exploded her magazine, when she was blown to a wreck. So hot was the fire from the shore that the voyage of the Confederate vessels was checked, and all but the ruined *Drewry* fled up the river.

Amphibious Warfare. During the spring and summer of 1813 a most distressing warfare was carried on upon land and water by a British squadron, under the command of Admiral Cockburn, along the coasts between Delaware Bay and Charleston Harbor. It was marked by many acts of cruelty. "Chastise the Americans into submission" was the substance of the order given to Cockburn by the British cabinet, and he seemed to be a willing servant of the will of his government. An Order in Council, issued on Dec. 20, 1812, declared the ports and harbors of much of the American coast in a state of blockade. (See *Blockade.*) Cockburn entered between the capes of Virginia early in February, 1813, with a squadron, of which his flagship was the *Marlborough*, 74. This squadron bore a land force of about eighteen hundred men, a part of them captive Frenchmen from British prisons, who preferred active life in the British service to indefinite confinement in jails. The appearance of this force alarmed all Lower Virginia; and the militia of the Peninsula and about Norfolk were soon in motion after the squadron had entered Hampton Roads. The Secretary of the Treasury ordered the extinguishment of all the beacon-lights on the Chesapeake coast. At the same time the frigate *Constellation*, 38, lying at Norfolk, was making ready to attack the British vessels. A part of the squadron went into Delaware Bay, but the forewarned militia were ready for the marauders, who only attacked the village of Lewiston. Cockburn, in person, led marauding expeditions along the coasts of Chesapeake Bay, plundering and burning; and he even contemplated attacking Baltimore, Annapolis, and the national capital. He fell upon Frenchtown, Georgetown, Frederick, and Havre-de-Grace on the Chesapeake. Finally, on June 1, Admiral Warren entered the Chesapeake with a naval reinforcement for the marauders, which made the force within the capes of Virginia to consist of eight ships of the line, twelve frigates, and a considerable number of smaller vessels. They attempted to penetrate to Norfolk. The British were repulsed by troops on Craney Island, and gunboats on the water. Then the troops attacked Hampton, and committed many outrages there.

Leaving Hampton, Cockburn sailed down the coast of North Carolina, plundering the inhabitants wherever opportunity offered, and carrying away a large number of slaves, whom he sold in the West Indies on his private account. (See *Havre-de-Grace, Craney Island*, and *Norfolk*.)

Ancestors of the Pilgrims. At the middle of the sixteenth century the social condition of the people of England was very primitive, and their wants were few. The common people lived in cottages built of wooden frames filled in with clay; their houses were without wooden floors, and in many of them the fireplaces were constructed in the middle of the rooms without chimneys, a hole being left in the roof for the escape of the smoke. The windows were not glazed, and were closed against the weather, and the light allowed to enter by means of oiled paper. Such was the plain condition of the houses of the Puritans of New England. In England in the early part of Queen Elizabeth's reign pallets of straw served for beds of the common people, who had coverings made of rough mats, and their pillows were logs. This was regarded as a good bed, for many slept in straw alone. Very few vegetables were then cultivated, for gardening had not yet been generally introduced from Holland, and gardens were cultivated only for the rich, and these chiefly for ornament. The common material for bread was the unbolted flour of oats, rye, and barley; and sometimes, when these were scarce (afterwards in New England), they were mixed with ground acorns. Even this black bread was sometimes denied them, and flesh was the principal diet. Their forks and ploughs were made of wood, and these, with a hoe and spade, constituted the bulk of their agricultural implements. Their spoons and platters were made chiefly of wood, and table-forks were unknown. It is said that glazed windows were so scarce, and regarded as so much of a luxury, that noblemen, when they left their country-houses to go to court, had their glazed windows packed away carefully with other precious furniture. Chimneys had been introduced into England early in the sixteenth century.

Anderson, Alexander, M.D., the first engraver on wood in America, was born in the city of New York, April 21, 1775; died in Jersey City, N. J., Jan. 6, 1870. His father was a Scotchman, who printed a Whig newspaper in New York, called *The Constitutional Gazette*, until he was driven from the city by the British in 1776. At the age of twelve years young Anderson made quite successful attempts at engraving on copper and type-metal, and two or three years later he began the study of medicine. In 1796 he received the degree of M.D. from Columbia College, writing for the occasion an able thesis on "Chronic Mania." He practised the profession for a few years, and engraved at the same time, liking that employment better. After the yellow-fever in 1798 had swept away nearly his whole family, he abandoned the practice of medicine and made engraving his life profession. Having seen an edition of Bewick's *History of Quadrupeds*, illustrated with wood-engravings by that master, Anderson first learned that *wood* was used for such a purpose. He tried it successfully; and from that time (1795) he used it almost continuously until a few months before his death, a period of seventy-five years. A vast number of American books illustrated by Anderson attest the skill and industry of this pioneer of the art of wood-engraving in America. The writer possesses the last work from his hand—an unfinished engraving on wood, executed when he lacked only a few months of being ninety-five years of age.

ALEXANDER ANDERSON.

Anderson and Pickens (1860). Major Anderson, in Fort Sumter, keenly felt the insult to his country's flag in the firing upon the *Star of the West* (which see). He accepted it as an act of war, and sent a letter, under a flag of truce, to Governor Pickens, as to a belligerent enemy, asking him for an explanation of the outrage. Pickens replied that it was an act authorized by the State of South Carolina, and that any attempt to reinforce Sumter would be resisted. Anderson referred the whole subject to his government, and wrote to Pickens to that effect, expressing a hope that he would not prevent the bearer of his despatches (Lieutenant Talbot) from proceeding at once to Washington. No objection was interposed, and Talbot carried to the North the first full tidings of the failure of the expedition of the *Star of the West.* Two days after the attack on that vessel, Pickens sent his Secretary of State (Magrath) and Secretary of War (Jamieson) as commissioners to Anderson to make a formal demand for the immediate surrender of Fort Sumter to the authorities of South Carolina. They tried every art to persuade and alarm him, but in vain. He assured them that sooner than suffer such a humiliation he would fire the magazine and blow fort and garrison into the air. They perceived that the only hope of gaining possession of the fort was in an assault or the starvation of the garrison. That afternoon the authorities had four old hulks, filled with stones, towed into the ship-channel and sunk, to prevent reinforcements reaching Fort Sumter.

Anderson in Fort Sumter (1860). Anderson had long urged his government, but in vain, to strengthen the military works in Charleston harbor. The burden of the few replies was, "Be prudent; be kind; do nothing to excite the South Carolinians. It will not do to send you reinforcements, for that might bring on hostilities." At length he was satisfied that the Secessionists of South Carolina were about to attempt to seize Fort Sumter. This would insure the capture of all the other forts and his garrison, and he resolved to take position in Sumter before it should be too late. He was commander of all the defences of the harbor, and, in the absence of orders to the contrary, he might occupy any one he chose. Vigilant eyes were watching him. He revealed his secret to only three or four officers, for he did not know whom he might trust. He first removed the women and children, with a supply of provisions, to Fort Sumter. This was done by deceptive movements. They were sent first to Fort Johnson (December 26) in vessels, with an ample supply of provisions, where they were detained on board until evening, under the pretext of preparing accommodations for them. The firing of three guns at Moultrie was to be the signal for them to be conveyed to Sumter. In the edge of the evening the greater part of the garrison at Moultrie embarked for Sumter. The people of Charleston were aware of the women and children of the garrison being before Fort Johnson, and concluded Anderson was going there also with his troops. Then three signal guns were fired. The voyage was short and successful; and the little garrison of seventy men, with the women and children, and several weeks' provisions, were soon safe within the strong granite walls of Fort Sumter. A few officers and men had been left at Fort Moultrie to spike the guns, destroy their carriages, and cut down the flag-staff, when they were to follow to Sumter. The tidings of this movement fell among the Secessionists at Washington like a thunderbolt. Floyd was dismayed. Anderson was cool. The next day (Dec. 27, 1860), at noon, the stars and stripes were seen floating from the flag-staff of Sumter. The garrison wanted Anderson to hoist it at dawn. He would not do it until his chaplain, who had gone to the city, had returned. Around the flag-staff, not far from a great columbiad, the inmates of the fort were gathered. The commander, with the halliards in his hand, knelt at the foot of the staff. The chaplain prayed reverently for encouragement, support, and mercy; and when he ceased, an impressive "Amen" fell from many lips. Anderson then hoisted the flag to the head of the staff. It was greeted with cheer after cheer, and the band struck up "Hail Columbia!" Governor Pickens sent a message to Anderson demanding his immediate withdrawal from Fort Sumter. The demand was politely refused, and the Major was denounced in the Secession Convention, in the Legislature, in public and private assemblies, as a "traitor to the South," because he was a native of a slave-labor state. The Secessionists in Charleston and Washington were filled with rage. Floyd declared the "solemn pledges of the government" had been violated by Anderson, and he demanded of the President permission to with-

FORT SUMTER IN 1860.

draw the garrison from Charleston harbor. The President refused; a disruption of the Cabinet followed. Floyd fled; and Anderson received (December 31) from Secretary of War Holt—a Kentuckian like himself—an assurance of his approval of what he had done. (See *Disruption of the Cabinet.*) Earlier than this words of approval had reached Anderson. From the Legislature of Nebraska, two thousand miles away, a telegram said to him, "A happy New-Year!" Other greetings from the outside world came speedily; and a poet, in a parody on the dear old Scotch song of "John Anderson, my Jo," made "Miss Columbia" sing:

"Bob Anderson, my beau, Bob, when we were first aquent,
You were in Mex-i-co, Bob, because by order sent;
But now you are in Sumter, Bob, because you chose to go;
And blessings on you anyhow, Bob Anderson, my beau!

"Bob Anderson, my beau, Bob, I really don't know whether
I ought to like you so, Bob, considering that feather;
I don't like standing armies, Bob, as very well you know,
But *I love a man that dares to act*, Bob Anderson, my beau."

Governor Pickens, nettled by Anderson's refusal to give up Sumter, treated him as a public enemy within the domain of South Carolina. Armed South Carolinians had been sent to take possession of Fort Moultrie, where they found the works dismantled. When, the next morning, Anderson sent to inquire by what authority they were there, the commander replied, "By the authority of the sovereign State of South Carolina, and by command of her Governor." From that time until the close of President Buchanan's administration, and even longer, Major Anderson was compelled, by government policy, to see the insurgents gathering by thousands around Charleston, erecting fortifications within reach of his guns, and making every needful preparation for the destruction of Fort Sumter, without being allowed to fire a shot. Fort Sumter, then in perfect order, experienced some sad changes before the war was over. During the siege (see *Siege of Fort Sumter*) the barracks were all destroyed. By heavy cannonades and bombardments in 1863–64 it was reduced to a heap of ruins, as seen in the following engraving, and has not been rebuilt.

FORT SUMTER IN 1864.

Anderson, Major Robert, in Command in Charleston Harbor. In October, 1860, Secretary Floyd removed Colonel Gardiner from the command of the defences of Charleston harbor because he attempted to increase his supply of ammunition, and Major Robert Anderson, a native of Kentucky, was appointed to succeed him. He arrived there on the 20th, and was satisfied, by the tone of conversation and feeling in Charleston, and by the military drills going on, that a revolution was to be inaugurated there. He communicated his suspicions to Adjutant-general Cooper, a native of Duchess County, N.Y., who had married Senator Mason's sister. In that letter Anderson announced to the government the weakness of the forts in Charleston harbor, and urged the necessity of immediately strengthening them. He told the Secretary of War that Fort Moultrie, his headquarters, was so weak as to invite attack. "Fort Sumter and Castle Pinckney," he said, "must be garrisoned immediately, if the government determines to keep command of this harbor." Fort Sumter, he said, had forty thousand pounds of cannon powder and other ammunition, but was lying completely at the mercy of insurgents. He informed the secretary of evident preparations for a speedy seizure of the defences of the harbor by South Carolinians. Anderson continued his appeals, not suspecting that the chief of the War Department was plotting for the destruction of his government, or that Adjutant-general Cooper, his medium of communication with the department, was in secret league with his chief. Rumors of this condition of things in Charleston caused loyal members of Congress to ask for information; but all such inquiries were suppressed by Floyd's friends in both Houses, and no correct information could be obtained about affairs connected with the War Department until that officer withdrew and Joseph Holt, a loyal man, occupied his place. The Secessionists discovered Anderson to be too loyal for their purpose, and they began to fear he might reveal some startling things to General Scott, to whom all subordinate officers had to report. Scott, aware of the weakness of the Southern forts, urged the government from time to time, from October until the close of December, to reinforce those on the coasts of the slave-labor states. But nothing was done, and Anderson, left to his own resources, was compelled to assume grave responsibilities. He began to strengthen Castle Pinckney, near the city, and Fort Moultrie. When the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession had passed, menaces became more frequent and alarming. He knew that the convention had appointed commissioners to repair to Washington and demand the surrender of the forts in Charleston harbor, and he was conscious that the latter were liable to be attacked at any moment. He knew, too, that if he should remain in Fort Moultrie, their efforts would be successful. Watch-boats were out continually spying his movements. He had applied to government for instructions, but received none, and he determined to leave Fort Moultrie with his garrison and take post in stronger Fort Sumter. This he did on the evening of December 26. (See *Anderson in Fort Sumter.*) The vigilance of the Secessionists had been eluded. They, amazed, telegraphed to Floyd. The latter, by telegraph, ordered Anderson to explain his conduct in acting without orders. Anderson calmly replied that it was done to save the government works. In Sumter, he was a thorn in the flesh of the Secessionists. Finally they attacked him, and, after a furious bombardment, the fort was evacuated by Major Anderson in April, 1861. (See *Fall of Fort Sumter.*)

Anderson, Richard H., was born in South Carolina about 1822, and graduated at West Point in 1842. He served in the war with Mexico; and in March, 1861, he left the army and became a brigadier-general in the Confederate service. He was wounded at Antietam; commanded a division at Gettysburg; and was made lieutenant-general in May, 1864.

Anderson, Robert, defender of Fort Sumter in 1861, was born near Louisville, Ky., June 14, 1805; died at Nice, France, Oct. 26, 1871. He was a graduate of West Point Military Academy, and entered the artillery. He was instructor for a while at West Point. He served in the Black Hawk War (1832), and in Florida. In May, 1838, he became assistant adjutant-general on the staff of General Scott, and accompanied that officer in his campaign in Mexico, where he was severely wounded in the battle of Molino del Rey (which see). In 1857 he was commissioned major of artillery, and assumed command of the fortifications of Charleston harbor in November, 1860. As a precautionary measure of safety, he transferred the garrison of Fort Moultrie to Fort Sumter on the night of Dec. 26, 1860. (See *Anderson in Fort Sumter.*) There he was besieged by South Carolina insurgents until near the middle of April, 1861, when he and the garrison evacuated the fort. (See *Sumter, Evacuation of.*) In May, 1861, he was appointed brigadier-general in the U. S. Army, and commander of the Department of the Cumberland, but failing health caused him to retire from the service. In 1868 he went to Europe for the benefit of his health, where he died in 1871. His remains are buried at West Point.

ROBERT ANDERSON.

Andersonville and other Confederate Prisons. Libby, Belle Isle, and Danville prisons, in Virginia; Salisbury prison in North Carolina; Andersonville and Millen prisons in Georgia; and Charleston, in South Carolina, were the principal places of confinement of Union prisoners during the Civil War. In these prisons the captives sometimes endured the most terrible sufferings from cold, hunger, filth, and cruel personal treatment. Libby prison had six rooms, each one hundred feet in length and forty in breadth. (See *Libby Prison.*) At one time these held twelve hundred Union officers of every grade, from a lieutenant to a brigadier-general. They were allowed no other place in which to cook, eat, wash and dry their clothes and their persons, sleep, and take exercise. Ten feet by two feet was all the space each man might claim. Their money, watches, and sometimes part of their clothing were taken from them when they went in. For a long time they were not allowed a seat of any kind to sit upon. The board floors, on which they slept, were washed every afternoon, and were damp at night, causing many to become consumptive and die. The glasses in the numerous windows were mostly broken, and they suffered intensely from cold in winter, for they were allowed only one blanket each, and these in time became ragged, filthy, and filled with vermin. Turner, a lieutenant of General Winder, the commissary of prisoners, seemed to make cruelty his study. He ordered that no one should go within three feet of a window. A violation of the rule gave license to the guard to shoot the offender. Sometimes an officer would accidentally break the rule, and he would be shot, for the guard seemed to take pleasure in the sport of "shooting Yankees." The prisoners were also deliberately starved. The process of slow starvation began in the fall of 1863, and was so general and uniform in all the prisons that, according to a report of a committee of the Sanitary Commission, there can be no doubt of its having been done by direct orders from the Confederate leaders at Richmond. This starvation was done when, as has been proved, there was abundance of food at the command of their jailers. Boxes of food and clothing, sent to the prisoners from their friends at the North, were denied them after the beginning of January, 1864, because, it is alleged, these interfered with the starvation scheme. (See *Prisoners, Exchange of.*) "Three hundred boxes," said the report, "arrived every week, and were received by Ould, the commissioner of exchange, but, instead of being distributed, were retained, and piled up in a warehouse near by. . . . The officers were permitted to send out and buy articles at extravagant prices, and would find the clothes, stationery, hams, and butter, which they had purchased, bearing the marks of the Sanitary Commission." Over three thousand boxes were sent to the captives in Libby prison, and on Belle Isle, in the James River near by, which were withheld from the sufferers. The writer saw a large number of them stored near the prison immediately after the evacuation of Richmond. The treatment of the prisoners in the Libby was no worse than in other prisons, nor nearly so bad as on Belle Isle and at Andersonville. That island is in the James River, in front of Richmond, containing a few acres. A part of it was a grassy bluff, with a few trees, and a part was a low sandy barren, a few feet above the surface of the river, which there flows swiftly. In the scorching summer sun the prisoners were kept on the open sand-barren, and never allowed to touch the cool grass or feel the grateful shade of the trees—a spot a few yards off—which appeared to them like heaven, in comparison with the spot on which they were suffering. The barren spot, about five acres, was surrounded by earthworks, and guarded by Confederate soldiers. There, without shelter, though lumber was plentiful, near eleven thousand captives were, at one time, crowded into that bleak space of five acres. The winter of 1863–64 was one of the severest ever experienced in the South, but no shelter was provided for the captives. The mercury sank to zero, and snow lay deep on the ground around Richmond. Ice formed in the river, and water left in buckets on the island froze two or three inches in thickness in a single night. To keep from perishing, the captives lay in the ditches on top of each other, taking turns as to who should have the outside. The report of the committee informs us, that "in the morning the row of the previous night could be marked by the motionless forms of those who were sleeping on in their last sleep—*frozen to death!*" There, likewise, the prisoners were starved. "The cold froze them," said the report, "because they were hungry; the hunger consumed them, because they were cold." Hundreds of benevolent women nursed the Confederate sick and wounded in Northern prisons and hospitals; *not one was ever seen upon Belle Isle while the Union captives were there.* At Andersonville, Ga., the sufferings of the captives were still more acute and dreadful, and the cruelties practised upon them were more fearful. The prison was one open pen, in an unhealthy locality, near Anderson Station, about sixty miles from Macon, and surrounded by the most fertile region of the state. The site was selected, it is said, at the suggestion of Howell Cobb, the commander of the district. It comprised twenty-seven acres of land, with a swamp in the centre. A sluggish and choked stream crawled through it, while within rifle-shot distance flowed a brook of pure, delicious water, fifteen feet wide and three feet deep. Had that stream been included in the pen, the prisoners might have drunk and bathed. The spot selected for the pen was covered with pine-trees. These were cut down. When some one suggested that the shade would alleviate the sufferings of the prisoners, Captain M. S. Winder, son of the commissary of prisoners at Richmond, declared that they were to be intentionally deprived of that comfort. The pen was a quadrangle, with two rows of stockades from twelve to eighteen feet in height; and seventeen feet from the inner stockade was the "dead-line," over which no captive could pass and live. It is unnecessary to detail the cruelties suffered here by Union prisoners. Suffice it to say that unimpeachable testimony proves that they were far more malignant and intense than at Libby or Belle Isle. They were worse after the elder Winder arrived. (See *Prisoners, Exchange of.*) At one time more than thirty thousand human beings were crowded into that awful prison-pen, sometimes smitten by the hot sun, at other times flooded with filthy water; exposed to frost and heat; to the bullets of guards in wanton sport; beaten, bruised, and cursed; driven to madness and idiocy; starved into skeletons; and worse than all, tortured by the false declaration of their jailers that their government had forsaken them, leaving them no other relief from misery but in death. To almost 13,000 of these sufferers that everlasting relief came. The graves of 12,462 of the victims tell the dreadful tale. Of these, only about 450 are unknown. (See *Report of a Committee of the United States Sanitary Commission.*)

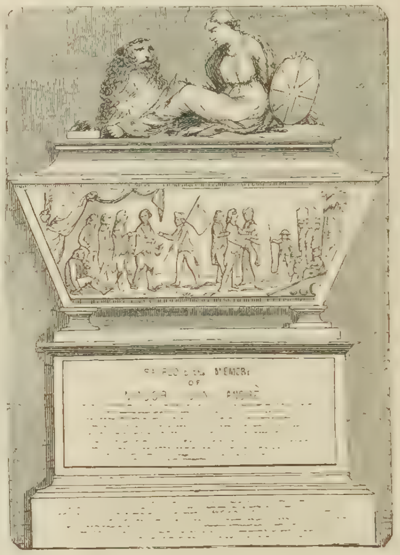
The prison records show that the

Total number of prisoners received at Andersonville was	49,485
Largest number in prison at one time, Aug. 9, 1864	33,006
Total number of deaths as shown by hospital register	12,462
“ “ “ in hospital	8,735
“ “ “ in a stockade near	3,727
Percentage of deaths to whole number received	26
“ “ to whole number admitted to hospital	69 12-17
Average number of deaths for each of the thirteen months	958
Largest number of deaths in one day, Aug. 23, 1864	97
Cases returned from hospital to stockade	3,469
Total number of escapes	328

The method of burial in the graveyard, a short distance from the stockade and prison-pen, was by digging trenches varying in length from fifty to one hundred yards, in which the bodies were laid in rows of one hundred to three hundred, without coffins or the ordinary clothing, with an allowance of space for each body of not more than twelve inches in width, and then covered with earth. Henry Wirz, a Swiss by birth, was appointed by General Winder as superintendent of the prison and prisoners. In the summer of 1865, he was tried on numerous charges of the most horrid cruelties towards the prisoners at Andersonville. He was found guilty of all the charges, and hanged in November. It was proved that in a small hut between the stockade and the graveyard he kept nine bloodhounds to hunt down prisoners who should attempt to escape.

André, John, born in London, in 1751; died in Rockland County, N.Y., Oct. 2, 1780. He was the son of a Genevan, who was a merchant in London. After receiving an education at Geneva, young André returned, and entered a mercantile house in London when he was eighteen years of age. He was a youth of great genius—painted well and wrote poetry with fluency. His literary tastes brought to him the acquaintance of literary people. Among these was the poetess Anna Seward, of Lichfield, to whose cousin, Honora Sneyd, André became warmly attached. They were betrothed, but their youth caused a postponement of their nuptials, and André entered the army and came to America, in 1774, as lieutenant of the Royal Fusileers. With them, in Canada, he was taken prisoner by Montgomery, at St. Johns (Nov. 2, 1775), and was sent to Lancaster, Penn. In December, 1776, he was exchanged, and promoted to captain in the British army. He was appointed aid to General Grey in the summer of 1777, and on the departure of that officer he was placed on the staff of Sir Henry Clinton, by whom he was promoted (1780) to the rank of major, and appointed adjutant-general of the British forces in America. His talents were appreciated, and whenever taste was to be displayed in any arrangements, the matter was left to André. He was the chief actor in promoting and arranging the Mischianza (which see), and took a principal part in all private theatrical performances. Sir Henry employed him to carry on the correspondence with Arnold respecting the betrayal of his country. Having held a personal interview with the traitor (see *Arnold's Treason*), he was returning to New York on horseback, when he was arrested, near Tarrytown, conveyed to Tappan, in Rockland County, nearly opposite, tried as a spy, and was condemned and executed, Oct. 2, 1780. André carried in his bosom, it is said, through all his vicissitudes in America, a miniature of his "beloved Honora," which he had painted at Lichfield during their wooing. She had married the father of Maria Edgeworth, the novelist, and died before the death of André occurred.

JOHN ANDRE.


ANDRÉ'S MONUMENT IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

The latter wrote poems for the loyal papers in America. One of these — "The Cow-Chace" (which see) — has become famous in history. The king caused a handsome monument to be placed in Westminster Abbey to the memory of André. It seems to be quite out of place among the "worthies" of England, for he was hung as a spy, and was a plotter for the ruin of a people struggling for justice. Nor did he have the prestige of a spotless private character. But his monarch honored him for an attempted State service, knighted his brother, and pensioned his family. His remains were at first interred at the place of his execution. and in 1821 were exhumed and conveyed to England, where they rest near his monument in the abbey.

André, Major, Fate of. The story of Major John André's career, in connection with the complot of Sir Henry Clinton and General Benedict Arnold, occupies a conspicuous place in our history, and sympathy for the offender, not unmixed with denunciations of the court of inquiry that condemned him, have been abundant, and not always wise or just. The court that condemned him saw clearly, by his own confession, that he deserved the fate of a spy; and if they had been swayed by other motives than those of justice and the promotion of the public good, they had full justification in the course of the British officers in pursuit of the British policy towards the Americans. Scores of good men, not guilty of any offence but love of country and defence of their rights, had been hanged by the positive orders of Cornwallis in the South; and Sir Henry Clinton himself, who ungenerously attributed the act of the board of inquiry in condemning André, and of Washington in approving the sentence, to "personal rancor," for which no cause existed, had approved of tenfold more "inhumanity" in the acts of his subordinates. One of them wrote to Clinton, "I have ordered, in the most positive manner, that every militiaman who has borne arms with us, and afterwards joined the enemy, shall be immediately hanged." This included all officers and men, even those, as in South Carolina, where this subaltern was serving, who had been *forced* into the royal service. This order Clinton approved, and sent it to Secretary Germain. That secretary answered Clinton's letter, saying, "The most disaffected will now be convinced that we are not afraid to punish." The order was vigorously executed. Men of great worth and purity were hanged, without the forms of a trial, for bearing arms in defence of their liberties; André was hanged, after an impartial trial, for the crime of plotting and abetting a scheme for the enslavement of three million people. He deserved his fate according to the laws of war. It was just towards him and merciful to a nation. Cicero justly said, in regard to Catiline, "Mercy towards a traitor is an injury to the State." André was treated with great consideration by Washington, whose headquarters at Tappan (yet standing in 1879) were near the place of his trial. The commander-in-chief supplied the former with all needed refreshments for his table. Washington did not have a personal interview with André, but treated him as leniently as the rules of war would allow.

WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT TAPPAN.

Andrew, JOHN ALBION, LL.D., was governor of Massachusetts. He was born at Windham, Me., May 31, 1818; died in Boston, Mass., Oct. 30, 1867. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1837, and became conspicuous as an anti-slavery advocate. He was chosen Governor of Massachusetts, in 1860, by the largest popular vote ever cast for any candidate for that office. Foreseeing a conflict with the Secessionists, he took means to make the state militia efficient; and, within a week after the President's call for troops, he sent five regiments of infantry, a battalion of riflemen, and a battery of artillery to the assistance of the government. He was active in raising troops during the war and providing for their comfort. An eloquent orator, his voice was very efficacious. He was re-elected in 1862, and declined to be a candidate in 1864.

Andrews, GEORGE L., was born at Bridgewater, Mass., in 1827, and graduated at West Point in 1851, entering the engineer corps. He resigned in 1855. He was first lieutenant-colonel and then colonel of the Second Massachusetts regiment, and led it with distinction, first in the Shenandoah Valley, and then under Pope in his campaign in August, 1862. He was made brigadier-general in November of that year, and led a brigade in Banks's expedition in Louisiana and against Port Hudson in 1863. From July, 1863, to February, 1865, he commanded the "Corps d'Afrique," and assisted in the capture of Mobile, for which he was breveted major-general of volunteers. He was appointed professor of French at West Point early in 1871.

Andros, RECEPTION OF, IN NEW YORK. In the spring of 1688 the clear-headed and right-minded Governor Dongan, of New York, was superseded by Sir Edmund Andros, who was called "the tyrant of New England." He entered New York City early in August, with a viceregal commission to rule that province in connection with all New England. He had journeyed from Boston, and was received by Colonel Bayard's regiment of foot and horse. He was entertained by the loyal aristocracy. In the midst of the rejoicings, news came that the queen, the second wife of James II., had given birth to a son, who became heir to the throne. The event was celebrated, on the evening of the day of the arrival of the intelligence, by bonfires in the streets and a feast at the City Hall. At the latter, Mayor Van Cortlandt became so hilarious that he made a notable display of his loyalty to the Stuarts by setting fire to his hat and periwig, and waving the burning coverings of his head over the banquet on the point of his straight-sword. A few months later James and Andros were both driven from power, and a great political change came over New York. (See *Revolution in England.*)

Andros, SIR EDMUND, born in London, Dec. 6, 1637; died there Feb. 24, 1714. His father was an officer of the royal household, and Edmund was reared amidst the corruptions of a court. He accompanied the royal family in exile. He was commissioned a Major in Prince Rupert's dragoons when quite young, and in 1674 succeeded his father as bailiff of Guernsey Island. In the same year he was appointed governor of the province of New York, and received the surrender of it by the Dutch in fulfilment of a treaty. Andros was destined to play an important part in our history. He was a favorite of the Duke of York, an excellent Dutch and French scholar, a thorough royalist, and an obedient servant of his superiors. He administered public affairs wholly in the interest of his master. His private life was unblemished; but such was his public career that he acquired the title of "tyrant." The duke, his master, was a strange compound of wickedness and goodness—slow to perceive right from wrong, and seldom seeing the truth in its purity—and the public career of Andros reflected that of his employer. Sometimes he exceeded his instructions, and became involved in serious disputes with the colonists. In 1680 he deposed Philip Carteret, and seized the government of East Jersey. The next year he was recalled, and retired to Guernsey, after having cleared himself of several charges preferred against him. The New England governments were consolidated in 1686, and Andros was appointed governor-general. Under instructions, he forbade all printing in those colonies. He was authorized to appoint and remove his own council, and with their consent to enact laws, levy taxes, and control the militia. These privileges were exercised in a despotic manner, and his government became odious. He attempted to seize the Charter of Connecticut, but failed. (See *Charter of Connecticut.*) New York and New Jersey were added to his jurisdiction in 1688, but his rule over them was brief. He appointed Francis Nicholson lieutenant-governor over the two latter provinces. When news of the successful revolution in England reached Boston, the people seized Andros and several of his officers (April 18, 1689), and imprisoned them, and the New England colonies resumed their former governments under their charters. (See *Revolution in England.*) In July following he was sent to England by royal order, with a committee of his accusers, but was acquitted without a formal trial. Andros was appointed governor of Virginia in 1692, where he became popular; but, through the influence of Commissary Blair, he was removed in 1698. In 1704–6 he was Governor of Guernsey. (See *Downfall of Andros.*)

Anglican Church ESTABLISHED IN MARYLAND. (See *Revolution in Maryland.*)

Anglican Church Establishment ABOLISHED IN VIRGINIA, 1776. When the state government of Virginia was organized, the Presbytery of Hanover demanded the abolition of the Anglican Church Establishment in Virginia, and the civil equality of every denomination. In this demand the Quakers and Baptists joined. There was a contest over the question for eight weeks in the Legislature, when the measure was carried, largely by the activity and influence of Jefferson. In that assembly there was a majority of Protestant Episcopalians.

Annapolis (Maryland). Puritan refugees from Massachusetts, led by Durand, a ruling elder, settled on the site of Annapolis in 1649, and, in imitation of Roger Williams, called the place Providence. The next year a commissioner of Lord Baltimore organized there the county of Anne Arundel, so named in compliment to Lady Baltimore, and Providence was called Anne Arundel Town. A few years later it again bore the name of Providence, and became the seat of Protestant influence and of a Protestant government, disputing the legislative authority with the Roman Catholic government at the ancient capitol, St. Mary's. In 1694 the latter was abandoned as the capital of the province, and the seat of government was established on the Severn. The village was finally incorporated a city, and named Annapolis, in honor of Queen Anne. It has remained the permanent political capital of Maryland. It was distinguished for the refinement and wealth of its inhabitants and extensive commerce, being a port of entry long before the foundations of Baltimore were laid. It is the seat of the U. S. Naval Academy, established there in 1845. The only remaining traces of the ancient capital (St. Mary's) are the ruins of a brick church.

Annapolis, CONGRESS AT. On April 14, 1755, General Braddock and Commodore Keppel, with governors Shirley of Massachusetts, De Lancey of New York, Morris of Pennsylvania, Sharpe of Maryland, and Dinwiddie of Virginia, held a Congress at Annapolis. Braddock had lately arrived as commander-in-chief of the British forces in America. Under his instructions, he first of all directed the attention of the government to the necessity of raising a revenue in America. He expressed astonishment that no such fund was already established. The governors told him of their strifes with their respective assemblies, and assured Braddock that no such fund could ever be established in the colonies without the aid of Parliament. The Congress then resolved unanimously that it was the opinion of its members that it should be proposed to his majesty's ministers to "find out some method of compelling" the colonists to establish such a public fund, and for assessing the several governments in proportion to their respective abilities. At once all the crown officers in America sent voluminous letters to England, urging such a measure upon the government. (See *Crown Officers' Claims for Taxes.*)

Annapolis, CONVENTION AT. On July 26, 1775, a convention assembled at Annapolis, in Maryland, and formed a temporary government, which, recognizing the Continental Congress as invested with a general supervision of public affairs, managed its own internal affairs through a provincial Committee of Safety and subordinate executive committees, appointed in every county, parish, or hundred. It directed the enrolment of forty companies of minutemen, authorized the emission of over $500,000 in bills of credit, and extended the franchise to all freemen having a visible estate of £210, without any distinction as to religious belief. The convention fully resolved to sustain Massachusetts, and meet force by force if necessary.

Annapolis, DESTRUCTION OF TEA AT. No tea-ship had ever entered the port of Annapolis, in Maryland, but the Republicans there felt and expressed strong sympathy with the acts of the Sons of Liberty in Boston. On the morning of Oct. 15, 1774, a vessel owned by Anthony Stewart, of Annapolis, entered the port with seventeen packages of tea among her cargo, assigned to Stewart. When this became known, and that Stewart had paid the duty on the tea, the people gathered, and resolved that the plant should not be landed. Another meeting was appointed, and the people declared that the ship and her cargo should be burned. Stewart disclaimed all intention to violate non-importation agreements, but the people were inexorable. They had gathered in large numbers from the surrounding country. Charles Carroll and others, fearing mob violence, advised Stewart to burn the vessel and cargo with his own hands, which he did. The vessel was run ashore and destroyed, when the people cheered and dispersed. This was the last attempt at importation of tea into the English-American colonies.

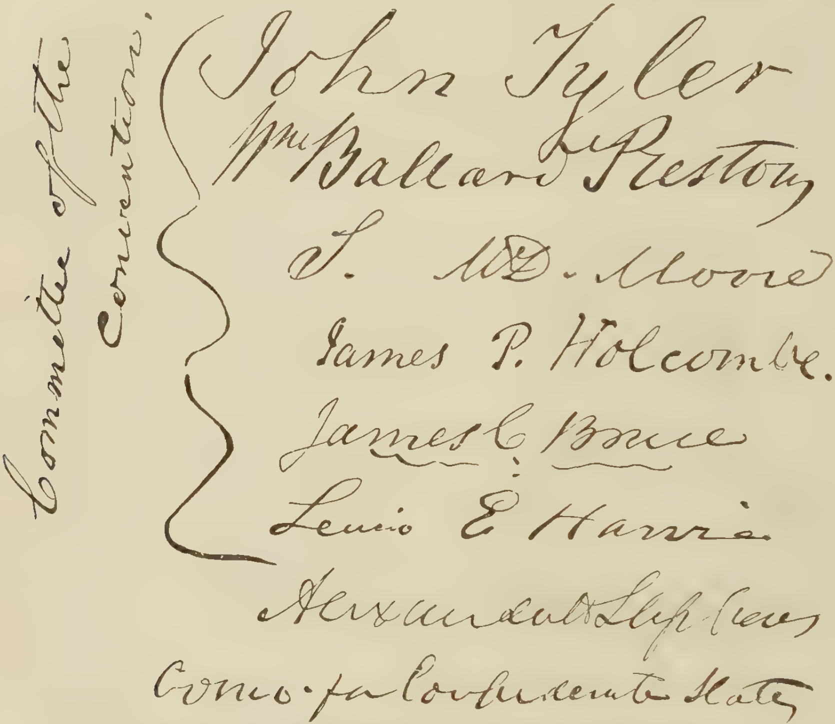
Anné, QUEEN, second daughter of James II. of England, born at Twickenham, near London, Feb. 6, 1664; died Aug. 1, 1714. Her parents became Roman Catholics; but she, educated in the principles of the Church of England, remained a Protestant. In 1683 she was married to Prince George of Denmark. She took the side of her sister Mary and her husband in the revolution that drove her father from the throne. She had intended to accompany her father in his exile to France, but was dissuaded by Sarah Churchill, chief lady of the bed-chamber (afterwards the imperious Duchess of Marlborough), for whom she always had a romantic attachment. By the act of settlement at the accession of William and Mary, the crown was guaranteed to her in default of issue to these sovereigns. This exigency happening, Anné was proclaimed queen (March 8, 1702) on the death of William. Of her seventeen children, only one lived beyond infancy—Duke of Gloucester—who died at the age of eleven years. Feeble in character, but very amiable, Anné's reign became a conspicuous one in English history, for she was governed by some able ministers, and she was surrounded by eminent literary men. Her reign has been called the "Augustan age of English literature." The Duke of Marlborough, the husband of her bosom friend, was one of her greatest military leaders. A greater part of her reign was occupied in the prosecution of the *War of the Spanish Succession*, known in America as "Queen Anné's War." It was ended by the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. (See *Queen Anné's War*.) She died childless at the age of fifty years.

QUEEN ANNÉ.

Annexation of Plymouth to Massachusetts. In 1691 the people of Plymouth sent an agent to England to solicit a separate patent; but, to their mortification, they were included under the new royal charter for Massachusetts (which see). The Plymouth colony had been an independent commonwealth then for seventy-one years.

Annexation of Texas. The Southern people were anxious to have the State of Texas annexed to the United States, and such a desire was a prevailing feeling in that sovereign state. The proposition, when formally made, was opposed by the people of the North, because the annexation would increase the area and political strength of the slave-power, and lead to a war with Mexico. But the matter was persisted in by the South, and, with the approbation of President Tyler, a treaty to that effect was signed at Washington City, April 12, 1844, by Mr. Calhoun, Secretary of State, and Messrs. Van Zandt and Henderson on the part of Texas. It was rejected by the Senate in June following. The project was presented at the next session of Congress in the form of a joint resolution. It had been made a leading political question at the presidential election in the autumn of 1844. James K. Polk had been nominated over Mr. Van Buren, because he was in favor of the annexation. The joint resolution was adopted March 1, 1845, and received the assent of President Tyler the next day. On the last day of his term of office he sent a message to the Texas government, with a copy of the joint resolutions of Congress in favor of annexation. These were considered by a convention in Texas, called for the purpose of forming a state constitution. That body approved the measure (July 4, 1845), and on that day Texas became one of the states of the Union.

Annexation of Virginia to the Confederate States. The Virginia Convention appointed ex-President John Tyler, W. Ballard Preston, S. M. D. Moore, James P. Holcombe, James C. Bruce, and Levi E. Harvie, commissioners to treat with Alexander H. Stephens, Vice-President of the Confederate States of America, for the annexation of Virginia to that Southern league. Mr. Stephens was clothed with full power to make a treaty to that effect. It was then a capital plan of the Secessionists to seize the national capital; and at several places on his way towards Richmond, where he harangued the people, he raised the cry of "On to Washington!" Troops were pressing towards that goal from the South. He was received in Richmond, by the authorities of every kind, with assurances that his mission would be successful. The Virginia leaders were eager for the consummation of the treaty before the people should vote on the Ordinance of Secession (see *Virginia, Ordinance of Secession*); and on Stephens's arrival he and the Virginia commissioners entered upon their prescribed duties. On April 24, 1861, they agreed to and signed a "Convention between the Commonwealth of Virginia and the Confederate States of America," which provided that, until the union of Virginia with the league should be perfected, "the whole military force and military operations, offensive and defensive, of said commonwealth in the impending conflict with the United States, should be under the chief control and direction of the President of the Confederate States." On the following day (April 25) the convention passed an ordinance ratifying the treaty, and adopting and ratifying the "Provisional Constitution of the Confederate States of America." On the same day, John Tyler telegraphed to Governor Pickens of South Carolina, "We are fellow-citizens once more. By an ordinance passed this day Virginia has adopted the Provisional Government of the Confederate States." They also proceeded to appoint delegates to the Confederate Congress; authorized the banks of the state to suspend specie payment; made provision for the establishment of a navy for Virginia, and for enlistments for the state army, and adopted other preparations for war. They also invited the "Confederate States" government to make Richmond its headquarters. The proclamation of the annexation was immediately put forth by John Letcher, the governor of Virginia. All this was done almost a month before the people of Virginia were allowed to vote on secession.



Committee of the Convention

John Tyler
Wm Ballard Preston
S. McD. Moore
James P. Holcombe.
James C. Bruce
Lewis E. Harvie
Alexander H. Stephens
Commr. for Confederate States

SIGNATURES OF THE COMMISSIONERS OF VIRGINIA AND THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY.

Anthon, CHARLES, LL.D., was born in New York, 1797; died there, July 29, 1867. His father, a surgeon-general in the British army, settled in New York soon after the Revolution. Charles graduated at Columbia College in 1815, was admitted to the bar, and in 1820 was made professor of languages in his alma mater. Professor Anthon was the author of many books connected with classical studies. He was made the head of the classical department of the college as successor of Professor Moore in 1835, having served as rector of the grammar-school of the college for five years. Professor Anthon was very methodical in his habits. He retired at ten o'clock and rose at four, and performed much of his appointed day's work before breakfast. By industry he produced about fifty volumes, consisting chiefly of the Latin classics and aids to classical study. All of his works were republished in England. His larger works are a *Classical Dictionary*, and a *Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities*. When he was made rector of the grammar-school he conferred on the public schools of his native city six free scholarships.

Anti-blockade Proclamation (1814). On April 25, 1814, Admiral Cochrane declared the whole coast of the United States in a state of blockade. On June 29 the President of the United States issued a proclamation declaring the blockade proclaimed by the British of the whole coast of the United States, nearly two thousand miles in extent, to be incapable of being carried into effect by any adequate force actually stationed for the purpose. It declared that it formed no lawful prohibition or obstacle to such neutral or friendly vessels as might desire to visit and trade with the United States; and all pirates, armed vessels, or letters-of-marque and reprisal (which see), were warned not to interfere with or molest any vessels, belonging to neutral powers, bound to any port or place within the jurisdiction of the United States.

Anti-Masonic Party. In 1826 William Morgan, a citizen of western New York, announced his intention to publish a book in which the secrets of Freemasonry were to be disclosed. It was printed at Batavia, N. Y. On Sept. 11 Morgan was seized at Batavia, upon a criminal charge, by a company of men who came from Canandaigua. He was taken to that place, tried, and acquitted on the criminal charge, but was immediately arrested on a civil process for a trifling debt. He was cast into jail there, and the next night was discharged by those who procured his arrest, taken from prison at nine o'clock at night, and at the door was seized and thrust into a carriage in waiting, which was driven rapidly towards Rochester. He was taken by relays of horses, by the agency of several individuals, to Fort Niagara, at the mouth of the Niagara River, and deposited in the powder magazine there. It was known that the Freemasons had made violent attempts to suppress Morgan's announced book, and this outrage was charged upon the fraternity. A committee was appointed, at a public meeting held at Batavia, to endeavor to ferret out the perpetrators of the outrage. They found evidences of the existence of what they believed to be an extended conspiracy, with many agents and powerful motives. Similar meetings were held elsewhere. Public excitement became very great and widespread; and a strong feeling soon pervaded the public mind that the masonic institution was responsible for the crime. The profound mystery in which the affair was involved gave wings to a thousand absurd rumors. Mutual criminations and recriminations became very violent, and entered into all the religious, social, and political relations. A very strong anti-masonic party was soon created, at first only social in its character, but soon it became political. This feature of the party first appeared at town-meetings in the spring of 1827, where it was resolved that no mason was worthy to receive the votes of freemen. A political party for the exclusion of masons from public offices was soon spread over the State of New York and into several other states, and ran its course for several years. In 1832 a National Anti-masonic Convention was held at Philadelphia, in which several states were represented, and William Wirt, of Virginia, was nominated for the office of President of the United States. Although the party polled a considerable vote, it soon afterwards disappeared. The fate of Morgan after he reached the magazine at Fort Niagara was never positively revealed, but circumstances make it pretty certain that he was taken from the magazine into a boat by some men, and, at the mouth of the Niagara River, was cast into the water and drowned.

Anti-Rentism. After the old war for independence, when the laws of primogeniture were abolished, a large portion of the lands of the settled parts of the State of New York was held by the patroons, and the cultivators of the estates occupied farms on leases for one or more lives, or from year to year, stipulating for the payment of rents, dues, and services, somewhat after the manner of the old feudal tenures in England and Holland. (See *Patroons.*) These feudal tenures having been abolished, the proprietors of manor grants contrived a form of deed by which the grantees agreed to pay rents and dues almost precisely as before. This tenure became burdensome and odious to the tillers; and in 1839 associations of farmers were formed for the purpose of devising a scheme of relief from the burdens. The movement was soon known as *anti-rentism*, and speedily manifested itself in open resistance to the service of legal processes for the collecting of manorial rents. The first overt act of lawlessness that attracted public attention was in the town of Grafton, Rensselaer County, where a band of anti-renters, disguised, killed a man, yet the criminal was never discovered. In 1841 and 1842 Governor Seward in his messages recommended the reference of the alleged grievances and matters in dispute on both sides to arbitrators, and appointed three men to investigate and report to the Legislature. Nothing was accomplished, and the disaffection increased. So rampant was the insubordination to law in Delaware County that Governor Wright, in 1845, recommended legislation for its suppression, and he declared the county in a state of insurrection. Finally, the trial and conviction of a few persons for conspiracy and resistance to law, and their confinement in the state prison, caused a cessation of all operations by masked bands. There was so much public sympathy manifested for the cause of the anti-renters that the associations determined to form a political party favorable to their cause. It succeeded in 1842, and several years afterwards, in electing one eighth of the Legislature who favored the anti-renters; and in 1846 a clause was inserted in the revised constitution of the state abolishing all feudal tenures and incidents, and forbidding the leasing of agricultural lands for a longer term than twelve years. The same year Governor Wright, who was a candidate for re-election as chief magistrate, was defeated by ten thousand majority given to John Young, the anti-rent candidate, who afterwards released all offenders of the law who were in prison. The excitement gradually subsided, and only in courts of law were the anti-rent associations actively seen. The last proprietor of the Van Rensselaer manor sold his interests in his lands a few years ago to a judicious person who made amicable arrangements with all the tenants for the rent, sale, and purchase of the farms.

Anti-Slavery Champions in Massachusetts (1766). While the public mind was agitated and absorbed by the political questions of the day at the time of the repeal of the Stamp Act (which see), some reflecting persons had been struck with the inconsistency of contending for one's own liberty while depriving others of theirs. A controversy arose in 1766 as to the justice and legality of negro slavery, in which Nathaniel Appleton and James Swan, merchants of Boston, distinguished themselves as writers on the side of human liberty. Opposing writers generally concealed their names, but were promptly answered. This controversy was renewed from time to time until 1773, when it became so warm that it was a subject for disputations at Harvard College. The Assembly of Massachusetts made repeated attempts to restrict the further importation of negroes into the province, but the governors interposed their vetoes. The question whether any person could be held as a slave in Massachusetts was carried before the Supreme Court in a suit by a negro to recover wages from his alleged master. The negroes collected money among themselves to carry on the suit, and it was decided in favor of the alleged slave. Other suits were instituted between that time and the Revolution, and the jurors invariably gave their verdicts in favor of freedom. The colored people placed their arguments on the broad basis of the royal charter of the province, which expressly declared "*all* persons born or residing in the province to be as free as the subjects of the king in Great Britain," and the declaration of Judge Holt, that a "slave cannot breathe in England"—in other words, that as soon as a slave should set his foot on English soil he is free by the law which makes it impossible for slavery to exist there. (See *Holt's Decision* and *Slaves in England*.)

Anti-Slavery Resolutions, FIRST, IN CONGRESS. Rufus King, delegate in Congress from Massachusetts, proposed (March 16, 1787) to modify the report on the Western Territory, already accepted, by inserting in it a total and immediate prohibition of slavery. This was the first proposition for the abolition of slavery laid before Congress. The motion was referred to a committee by a vote of eight states. (See *Northwestern Territory*.)

Anti-Slavery Societies. The system of slavery was opposed by many of the best men and women at the beginning of the Revolution on economic and moral grounds, particularly in the Northern and Eastern States, where it was not so prevalent and apparently indispensable as in the Southern States. The first society established for promoting a public sentiment in favor of the abolition of slavery was formed in Philadelphia on April 14, 1775, with Dr. Franklin as president, and Dr. Benjamin Rush as secretary. John Jay was the first president of a society for the same purpose formed in New York, Jan. 25, 1785, and called the "New York Manumission Society." The Society of Friends or Quakers always opposed slavery, and were a perpetual and active abolition society, presenting to the National Congress the first petition on the subject. Other abolition societies followed in other parts of the Union. A society was formed in Ohio in 1815 by a zealous citizen named Lundy (see *First Abolition Newspaper*); and in 1831 the subject was vehemently revived by the publication, begun in Boston that year, of the *Liberator*, by William Lloyd Garrison. It denounced slave-holding as "a sin against God and a crime against humanity." With such sentiments Arnold Buffum (a Quaker) and eleven others formed an anti-slavery society in Boston in 1832. This was followed in 1833 by the formation in Philadelphia of the "American Anti-Slavery Society," which existed until after the civil war that destroyed the institution of slavery.

Antietam Creek, BATTLE OF. After the surrender of Harper's Ferry, Sept. 15, 1862 (see *Harper's Ferry, Surrender of*), Lee felt himself in a perilous position, for General Franklin had entered Pleasant Valley that very morning and threatened the severance of his army. Lee at once took measures to concentrate his forces. He withdrew his troops from South Mountain and took position in the Antietam valley, near Sharpsburg, Md. Jackson, by swift marches, had recrossed the Potomac and joined Lee on Antietam Creek. When the Confederates left South Mountain, McClellan's troops followed them. Lee's plans were thwarted, and he found himself compelled to fight. McClellan was very cautious, for he believed the Confederates were on his front in overwhelming numbers. It was ascertained that Lee's army did not number more than sixty thousand. McClellan's effective force was eighty-seven thousand. McClellan's army was well in hand (Sept. 16), and Lee's was well posted on the heights near Sharpsburg, on the western side of Antietam Creek, a sluggish stream with few fords, spanned by four stone bridges. On the right of the National line were the corps of Hooker and Sumner. In the advance, and near the Antietam, General Richardson's division of Sumner's corps was posted. On a line with this was Sykes's (regular) division of Porter's corps. Farther down the stream was Burnside's corps. In front of Sumner and Hooker were batteries of 24-pounder Parrot guns. Franklin's corps and Couch's division were farther down the valley, and the divisions of Morrell and Humphrey, of Porter's corps, were approaching from Frederick. A detachment of the signal corps, under Major Myer, was on a spur of South Mountain. As McClellan prudently hesitated to attack, the Confederates put him on the defensive by opening an artillery fire upon the Nationals at dawn

(Sept. 16, 1862). He was ready for response in the course of the afternoon, when Hooker crossed the Antietam with a part of his corps, commanded by Generals Ricketts, Meade, and Doubleday. Hooker at once attacked the Confederate left, commanded by "Stonewall Jackson," who was soon reinforced by General Hood. Sumner was directed to send over Mansfield's corps during the night, and to hold his own in readiness to pass over the next morning. Hooker's first movement was successful. He drove back the Confederates, and his army rested on their arms that night on the ground they had won. Mansfield's corps crossed in the evening, and at dawn (Sept. 17) the contest was renewed by Hooker. It was obstinate and severe. The National batteries on the east side of the creek greatly assisted in driving the Confederates away, with heavy loss, beyond a line of woods. It was at this time, when Hooker advanced, that Jackson was reinforced. The Confederates swarmed out of the works and fell heavily upon Meade, when Hooker called upon Doubleday for help. A brigade under General Hartsuff pressed forward against a heavy storm of missiles, and its leader was severely wounded. Meanwhile Mansfield's corps had been ordered up, and before it became engaged the veteran leader was mortally wounded. The command then devolved on General Williams, who left his division in the care of General Crawford, and the latter seized a piece of woods near by. Hooker had lost heavily; Doubleday's guns had silenced a Confederate battery; Ricketts was struggling against constantly increasing numbers on his front; and the National line began to waver, when Hooker, in the van, was wounded and taken from the field. Sumner sent Sedgwick to the support of Crawford, and Gordon and Richardson and French bore down upon the Confederates more to the left. The Nationals now held position at the Dunker Church, and seemed about to grasp the palm of victory (for Jackson and Hood were falling back), when fresh Confederate troops, under McLaws and Walker, supported by Early, came up. They penetrated the National line and drove it back, when the unflinching Doubleday gave them such a storm of artillery that they, in turn, fell back to their original position. Sedgwick, twice wounded, was carried from the field, and the command of his division devolved on General O. O. Howard. Generals Crawford and Dana were also wounded. Franklin was sent over to assist the hard-pressed Nationals. Forming on Howard's left, he sent Slocum with his division towards the centre. At the same time General Smith was ordered to retake the ground on which there had been so much fighting, and it was done within fifteen minutes. The Confederates were driven far back. Meanwhile the divisions of French and Richardson had been busy. The former received orders from Sumner to press on and make a diversion in favor of the right. Richardson's division, composed of the brigades of Meagher, Caldwell, and Brooks (who had crossed the Antietam at ten o'clock), gained a good position. The Confederates, reinforced by fresh troops, fought desperately. Finally Richardson was mortally wounded, and General W. S. Hancock succeeded him in command, when a charge was made that drove the Confederates in great confusion. Night soon closed the action on the National right and centre. General Meagher had been wounded and carried from the field, when the command of his troops devolved on Colonel Burke. During the fierce strifes of the day Porter's corps, with artillery and Pleasanton's cavalry, had remained on the east side of the stream, as a reserve, until late in the afternoon, when McClellan sent over some brigades. On the morning of the 17th the left, under Burnside, engaged in a desperate struggle for the possession of a bridge just below Sharpsburg. That commander had been ordered to cross it and attack the Confederates. It was a difficult task, and Burnside, exposed to a raking fire from the Confederate batteries and an enfilading fire from sharp-shooters, was several times repulsed. Finally, at a little past noon, two regiments charged across the bridge and drove its defenders away. The divisions of Sturgis, Wilcox, and Rodman, and Scammon's brigade, with four batteries, passed the bridge and drove the Confederates almost to Sharpsburg. A. P. Hill, with fresh troops, fell upon Burnside's left, mortally wounding General Rodman and driving the Nationals nearly back to the bridge. General O'B. Branch, of North Carolina, was also killed in this encounter. The Confederates were checked by National artillery on the eastern side of the stream, and, reserves advancing under Sturgis, there was no further attempt to retake "the Burnside Bridge," as it was called. Hill came up just in time to save Lee's

"BURNSIDE BRIDGE," ANTIETAM CREEK.

army from destruction. Darkness ended the memorable struggle known as the Battle of Antietam. The losses were very severe. McClellan reported his losses at 12,460 men, of whom 2010 were killed. He estimated Lee's loss as much greater. The losses fell heavily upon certain brigades. That of Duryée retired from the field with not more than twenty men and four colors. Of the brigades of Lawton and Hays, on the Confederate side, more than one half were lost. On the morning of the 18th both parties seemed more willing to rest than to fight; and that night Lee and his shattered army stole away in the darkness, recrossed the Potomac at Williamsport, and planted eight batteries on the high Virginia bank that menaced pursuers. There had been a very tardy pursuit. At dark on the evening of the 19th Porter, who was on the left bank of the river, ordered Griffin to cross the stream with two brigades and carry Lee's batteries. He captured four of the guns. On the next morning (Sept. 20) a part of Porter's division made a reconnoissance in force on the Virginia side, and were assailed by Hill in ambush, who drove them across the Potomac and captured two hundred of the Nationals. Maryland Heights and Harper's Ferry were retaken by the Union troops.

Apaches. These are a fierce people of the Athabasca nation. (See *Athabascas.*) They are mostly wanderers, and have roamed as marauders over portions of Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, in the United States, and several of the northern provinces of Mexico. Wanderers, they do not cultivate the soil, and have only temporary chiefs to lead them. Civil government they have none. Divided into many roving bands, they resisted all attempts by the Spaniards to civilize and Christianize them, but constantly attacked these Europeans. So early as 1762, it was estimated that the Apaches had desolated and depopulated one hundred and seventy-four mining-towns, stations, and missions in the province of Sonora alone. For fifty years a bold chief—Mangas Colorado—led powerful bands to war; and since the annexation of their territory to the United States, they have given its government more trouble than any of the Western Indians. Colorado was killed in 1863. Whether they can be civilized is an unsolved problem. The estimated number of the Apaches is about ten thousand. Though fierce in war, they never scalp or torture their enemies. A Great Spirit is the central figure in their simple system of theology, and they reverence as sacred certain animals, especially a pure white bird.

Apostle of the Indians. A name given to Rev. John Eliot, a missionary among the Indians of Massachusetts. Born in Essex, England, in 1603, he died at Roxbury, Mass., May 20, 1690. He came to Boston in 1631, and was appointed minister at Roxbury. Among the twenty Indian tribes that surrounded the English plantation he labored almost fifty years with zeal and success, learning their language and translating the Scriptures and other good writings into their native tongue. He is supposed to have been the first Protestant minister who preached to the Indians. In 1651 an Indian village was built at Natick, on the Charles River, and there the first Indian church was established. His humane efforts in behalf of the "praying Indians," as his converts were called, during King Philip's war were successful. Four of his sons, educated at Harvard University, were classed with "the best preachers of their generation." (See *Eliot, John.*)

Appeals from Colonial Courts. In 1697 the right of appeal from the colonial courts to the king in council was sustained by the highest legal authority. By this means, and the establishment of courts of admiralty (which see), Great Britain at length acquired a judicial control over the colonies, and with it a power (afterwards imitated in our National Constitution) of bringing her supreme authority to bear not alone upon the colonies as political corporations, but, what was much more effectual, upon the colonists as individuals.

Appeals to the States (1783). Under the Articles of Confederation (which see) the Congress had no power to levy taxes without the consent of the several state legislatures. These were always tardy in responding to appeals for money to support the general government. On April 26, 1783, an eloquent address in the form of an appeal, prepared by Hamilton, Madison, and Ellsworth, was sent forth to the several states, in which the necessity of providing for the Federal debt was strongly urged not only as a matter of justice, but of policy in sustaining the public credit. "Let it be remembered," said the address, "that it has ever been the pride and the boast of America that the rights for which she contended were the rights of human nature. By the blessing of the Author of these rights on the means exerted for their defence they prevailed against all opposition, and form the basis of thirteen independent states." They urged that an opportunity was then offered of trying a great experiment of republicanism under more favorable circumstances than ever before. On May 7, another urgent appeal was made to the states to provide means for three months' pay for the furloughed soldiers, which was to be advanced in treasury notes—a new species of paper currency—payable six months after date, and receivable for all Continental taxes, and redeemable at sight by all Continental receivers having money. The preparations then making for disbanding the army, while their dues remained unpaid, had produced symptoms of discontent again among the soldiers at Newburgh; but the judicious course of Washington pacified them. (See *Newburgh Letters* and *Disbanding of the Continental Army.*)

Appomattox Court-house, Surrender of Lee at. The Army of Northern Virginia was reduced by famine, disease, death, wounds, and capture to a feeble few. These struggled against enormous odds with almost unexampled fortitude, but were compelled to yield to overwhelming numbers and strength. On April

8, a portion of Sheridan's cavalry, under General Custer, supported by Devin, captured four Confederate supply-trains at Appomattox Station, on the Lynchburg Railroad. Lee's vanguard approaching, were pushed back to Appomattox Court-house, five miles northward—near which was Lee's main army—capturing twenty-five guns and many wagons and prisoners. Sheridan hurried forward the remainder of his command, and on that evening he stood directly across Lee's pathway of retreat. Lee's last avenue of escape was closed, and on the following day he met General Grant at the residence of Wilmer McLean, at Appomattox Court-house, to consummate an act of surrender. The two commanders met, with courteous recognition, at two o'clock P.M., on Palm Sunday (April 9). Grant was accompanied by his chief of staff, Colonel Parker; Lee by Colonel Marshall, his adjutant-general. The terms of surrender were discussed and settled, in the form of a written proposition by Grant, and a written acceptance by Lee, and at half-past three o'clock they were signed. The terms prescribed by Grant were extraordinary, under the circumstances, in their leniency and magnanimity, and Lee professed to be touched by them. They simply required Lee and his men to give their parole of honor that they would not take up arms against the government of the United States until regularly exchanged; gave to the officers their side-arms, baggage, and private horses; and pledged the faith of the government that they should not be punished for their treason and rebellion so long as they should respect that parole and be obedient to law. Grant, at the suggestion of Lee, actually allowed such cavalrymen of the Confederate army as owned their own horses to retain them, as they would, he said, need them for tilling their farms. Lee now returned to Richmond, where his family resided. He had started on that campaign with 65,000 men, and he returned alone; and for a month afterwards he and his family were kindly furnished with daily rations from the National commissariat at Richmond. Lee had lost, during the movements of his army from March 26 to April 9, about 14,000 men, killed and wounded, and 25,000 made prisoners. The number of men paroled was about 26,000, of whom not more than 9000 had arms in their hands. About 16,000 small-arms were surrendered, 150 cannon, 71 colors, about 1100 wagons and caissons, and 4000 horses and mules.

MCLEAN'S HOUSE, THE PLACE OF LEE'S SURRENDER.

Apportionment of Representatives, The First. In the matter of apportionment there was considerable disagreement when the subject was brought before the House of Representatives, in 1791. A bill was passed (Nov. 24) giving to every 30,000 inhabitants one member of the House of Representatives. A distribution was agreed upon giving a total of 113 members, but leaving large unrepresented fractions in several of the Northern States. The Senate sent back the bill so amended as to raise the ratio of apportionment to 33,000, with the avowed purpose of diminishing the fractions. Long and warm debates ensued, and threats of dissolving the Union were freely uttered. The Senate amendment was disagreed to. A committee of conference was appointed (March, 1792), but produced no result. The House finally agreed to the amendment, 31 to 29, the North in favor of concession, the South opposed to it. When the bill was sent to the President, he asked the opinion of his cabinet as to its constitutionality. The cabinet were somewhat divided in opinion, and Washington vetoed the bill. Another bill soon passed (April, 1792), making the ratio 33,000.

Aqueduct, The Croton. This is the greatest work of the kind constructed in modern times in its extent and magnificence. It was completed in 1842, after continued labor upon it for five years, under the superintendence of John B. Jervis, at an expense of $10,375,000, including $1,800,000 for distributing-pipes and amounts paid for right of way and other incidental charges. The entire cost, including commission and interest, was $12,500,000. Its whole length, from the Croton River to the distributing reservoir at Fifth Avenue and Fortieth Street, is forty and a half miles. There are sixteen tunnels on the line, cut mainly through gneiss rock; and much of the open cutting is also through rock. Croton Lake was made by casting up a dam across the Croton River, and raising the water forty feet. This is the source of the aqueduct. It is built of stone, brick, and cement, arched over and under, six feet nine inches wide at the bottom (the chord of an arc), seven feet five inches at the springing-line of the arch, and eight feet five and a half inches high. It crosses the Harlem River over a high bridge, under the arches of which sailing-vessels may pass.

Aquia Creek, ENGAGEMENT AT. Alarmed by the gathering of troops at Washington, Governor Letcher, of Virginia, by command of the Confederate government, called out the militia of that state, appointing no less than twenty places as points of rendezvous, one fourth of which were west of the mountains, for the insurgents were threatened by Ohio and Indiana volunteers. His proclamation was issued May 3, 1861. Batteries were erected on the Virginia branch of the Potomac, below Washington, for the purpose of obstructing the navigation of that stream and preventing supplies reaching Washington that way. At the middle of May, Captain J. H. Ward, a veteran officer of the navy, was placed in command of a flotilla on the Potomac, which he had organized, composed of four armed propellers. On his way to Washington from Hampton Roads, he had captured two schooners filled with armed insurgents. He then patrolled that river, reconnoitring the banks in search of batteries which the Virginians had constructed. On the heights at Aquia Creek (the terminus of a railway from Richmond), fifty-five miles below Washington, he found formidable works, and attacked them, May 31, with his flag-ship, *Thomas Freeborn*, and the gunboats *Anacosta* and *Resolute*. For two hours a sharp conflict was kept up, and the batteries were silenced. Ward's ammunition for long-range was exhausted, and on the slacking of his fire the batteries opened again. Unable to reply at that distance, Ward withdrew, but resumed the conflict the following day, in company with the *Pawnee*, Captain S. C. Rowan. The struggle lasted more than five hours. Twice the batteries on shore were silenced, but their fire was renewed each time. The *Pawnee* was badly bruised, but no person on board of her nor on Ward's flotilla was killed or seriously injured.

Arapahoes. This is one of the five tribes constituting the Blackfeet confederacy, residing near the head-waters of the Arkansas and Platte rivers. They were great hunters, and fifty years ago numbered 10,000 souls. With the disappearance of the buffalo they have rapidly decreased, and are now less than 1000.

Arbitrary Measures towards the Colonies. In the session of Parliament in 1756, that body attempted to extend its authority in a signal manner over the colonies. They passed laws to regulate the internal policy of the colonies, as well as their acts for the common good. The law in Pennsylvania, under which Franklin's militia (which see) were raised, was repealed by the king in council; the commissions of all officers elected under it were cancelled, and the companies were dispersed. Volunteers were forbidden to organize for their defence; and the arrangements made by the Quakers (see *Friendly Association*) with the Delawares, to secure peace and friendship with the Indians, were censured by Lord Halifax at the head of the Board of Trade and Plantations, as "the most daring violation of the royal prerogative." Each northern province was also forbidden to negotiate with the Indians. But the spirit of the colonists could not be brought into subjection to arbitrary royal authority. A person who had long resided in America, and had just returned to England, declared prophetically, "In a few years the colonies in America will be independent of Great Britain;" and it was actually proposed to send over William, Duke of Cumberland, to be their sovereign, and to emancipate them at once.

Arbuthnot, MARRIOTT, a British admiral, was born about 1711; died in London, Jan. 31, 1794. He became a post-captain in 1747. From 1775 to 1778 he was naval commissioner resident at Halifax, Nova Scotia. Having been raised to the rank of vice-admiral in 1779, he obtained the chief command on the American station, and was blockaded by the Count D'Estaing in the harbor of New York. In the spring of 1780 he co-operated with Sir Henry Clinton in the siege of Charleston, S. C. In February, 1793, he became admiral of the blue.

MARRIOTT ARBUTHNOT.

Archdale (JOHN) **and his Administration.** Faction was postponing the era of real prosperity in Carolina, and the unwise conduct of its governors was fanning the flame, when John Archdale, a Quaker, and a native of Buckinghamshire, England, was sent to govern the province. The proprietors had abandoned (1693) their absurd scheme of government (see *Fundamental Constitutions*), and Archdale was sent to soothe the irritation by persuasive and mild measures. He had taken great interest in colonial schemes, and was one of the Carolina proprietors. In their scheme he had been a great helper. His eldest sister, Mary, had married Ferdinando Gorges, grandson of Sir Ferdinando (which see), who was Governor of Maine, and in 1659 published *America Painted from Life*. Archdale had been in Maine as Gorges's agent in 1664, was in North Carolina in 1686, and was commissioner for Gorges in Maine in 1687–88. On his arrival in South Carolina as governor, in 1694, Archdale formed a commission of sensible and moderate men, to whom he said, at their first meeting, "I believe I may appeal to your serious and rational observations whether I have not already so allayed your heats as that the distinguishing titles thereof are so much withered away; and I hope this meeting with you will wholly extinguish them, so that a solid settlement of this hopeful colony may ensue; and by so doing, your posterity will bless God for so happy a conjunction." He told them why he had been sent, and said, "And now you have heard of the proprietors' intentions of sending me hither, I doubt not but the proprietors' intentions of choosing you were much of the same nature; I advise you, therefore, to proceed soberly and mildly in this weighty concern; and I question not but we shall answer you in all things that are reasonable and honorable for us to do. And now, friends, I have given you the reason of my coming, I shall give you the reasons of my calling you so soon, which was the consideration of my own mortality [he was then nearly seventy years of age], and that such a considerable trust might not expire useless to you; and I hope the God of peace will prosper your counsels herein." Archdale was one of the proprietors of North Carolina, and, arriving there in the summer of 1695, had a very successful though brief administration. Elected to Parliament in 1698, he would only *affirm*, instead of taking the required oath, and was not allowed to take his seat in consequence.

Arctic Discovery. During almost four hundred years efforts have been made by European navigators to discover a passage for vessels through the Arctic seas to India. The stories of Marco Polo of the magnificent countries in Eastern Asia and adjacent islands—Cathay and Zipangi, China and Japan—stimulated desires to accomplish such a passage. The Cabots went in the direction of the pole, northwestward, at or near the close of the fifteenth century, and penetrated as far north as 67° 30′, or half-way up to (present) Davis Strait. The next explorers were the brothers Cortereal, who made three voyages in that direction, 1500–2. In 1553 Sir Hugh Willoughby set out to find a northeast passage to India, but was driven back from Nova Zembla, and perished on the shore of Lapland. In 1576–78 Martin Frobisher made three voyages to find a northwest passage into the Pacific Ocean, and discovered the entrance to Hudson's Bay. Between 1585 and 1587 John Davis discovered the strait that bears his name. The Dutch made strenuous efforts to discover a north-east passage. William Barentz made three voyages in that direction in 1594–96, and perished on his third voyage. Henry Hudson tried to round the north of Europe and Asia in 1607–8, but failed, and, pushing for the lower latitudes of the American coast, discovered the river that bears his name. While on an expedition to discover a northwest passage, he found Hudson's Bay, and perished (1610) on its bosom. In 1616 Baffin explored the bay called by his name, and entered the mouth of Lancaster Sound. After that, for fifty years, no navigator went so far north in that direction. In 1720 the Hudson's Bay Company (which see) sent captains Knight and Barlow to search for a northwest passage to India. They sailed with a ship and sloop, and were never heard of afterwards. In 1741 Vitus Behring discovered the strait that bears his name, having set sail from a port in Kamtchatka. In that region Behring perished. Russian navigators tried in vain to solve the problem. Between 1769 and 1772 Samuel Hearne made three overland journeys in America to the Arctic Ocean. The British government having, in 1743, offered $100,000 to the crew who should accomplish a northwest passage, stimulated efforts in that direction. Captain Phipps (Lord Mulgrave) attempted to reach the north pole in 1773; and before setting out on his last voyage (1776), Captain Cook was instructed to attempt to penetrate the Polar Sea by Behring's Strait. He went only as far as 70° 45′. In 1817 Captain Ross and Lieutenant Parry sailed for the Polar Sea from England; and the same year Captain Buchan and Lieutenant (Sir John) Franklin went in an easterly direction on a similar errand, namely, to reach the north pole. At this time the chief object of these explorations was scientific, and not commercial. Buchan and Franklin went by way of Spitzbergen; but they only penetrated to 80° 34′. Ross and Parry entered Lancaster Sound, explored its coasts, and Ross returned with the impression that it was a bay. Parry did not agree with him in this opinion, and he sailed on a further exploration in 1819. He advanced farther in that direction than any mariner before him, and approached the magnetic pole, finding the compass of little use. On Sept. 4, 1819, Parry announced to his crew that they were entitled to $20,000 offered by Parliament for reaching so westerly a point in that region, for they had passed the one hundred and tenth meridian. There they were frozen in for about a year. Parry sailed again in 1821. Meanwhile an overland expedition, led by Franklin, had gone to co-operate with Parry. They were absent from home about three years, travelled over five thousand miles, and accomplished nothing. They had endured great suffering. Parry, also, accomplished nothing, and returned in October, 1823. Other English expeditions followed in the same direction, by land and water. Sir John Franklin and others went overland, and Parry by sea, on a joint expedition, and Captain Beechey was sent around Cape Horn to enter Behring's Strait and push eastward to meet Parry. Franklin explored the North American coast, but nothing else was accomplished by these expeditions. Mr. Scoresby, a whaleman, and his son, had penetrated to 81° north latitude in 1806. His experience led him to advise an expedition with boats fixed on sledges, to be easily dragged on the ice. With an expedition so fitted out, Captain Parry sailed for the polar waters in 1827. This expedition was a failure. Captain Ross was in the polar waters again from May, 1829, until the midsummer of 1833. The party had been given up as lost. Another party had started in search of Ross, explored the north coast of America, and discovered Victoria Land. Other land expeditions followed; and one, under Dr. John Rae, completed a survey of the north coast of the American continent in the spring of 1847. Sir John Franklin yet believed a northwest passage possible. With two vessels—the *Erebus* and *Terror*—each fitted with a small steam-engine and screw-propeller, he sailed from England May 19, 1845. They were seen by a whale-ship, in July, about to enter Lancaster Sound, and were never heard of afterwards. The British government despatched three expeditions in search of them in 1848. One of them was an overland expedition under Sir John Richardson, who traversed the northern coast of America eight hundred miles, in 1848, without finding Franklin. The sea expedition was equally unfortunate. Dr. Rae failed in an overland search in 1850. Three more expeditions were sent out by the British government in search in 1850; and from Great Britain five others were fitted out by private means. One was also sent by the United States government, chiefly at the cost of Henry Grinnell, a New York merchant. It was commanded by Lieutenant De Haven, of the U. S. Navy. There were two ships, the *Advance* and *Rescue*. Dr. E. K. Kane was surgeon and naturalist of the expedition. It was unsuccessful, and returned in 1851. Lady Franklin, meanwhile, had been sending out expeditions in search of her husband, and the British government and British navigators made untiring efforts to find the lost explorers, but in vain. Another American expedition, under Dr. Kane, made an unsuccessful search, and finally the search was given up. In a scientific point of view, Dr. Kane's expedition obtained the most important results. It is believed that he saw an open polar sea; and to find that sea other American expeditions sailed under Dr. I. I. Hayes, a member of Kane's expedition, and Captain Charles F. Hall. The latter returned to the United States in 1860, and Dr. Hayes in 1861. Hall sailed again in 1864, and returned in 1869. The Germans and Swedes now sent expeditions in that direction. In 1869 Dr. Hayes again visited the polar waters. The same year, and for some time afterwards, several expeditions were sent out from the continent of Europe. Finally, by the help of Congress, Captain Hall was enabled to sail, with a well-furnished company, in the ship *Polaris*, for the polar seas, in June, 1871. In October Hall left the vessel, and started northward on a sledge expedition. On his return he suddenly sickened and died, and the *Polaris* returned without accomplishing much. The passage from the coast of Western Europe, around the north of that continent and of Asia, into the Pacific Ocean, was first accomplished in the summer of 1879, by Professor Nordenskjöld, an accomplished Swedish explorer, in the steamship *Vega*. She passed through Behring's Strait into the Pacific Ocean, and reached Japan in the first week in September. Thus the great problem has been solved nearly four hundred years after Cabot's voyage up the coast of Labrador. (See *Cabot*.)

Argall, Samuel, first appears in history in a nefarious transaction in Virginia, in 1612, when he was forty years of age. He was born at Bristol, England, in 1572, and died in 1639. Argall was one of the early adventurers to Virginia. He commanded a vessel, and was a sort of buccaneer. He was in Virginia at a time when Powhatan was particularly hostile to the English settlers. He and his nearest neighbors would not allow the people to carry food to the English at Jamestown, and provisions became very scarce. Argall was sent with a vessel on a foraging expedition up the York River. Being near the dwelling of Powhatan, he bribed a savage by a gift of a copper kettle to entice Pocahontas on board his vessel, where he detained her a prisoner, hoping to get a large quantity of corn from her father as a ransom, and to recover some arms and implements of labor which the Indians had stolen. Powhatan rejected Argall's proposal for a ransom with scorn, and would not hold intercourse with the pirate; but he sent word to the authorities at Jamestown that, if his daughter should be released, he would forget the injury and be the friend of the English. They would not trust him, and the maiden was taken to Jamestown and detained several months, always treated with great respect as a princess. There she became the object of a young Englishman's affections; and the crime of Argall led to peace and happiness (see *Pocahontas*). The next year (1613) Argall went, with the sanction of the Governor of Virginia (see *Thomas Dale*) to expel the French from Acadia as intruders upon the domain of the North and South Virginia Company. He stopped on his way at Mount Desert Island, and broke up the Jesuit settlement there. (See *Acadia*.) The priests, it is said, feeling an enmity towards the authorities at Port Royal, in Acadia, willingly accompanied Argall as pilots thither in order to be revenged. Argall plundered the settlement, and laid the village in ashes, driving the people to the woods, and breaking up the colony. In 1617 Argall became deputy governor of Virginia. On going to Jamestown he found it fallen into decay, the storehouse used as a church; the market-place, streets, and other spots in the town planted with tobacco; the people dispersed according to every man's convenience for planting; and the number of the settlers there reduced. Argall's rule was so despotic that, in 1619, he was recalled, and Sir George Yeardly was put in his place. He returned to England with much wealth. After the death of Lord Delaware Captain Argall took charge of his estate, and Lady Delaware charged him with gross fraud and peculation.

"**Argus**," Capture of the (1813). The American brig *Argus*, Captain W. H. Allen, bore to France William H. Crawford, United States minister to that government. She afterwards cruised in British waters, and by the celerity of her movements and destructive energy she spread consternation throughout commercial England. She carried 32 pound carronades and two bow-guns; and her commander, who had served under Decatur, was one of the most gallant men of the navy. He roamed the "chops of the Channel" successfully; and, sailing around Land's End, in the space of thirty days he captured no less than twenty valuable British merchantmen, with cargoes valued at $2,000,000. Too far away from friendly ports into which he might send his prizes, he burned all the vessels. Every non-combatant captive he allowed to remove his private property, and for this generosity he was thanked by them. The British government, alarmed by the exploits of the *Argus*, sent out several cruisers after her. Just before the dawn of the 14th of August (1813), the British brig *Pelican*, 18, Captain J. F. Maples, appeared; and at six o'clock the *Argus* wore round and delivered a broadside upon her at grapeshot distance. The fire was immediately returned, and a round shot carried away Allen's left leg. He refused to be taken from the deck; but soon becoming unconscious from loss of blood, he was taken to the cockpit, and died the next day. The men of the *Argus*, weakened by too free use of captured wine the night before, did not fight with their usual vigor, yet they handled the vessel admirably. Lieutenant W. Howard Allen was left in chief command. Very soon the *Argus* became so badly injured that she began to reel. All her braces were shot away, and she could not be kept in position. The *Pelican* at length crossed her stern, and raked her dreadfully; and at the end of twenty-five minutes from the beginning of the action the *Argus* became unmanageable. Yet she fought on feebly twenty minutes longer, when she was compelled to surrender, the *Sea-horse*, the *Pelican's* consort, having hove in sight. The *Argus* lost, in killed and wounded, 23 men; the *Pelican* lost 7 men.

Arista, MARIANO, a Mexican general, was born at San Luis Potosi, July 16, 1802; died in Spain, Aug. 9, 1855. Receiving a military education, he served in the Spanish army until June, 1821, when he joined the Mexican revolutionists. He rose rapidly to the rank of brigadier-general; and in June, 1833, he was made, by Santa Aña, second in command of the Mexican army. Joining another leader in an unsuccessful revolt, he was expelled from Mexico, and came to the United States. In 1835 he returned, and was restored to his rank in the army, and made Judge of the Supreme Tribunal of War. He was taken prisoner by the French at Vera Cruz (Dec. 5, 1838), but was soon released on parole. In 1839 he became general-in-chief of the northern division of the army, and received the "Cross of Honor" for defeating insurgents. Though only a military commander, he was for some time the real ruler of Mexico when Herrera was President in 1844. Commanding at the battles of Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma (which see), in May, 1848, he was appointed Minister of War a month later. Within two years he suppressed seventeen revolts in Mexico; and in 1850 he was elected President of his native country. He resigned the government in July, 1853. Banished from his country by his enemies, he made a voyage to Europe; and died there on the day when Santa Aña, who had usurped his seat, was compelled to fly from the city of Mexico.

Arizona and California, JESUIT MISSIONS IN. So early as 1658 Eusebio Francisco Kino, a member of the order of Jesuits, was engaged in the exploration of the (present) Territory of Arizona; and in 1670, in pursuance of a vow made when he supposed he was dying, he undertook single-handed the spiritual regeneration of the peninsula of California. To Kino is due the honor of founding the first settlements in California and Arizona, which now belong to the United States. In 1670 he set out, with other priests, on a mission in the valley of the Gila. They established five missions in that region during the next eight years; and in 1697 his efforts to establish permanent missions in California were gratified when a station was planted in that country. Salvatierra, who was personally engaged in founding the mission, and in the introduction of civilization into that region, discovered, by the aid of the "Holy Virgin of Loretto," he said, that California was really a peninsula, for he passed around the head of the Bay of California. These Jesuit missionaries made many converts among the Indians, who were provided with food from the stores of the mission-house. The Indian parishioners of the priests were clothed by the good father with warm cloth from Spain; and he furnished them with cloaks and blankets. They were taught the art of agriculture; but as they would not save the crops, they were taken for the common use at the mission. Wine was thus early produced at the missions in California. Missions became quite numerous, though most of them were small, one priest and one soldier constituting the whole of the white population. A semi-theocratic government was established at each mission village. The priest appointed one Indian as governor, one to the charge of the church, and the third to be the catechist of those who were learners. In the absence of the priest, the soldier acted as his vicegerent. At some stations the Indians were taught to spin wool and weave it; also to make sail-cloth from hemp, in violation of the navigation laws of Spain. Pueblas containing semi-civilized barbarians were soon formed in many places in Arizona and California, where men and women were trained by the Jesuits in the elements of Christian civilization; but their progress was frequently interrupted by inroads from the wild tribes around them. The decline in the power of Spain hindered aid to Spanish missions, and the Indian converts began to relapse into the habits of savage life. Revolts ensued. The power of the Jesuits at the Spanish court waned and disappeared; and on June 26, 1767, the king (Charles III.) issued a decree for the expulsion of the Jesuits from California. Choiseul, the able French minister, and the equally able Aranda, convinced Charles that the Jesuits had circulated slanders in regard to his own birth; and the monarch eagerly gave the sudden and unexpected blow to their power in the Spanish dominions.

Arizona, LEGEND OF. To one of the pioneer explorers of the Arizona region the Zunia Indians gave the following account of their origin as preserved in their traditions. Their legend relates that in the beginning a race of men sprang up out of the earth, as plants arise and come forth in the spring. This race increased until they spread over the whole earth, and, after continuing through countless ages, passed away. The earth then remained without people a great length of time, until at length the sun had compassion on the earth, and sent a celestial maiden to repeople the globe. This young goddess was called Arizonia, the name signifying "Maiden Queen." This Arizonia dwelt upon the earth a great length of time in lonely solitude, until at a certain time, while basking in the sunbeams, a drop of dew fell from heaven and rested upon Arizonia, who in due time blessed the world with twins, a son and daughter, and these became the father and mother of the Zunia Indians, and from this tribe arose all other races of men; the black, white, olive, and all other clay-colored men being merely apostate off-shoots from this original tribe, and the Zunias being the only pure, original stock, children of the sun, now upon the earth.

Arizona, TERRITORY OF, is in the extreme southwestern portion of the republic, lying on the border of Mexico. The region was early known to Spanish explorers. So early as 1526, Don José de Vasconcellos, a follower of Cortez, crossed the centre of this territory towards the Great Cañon, and the region was afterwards visited by other Spanish explorers. They then, as we do now, found on the river banks ruins of cities which seemed to have existed for centuries. These, with regular fortifications, reservoirs, and canals, show that the country was once inhabited by an enterprising and cultivated people. There are found walls of solid masonry, usually two stories in height. It is estimated that full one hundred thousand people must have inhabited the valley of the Gila alone. Arizona was settled by Spanish missionaries from Mexico as early as 1687. These missions were principally seated on the Lower Colorado and Gila rivers. The territory formed a part of Mexico until its purchase by the United States in 1850. It was organized into a territory by act of Congress, Feb. 24, 1863, with its area described as comprising all the "United States lands west of longitude 109° to the California line." Since then the northwest corner has been ceded to Nevada. It is a mountainous region, and much of the northern portion remains unexplored.

Arkansas was discovered by De Soto in 1541, who crossed the Mississippi near the site of Helena. (See *De Soto.*) It was next visited by Father Marquette (which see) in 1673. It was originally a part of Louisiana, purchased from the French in 1803, and so remained until 1812, when it formed a part of Missouri Territory (which see). It was erected into a territory in 1819, with its present name, and remained under a territorial government until 1836, when a convention at Little Rock, its present capital, formed a state constitution. Its first territorial legislature met at Arkansas Post in 1820. On June 15, 1836, Arkansas was admitted into the Union as a state. At the beginning of the Civil War a state convention was held at Little Rock, and on May 6, 1861, adopted an ordinance of secession, when the state became a member of the Southern Confederacy. Meanwhile the state authorities had seized the national property in the state. During almost the whole period of the war, National or Confederate troops occupied the state; and one of the most hotly contested battles of the war was fought on its soil. (See *Pea Ridge.*) On Oct. 30, 1863, a meeting of loyal citizens, representing about twenty counties, was held at Fort Smith, to take measures for reorganizing the state government. In January following, a convention, composed of representatives of forty-two counties, assembled at Little Rock, and framed a loyal constitution, which was ratified by the people in March, 1864. Members of the Legislature were elected, and in April a state government was organized. In 1867 military rule was established in Arkansas, which, with Mississippi, constituted a military district. A new constitution was framed by a convention at Little Rock, Jan. 7, 1868, and was ratified by a small majority in March. On June 22, Congress declared Arkansas entitled to representation in that body, and the administration of the government was transferred from the military to the civil authority.

STATE SEAL OF ARKANSAS.

Arkansas Post, CAPTURE OF. General W. T. Sherman and Commodore Porter, near Vicksburg, had planned an attack upon Arkansas Post, or Fort Hindman, on the Arkansas River, fifty miles from the Mississippi. General McClernand, who had arrived and taken the chief command, accompanied the expedition. The troops landed, about twenty-five thousand strong, three miles below the fort, on June 9, and were led by Generals McClernand, Sherman, Morgan, Steele, Stewart, A. J. Smith, and Osterhaus. Porter had a strong flotilla of armored and unarmored gunboats. The latter, moving on, shelled the Confederates out of their rifle pits; and on the 11th the army moved against Fort Hindman. When the gunboats opened fire upon it, Morgan's artillery covered the advance. After a short fight for about two hours, the Confederates raised a white flag, while troops, which had stormed the works, were swarming over them. Arkansas Post was surrendered. The Nationals lost 977 men, of whom 129 were killed. The spoils were about 5000 prisoners, 7 cannons, 3000 small-arms, and a large quantity of stores. The fort was blown up, and property which could not be carried away was destroyed.

Arkansas Secession Ordinance. The people of Arkansas were attached to the Union, but, unfortunately, the governor and most of the leading politicians of the state were disloyal, and no effort was spared by them to obtain the passage of an ordinance of secession. For this purpose a state convention of delegates assembled at the capital (Little Rock) on March 4, 1861. It was composed of seventy-five members, of whom forty were such stanch Unionists that it was evident no ordinance of secession could be passed. The friends of secession then proposed a plan that seemed fair. A self-constituted committee reported to the convention an ordinance providing for an election to be held on the first Monday in August, at which the legal voters of the state should decide, by ballot, for "secession" or "co-operation." If a majority should appear for "secession," that fact would be considered in the light of instructions to the convention to pass an ordinance to that effect; if for "co-operation," then measures were to be used, in conjunction with the border slave-labor states "yet in the Union," for the settlement of existing difficulties. The next session of the convention was fixed for August 17. The proposition seemed so fair that it was adopted by unanimous vote, and the convention adjourned, subject to the call of its president, who was known as a Union man. Taking advantage of the excitement incident to the attack on Fort Sumter and the President's call for troops, the governor (Rector) and his disloyal associates adopted measures for arraying Arkansas among the "seceded states." In violation of the pledge of the convention that the whole matter should be determined by the people in August, the governor induced the president of the convention to call that body together on May 6. It met on that day. Seventy delegates were present. An ordinance of secession, previously prepared, was presented to it at three o'clock in the afternoon, when the hall in which the delegates met was crowded by an excited multitude. It was moved that the "yeas" and "nays" on the question should be taken without debate. Though the motion was rejected by a considerable majority, the president declared it carried. Then a vote on the ordinance was taken. There seemed to be a majority against it; but the president arose and earnestly exhorted the Unionists to change their votes, which they did, as they perceived a determination on the part of the crowd of spectators to compel them to do so. The place (the hall of the House of Representatives) was densely packed with human beings. As each vote was given there was a solemn stillness, and one Union man after another prefaced his vote by some stirring sentiment in favor of the South. When the result was announced — sixty-nine for the ordinance, to one against it—there was tremendous cheering. The negative vote was given by Isaac Murphy, who was the Union governor of Arkansas in 1864.

"**Arkansas,**" THE RAM. The Confederates had a powerful "ram," named *Arkansas*, on the Yazoo River, above Vicksburg. Farragut sent three armored vessels, about the middle of July, 1862, to attack her. Six miles up the stream they found and assailed her; but she repulsed the attack, and took shelter under the batteries at Vicksburg. Another attempt to capture her was made on July 22 by the *Essex* (Captain Porter) and the *Queen of the West.* Again the attempt was unsuccessful. After the repulse of the Confederates at Baton Rouge, early in August (see *Baton Rouge*), Porter, with the *Essex* and two other gunboats, went in search of the *Arkansas*, and found her five miles above that city. A sharp engagement ensued. The *Arkansas* became unmanageable, when her crew ran her against the river bank, set her on fire, and she was blown up.

Armand, CHARLES TUFIN, MARQUIS DE LA ROUARIE, was born near Rennes, France, in 1756; died Jan. 30, 1793. He was in the French army, when, fighting a duel in Paris, to which his passion for an actress had led him, he fled, came to America, and on May 10, 1777, he entered the Continental army as a volunteer. He received the commission of colonel, and commanded a small corps, to which was attached a company of cavalry, who acted as the police of camps. He was an exceedingly active officer, and was highly esteemed by Washington. In February, 1780, his corps was incorporated with that of Pulaski, who was killed at Savannah a few months before. In March, 1783, his services throughout the war from 1777 were recognized, and he was created a brigadier-general. Returning to France, he took part in the Revolution there, and was for a time a prisoner in the Bastile. He espoused the cause of the royalists of La Vendée, Brittany, Anjou, and Poitou. The execution of Louis XVI. gave such a shock to his nervous system that he sank under it and died.

Armed Neutrality (1780), THE. A movement in Europe, known as the "Armed Neutrality," threatened to seriously cripple the power of Great Britain and incidentally aid the Americans in their struggle for independence. It was a league of the leading nations of Europe against the pretensions of Great Britain as "Mistress of the Seas." It was conceived in the summer of 1778, when British cruisers seized American vessels in the Baltic Sea engaged in commerce with Russia. The latter nation was then assuming colossal proportions, and all the others courted the friendship of its empress, Catherine II., who was able and powerful. Great Britain tried to induce her to become an ally against France. Catherine coquetted a long time with King George, while her sympathies were with Sweden, Denmark, and Holland, whose neutral ships were continually interfered with by British sea-rovers, whose acts were justified by their government. France had gained the good-will of the Northern powers by a proclamation (July, 1778) of protection to all neutral vessels going to or from a hostile port with contraband goods whose value did not exceed three fourths of the whole cargo. From that time until the beginning of 1780 the insolence of British cruisers and the tone of the British ministers offended the Northern powers. The tone was often insulting. "When the Dutch," said Lord North, "say '*We* maritime powers,' it reminds me of the cobbler who lived next door to the lord mayor, and used to say 'My neighbor and I.'" Official language was often equally offensive. The British Minister at the Hague said, "For the present, treaty or no treaty, England will not suffer materials for ship-building to be taken by the Dutch to any French port." A similar tone was indulged towards the other powers, excepting Russia. The shrewd Catherine, perceiving the commercial interests of her realm to be involved in the maintenance of the neutral rights of others, after long coquetting with Great Britain, assumed the attitude of defender of those rights before all the world. Early in March, 1780, she issued a declaration, in substance, (1) that neutral ships shall enjoy free navigation from port to port, and on the coasts of belligerent powers; (2) that free ships free all goods except contraband; (3) that contraband are arms and munitions of war, and nothing else; (4) that no port is blockaded unless the enemy's ships in adequate number are near enough to make the entry dangerous. "In manifesting these principles before all Europe," that state paper said, "Her Imperial Majesty is firmly resolved to maintain them. She has therefore given an order to fit out a considerable portion of her naval forces to act as her honor, her interest, and necessity may require." The empress invited Sweden, Denmark, Portugal, and the Netherlands to join in support of her declaration. These, with Prussia and Russia, entered into a league in the course of the year. France and Spain acquiesced in the new maritime code; and at one time a general war between Great Britain and the Continental nations seemed inevitable. The United States approved the measure, and towards the close of 1780 sent Francis Dana as Ambassador to the Court of St. Petersburg, to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce. The alliance neither awed nor in any sensible way affected England. The known fickleness and faithlessness of Catherine made other powers hesitate in going to war, and the league resulted in inaction.

Arming Indians and Negroes (1775). Having no sufficient force at home to send for the subjugation of the colonies, and as mercenaries from the Continent could not be immediately procured, the British king ordered Dunmore, Governor of Virginia, to arm negroes and Indians, if necessary, to crush the rebellion in that colony. To Dunmore three thousand stand of arms, with two hundred rounds of powder and ball for each musket, together with four pieces of light artillery, were instantly shipped. An order was also sent directly, in the king's name, to the unscrupulous Guy Johnson, agent among the Six Nations, to seek immediate assistance from the Iroquois Confederacy. "Lose no time," so ran the order; "induce them to take up the hatchet against his majesty's rebellious subjects in America. It is a service of very great importance; fail not to exert every effort that may tend to accomplish it; use the utmost diligence and activity." Johnson was promised an ample supply of arms and ammunition from Quebec.

Armistead, GEORGE, was born at New Market, Caroline Co., Va., April 10, 1780; died in Baltimore, April 25, 1819. He entered the army as second lieutenant in 1799; was appointed assistant military agent at Fort Niagara in 1802, and assistant paymaster in 1806. In 1813 he held the rank of major in the Third Artillery, and was distinguished at the capture of Fort George in May. He had married (1810) a sister of the eminent Christopher Hughes (which see), and before that had served much among the Indians. His gallant defence of Fort McHenry in September, 1814, won for him immortal honors. He had five brothers in the military service in the second war for independence—three in the regular army and two in the militia service. Because of his bravery in defending Baltimore, he was breveted a lieutenant-colonel; and the citizens presented him with an elegant silver service in the form of a vase fashioned like a bombshell, with goblets and salver. After his death a fine marble monument was erected in the city of Baltimore to his memory. The grateful citizens also erected a large monument, designed by Maximilian Godefroy, and wrought in white marble, in memory of *all* the defenders of Baltimore. It is a cenotaph, and was erected in 1815, at a cost of sixty thousand dollars. It bears the names, in bronze letters, of the officers who perished in defence of the city.

GEORGE ARMISTEAD.

Armistice (1783). On the day when the Preliminary Treaty of Peace between the United States and Great Britain was concluded (Jan. 20, 1783), the respective commissioners of the two powers signed an armistice declaring a cessation of hostilities between the two nations. It was signed by Alleyne Fitzherbert on the part of Great Britain, and John Adams and Benjamin Franklin on the part of the United States.

Armistice (1812). In consequence of negotiations for a suspension of hostilities between the American and British armies then proposed, General Dearborn agreed with Sir George Prevost, Governor-general of Canada, for a provisional armistice, confined to the American troops on the northern frontier and the armies of the British along the opposite and corresponding line. To effect this armistice Sir George's adjutant-general, Edward Baynes, repaired to Dearborn's headquarters at Greenbush, opposite Albany, and there the armistice was signed, Aug. 9, 1812. This armistice was rejected by the government of the United States, and Dearborn was directed to put an end to it immediately. But he continued it until August 29, for the purpose, as he alleged, of forwarding stores to Sackett's Harbor. It released the British troops on the Niagara frontier, and Sir Isaac Brock, Governor of Upper Canada, was enabled to hasten to the Detroit River and effect the capture of the army of General Hull. Dearborn gave that commander no intimation of the armistice; and it was during its unwarranted continuance for twenty days that the forced surrender of Hull to overwhelming numbers (Aug. 16) took place. Dearborn's excuse for his silence was that he did not consider Hull within the limits of his command.

Arms and Military Stores, EXPORTATION OF, PROHIBITED (1774). Towards the close of 1774 the king issued a proclamation prohibiting the exportation, from Great Britain, of military stores. As soon as the proclamation reached America it created great excitement. Preparations were made for the manufacture of gunpowder and of cannons. The Assembly of Rhode Island passed resolutions for obtaining arms and military stores and for arming the inhabitants. From the public battery at Newport about forty cannons were removed, that they might not be used by the government authorities. At Portsmouth, N. H., a similar movement had taken place. Paul Revere had been sent there expressly, by a committee at Boston, with the king's order and an account of the proceedings of a meeting in the New England capital. On the following day about four hundred men proceeded to Castle William and Mary, at the entrance to Boston harbor, seized it, broke open the powder-house, and carried away more than one hundred barrels of gunpowder.

Arms for the National Troops. One of the most serious difficulties encountered at the beginning of the Civil War was a lack of arms. The arsenals and armories of the free-labor states had been stripped by Secretary Floyd. (See *Floyd's Disloyalty*.) The armory at Harper's Ferry had been destroyed, and that at Springfield, Mass., was the only one upon which the government could rely for the manufacture of arms. To supply this lack Colonel George L. Schuyler was sent to Europe to buy arms for the government. He bought 116,000 rifles, 10,000 revolvers, 10,000 cavalry carbines, and 21,000 sabres, at an aggregate cost of $2,044,931. It was not long before the private and national armories of the United States were able to meet all demands. The loss of over 2000 cannon at the Gosport Navy-yard was a serious one, but very soon the founderies of the country supplied all that were required.

Armstrong, JOHN, was born at Carlisle, Pa., Nov. 25, 1758; died at Red Hook, N. Y., April 1, 1843. While a student at Princeton, in 1775, he became a volunteer in Potter's Pennsylvania regiment, and was soon afterwards made an aide-de-camp to General Mercer. He was afterwards placed on the staff of General Gates, and remained so from the beginning of that officer's campaign against Burgoyne until the end of the war, having the rank of major. Holding a facile pen, he was employed to write the famous *Newburgh Addresses* (which see). They were powerfully and eloquently written. After the war he was successively Secretary of State and Adjutant-general of Pennsylvania; and in 1784 he conducted operations against the settlers in the Wyoming Valley. The Continental Congress in 1787 appointed him one of the judges for the Northwestern Territory, but he declined. Two years later he married a sister of Chancellor Livingston, removed to New York, purchased a farm within the precincts of the old Livingston manor on the Hudson, and devoted himself to agriculture. He was a member of the national Senate from 1800 to 1804, and became United States Minister at the French court in the latter year, succeeding his brother-in-law Chancellor Livingston. He was commissioned a brigadier-general in July, 1812, and in January, 1813, became Secretary of War in the cabinet of President Madison. His lack of success in the operations against Canada, and at the attack upon and capture of Washington in 1814, made him so unpopular that he resigned and retired to private life. General Armstrong wrote *Notes on the War of* 1812, and *Lives of Generals Montgomery and Wayne* for "Sparks's American Biography;" also a *Review of Wilkinson's Memoirs*, and treatises on agriculture and gardening.

JOHN ARMSTRONG.

Army Changes at Atlanta (1864). The Confederate government became dissatisfied with

General Johnston's steady retrograde movements before Sherman's advancing forces, and suddenly relieved him of his command, and put General J. B. Hood in his place. Johnston had cared more for the salvation of his army than for the possession of ports; Hood's feeling was the reverse, and in a very short time, by recklessness, he lost nearly one half of his troops. When Hood assumed command his army numbered about fifty-one thousand effective men, of whom ten thousand were cavalry. There were changes also of commanders in Sherman's army. By order of the President, O. O. Howard was made successor of McPherson in command of the Army of the Tennessee. This gave dissatisfaction to Hooker, who resigned the command of the tenth corps, and it was assigned to General H. W. Slocum; General Palmer resigned the command of the fourteenth corps, and was succeeded by General Jefferson C. Davis; General Stanley succeeded Howard as commander of the fourth corps.

Army, NEW, AUTHORIZED (1808). Jefferson's policy had always been to keep the army and navy as small and inexpensive as possible. The army was reduced to a mere frontier guard against the Indians. In 1808 the aspect of international affairs was such as to demand an increase of the military strength of the republic, and the President asked Congress to augment the number and efficiency of the regular army. They did so, though the measure was strongly opposed by the Federalists. There was a rising war-spirit in the land. A bill to raise seven new regiments was passed by a vote in the House of ninety-eight to sixteen. Other provisions for war followed. The sum of $1,000,000 was placed at the disposal of the President for the erection of coast and harbor defences. Another sum of $300,000 was appropriated for the purchase of arms, and $150,000 for saltpetre to make gunpowder. The President was also authorized to call upon the governors of the several states to form an army, in the aggregate, of one hundred thousand militia, to be immediately organized, equipped, and "held in readiness to march at a moment's warning" when called for by the chief magistrate — in other words, one hundred thousand minute-men. The President was authorized to construct arsenals and armories at his discretion; and $200,000 were placed at his disposal for providing equipments for the whole body of the militia of the republic. About $1,000,000 were appropriated to pay the first year's expenses of the seven new regiments. Altogether the government appropriated in 1808 about $5,000,000 for war purposes. Efforts to increase the navy failed. Men were needed for the additional one hundred and eighty-eight gunboats, the construction of which was authorized in December, 1807. Nothing was done until January, 1809, when the President was authorized to equip three frigates and a sloop of war.

Army Officers (1812). In organizing the military forces for war in 1812 the following appointments were made: Henry Dearborn, a soldier of the Revolution, collector of the port of Boston, late Secretary of War, and then sixty years of age, was appointed (February, 1812) first major-general, or acting commander-in-chief of the armies in the field, having the Northern Department under his immediate control. Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina, also a soldier of the Revolution, was appointed (March, 1812) second major-general, and placed in command of the Southern Department. Joseph Bloomfield (Governor of New Jersey), James Winchester (of Tennessee), John P. Boyd (of Massachusetts), and William Hull (then Governor of the Territory of Michigan), were commissioned (April 8, 1812) brigadiers. The same commission was given (June) to Thomas Flournoy, of Georgia. John Armstrong, of New York (see *Armstrong*), was also commissioned (July 4) a brigadier, to fill a vacancy caused by the recent death of General Peter Gansevoort. This was soon followed (July 8) by a like commission for John Chandler, of Maine. Morgan Lewis, of New York, was appointed quartermaster-general (April 3), and Alexander Smyth, of Virginia, was made inspector-general (March 30)—each bearing the commission of a brigadier. Thomas Cushing, of Massachusetts, was appointed adjutant-general with the rank of brigadier. James Wilkinson, of Maryland, the senior brigadier in the army, was sent to New Orleans to relieve Wade Hampton (now a brigadier), who was a meritorious subaltern officer in South Carolina during the Revolution. Alexander Macomb of the engineers — one of the first graduates of the United States Military Academy at West Point (which see)—was promoted to colonel, and Winfield Scott, Edward Pendleton Gaines, and Eleazer W. Ripley were commissioned colonels. Scott and Gaines were of Virginia; Ripley, of Maine.

Army of Liberation in Missouri. By invitation of Governor Jackson, of Missouri, General Gideon J. Pillow, in command of Tennessee troops, entered Missouri at or near the close of July, 1861, and took post at New Madrid. He had suggested this movement at an earlier day as a part of a plan for securing possession of Bird's Point (which see) to the Confederacy. He was empowered to make and enforce such civil police regulations as he might deem necessary for the security of his forces, the preservation of order and discipline in his camp, and the protection of the lives and property of the citizens—in other words, to establish martial law. Jackson clothed one of his brigadiers (M. J. Thompson) with similar authority, and he and Pillow, with W. J. Hardee, who was commissioned a brigadier in the Confederate service, held military possession of the southeastern districts of the commonwealth, and made vigorous preparations to co-operate with General Price and his associates in "expelling the enemy" from the state. Pillow assumed the pompous title of "Liberator of Missouri," and his orders and despatches were headed, "Headquarters Army of Liberation."

Army of Occupation (1845–46). When the annexation of Texas caused warlike preparations in Mexico, General Zachary Taylor was ordered to proceed to a point near the frontier between the two countries to defend Texas from invasion. Taylor was then in command of the Department of the Southwest. In a letter of instructions from the War Department, he was told, "Texas must be protected from hostile invasion; and for that purpose you will, of course, employ to the utmost extent all the means you possess or can command." He at once repaired to New Orleans with fifteen hundred men (July, 1845), where he embarked, and early in August arrived at the island of St. Josephs on the Texan coast, whence he sailed for Corpus Christi, near the mouth of the Neuces, where he established his headquarters. There he was soon afterwards reinforced by seven companies of infantry under Major Brown and two volunteer companies under Major Gally. With these forces he remained at Corpus Christi until the next spring, when the camp at that place was broken up (March 8, 1846), and the Army of Occupation proceeded to Point Isabel, nearer the Rio Grande. When approaching Point Isabel, Taylor was met by a deputation of citizens, and presented with a protest, signed by the Prefect of the Northern District of the Department of Tamaulipas, against the presence of his army. But he pressed forward to Point Isabel, from whence, with a larger portion of his army, he proceeded to the Rio Grande opposite Matamoras, arriving there on March 29. There he began the erection of defensive works; and so the Army of Occupation in Texas assumed a hostile attitude towards the Mexicans. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

Army of the James, ON THE APPOMATTOX. When General Grant began his march against Richmond (May, 1864), General Benjamin F. Butler was in command of the Army of the James, and was directed to co-operate with the Army of the Potomac. Butler prepared to make a vigorous movement against Richmond from the south, while Grant moved down from the north. Butler's effective force was about forty thousand men when he was ordered to advance. It was composed chiefly of the eighteenth army corps, commanded by General W. F. Smith, and the tenth corps under General Q. A. Gillmore, who arrived at Fortress Monroe May 3. Butler successfully deceived the Confederates as to his real intentions by making a demonstration towards Richmond by way of the York River and the Peninsula, along McClellan's line of march. On the night of May 4, Butler's army was embarked on transports and conveyed around to Hampton Roads; and at dawn the next morning thirty-five thousand troops, accompanied by a squadron of war vessels under Admiral Lee, were rapidly ascending the James towards City Point, at the mouth of the Appomattox. At the same time, General A. V. Kautz, with three thousand cavalry, moving swiftly from Suffolk, south of the James, struck the Weldon railway south of Petersburg, and burned a bridge over Stony Creek, while Colonel R. M. West, with eighteen hundred cavalry (mostly colored men), moved from Williamsburg up the north bank of the James, keeping abreast of the grand flotilla. The bewildered Confederates made no serious opposition to these movements. A division of National troops took quiet possession of City Point (May 5) and the war vessels took a position above the mouth of the Appomattox. At the same time a heavy force landed on a triangular piece of land between the James and Appomattox, called Bermuda Hundred, and there established an intrenched camp. In the space of twenty-four hours, Butler gained an important foothold within fifteen miles of Richmond in a straight line, and only about eight miles from Petersburg. This movement produced great consternation at Richmond; but before Petersburg could be seriously threatened by Butler, Beauregard was there with troops from Charleston.

Army of the North, OPERATIONS OF THE (1813). In the summer of 1812, General Joseph Bloomfield was sent to Lake Champlain with several regiments, and on September 1 he had gathered at Plattsburg about eight thousand men—regulars, volunteers, and militia—besides small advanced parties at Chazy and Champlain. General Dearborn took direct command of this army soon afterwards, and about the middle of November he made an unsuccessful attempt to invade Canada. No other special military movements occurred in that quarter until the next year. General Wade Hampton succeeded Bloomfield in command on Lake Champlain, and in the summer of 1813 he was at the head of four thousand men, with his headquarters at Burlington, Vt. This force composed the right wing of the Army of the North, of which General Wilkinson was commander-in-chief. There was such personal enmity between these two commanders that the public service was greatly injured thereby. The Secretary of War (Armstrong) was preparing to invade Canada by way of the St. Lawrence, and, fearing the effects of this enmity, transferred the headquarters of the War Department to Sackett's Harbor, at the east end of Lake Ontario, that he might promote harmony between these testy old generals. In arranging for the expedition down the St. Lawrence (which see), Armstrong directed Hampton to penetrate Canada towards Montreal by way of the Sorel River. Instead of obeying the order, Hampton marched his troops to the Chateaugay River, and at Chateaugay Four Corners he tarried twenty-six days awaiting orders. Finally he was ordered to descend the Chateaugay and meet Wilkinson at its mouth. He moved forward late in October, when he was confronted by Lieutenant-colonel De Salaberry, near the junction of Outard Creek and the Chateaugay, where Hampton encamped and was overtaken by his artillery. De Salaberry was encamped with a force about one thousand strong, and Sir George Prevost and General De Watteville were within bugle-call. Hampton resolved to dislodge De Salaberry, and sent a force under Colonel Robert Purdy on the evening of Oct. 25 to force a ford and fall upon the British rear. Purdy lost his way in a hemlock swamp. Meanwhile Hampton put three thousand five hundred of his men in motion under General George Izard, who moved to the attack at two o'clock in the afternoon. De Salaberry came out with a few Canadians and Indians, but finding overwhelming numbers in front of him he fell back to his intrenched camp. Firing was now heard on the other side of the river. Purdy, who had neglected to post pickets, had been surprised, his troops flying to the river. Several of his officers and men swam across, and bore alarming news of a heavy force approaching. Instead of such a force approaching, those who attacked Purdy had fled at the first fire; and so the belligerents were in the ridiculous predicament of running away from each other. De Salaberry now tried a clever trick. He posted buglers at some distance from each other, and when some concealed provincial militia opened fire almost upon Hampton's flanks, the buglers sounded a charge. Hampton was alarmed, for the position of the buglers indicated an extensive British line, and he supposed a heavy force was about to fall upon his front and flank. He immediately sounded a retreat and withdrawal to his old quarters at Chateaugay Four Corners, annoyed all the way by the fire of Canadian militia. There this inglorious campaign ended. The Americans lost in this affair fifteen killed and twenty-three wounded. The British lost in killed, wounded, and missing, twenty-five. "No officer," said a distinguished general of the United States army, "who had any regard for his reputation, would voluntarily acknowledge himself as having been engaged in it." Hampton refused to meet Wilkinson at St. Regis, as the latter had requested after the battle at Chrysler's Field. Wilkinson directed Hampton to join the camp at French Mills. This order, also, he disobeyed, and retired to Plattsburg with his army of four thousand men. He had accomplished the defeat of efforts to take Canada, by which he gratified his wish to thwart Armstrong and Wilkinson, whom, in his supreme egotism, he despised. Leaving General Izard, of South Carolina, in command at Plattsburg, Hampton abandoned the service, to the great relief of the Army of the North and the people. The Army of the North especially, and the cause generally, were greatly injured by the appointment of Armstrong, Wilkinson, and Hampton to high office. The services intrusted to them, and in which they all signally failed, would, undoubtedly, have been successfully performed by younger officers.

Army of the Potomac (1863). When the battle of Fredericksburg (which see) had ended, there was much feeling against General Burnside on the part of the officers of the Army of the Potomac who had participated in it. An order received by Burnside, just as he was preparing for other active operations, from the President of the United States (Dec. 30, 1862), directing him not to enter upon further operations without his (the President's) knowledge, satisfied him that enemies in his own army were at work against him. Burnside hastened to Washington for an explanation, when he learned that general officers of his army had declared that such was the feeling among the troops against him that the safety of the army would be imperilled by a movement under his direction. He believed there was a secret conspiracy among the officers for his removal. He returned to the army, determined to do what he might to retrieve the disaster at Fredericksburg, but was soon induced to return to Washington, bearing a general order for the instant dismissal or relief from duty of several of the generals of the Army of the Potomac, whom he charged with "fomenting discontent in the army." Generals Hooker, Brooks, and Newton were designated for instant dismissal; and Generals Franklin, W. F. Smith, Cochran, and Ferrero, and Lieutenant-colonel J. H. Taylor, were to be relieved from duty in that army. Generals Franklin and Smith had written a joint letter to the President (Dec. 21) expressing their opinion that Burnside's plan of operations could not succeed, and substantially recommending that McClellan should be reinstated in command. Burnside was competent to issue the order for such dismissal and relief on his own responsibility, but he submitted it to the President. The latter was perplexed. He talked with Burnside as a friend and brother, and it was finally arranged that the general should be relieved of the command of the Army of the Potomac and await orders for further service. Major-general Joseph Hooker was appointed Burnside's successor. In making this appointment the President wrote a fatherly letter to Hooker, in which, after speaking of his many excellent qualities as a soldier, he referred to his (Hooker) having been, with others, to blame for too freely criticising the military conduct of Burnside, and so doing a great wrong to him. He reminded Hooker that he would now be open to such criticism, but that he (Lincoln) would do what he might to suppress it, for little good could be got out of an army in which such a spirit prevailed. The army was then lying, weak and demoralized, at Falmouth, opposite Fredericksburg. From January until April (1863) Hooker was engaged in preparing for a vigorous summer campaign. His forces remained in comparative quiet for about three months, during which time they were reorganized and well disciplined, and at the close of April his army numbered one hundred thousand effective men. General Lee's army, on the other side of the river, had been divided, a large force, under General Longstreet, having been required to watch the movements of the Nationals under General Peck in the vicinity of Norfolk. Lee had in hand about sixty thousand well-drilled troops, lying behind strong intrenchments extending twenty-five miles along the line of the Rappahannock River. Hooker had made important changes in the organization of the army, and in the various staff departments; and the cavalry, hitherto scattered among the three grand divisions into which the six corps of the army had been consolidated—two corps in each—and without organization as a corps, were now consolidated and soon placed in a state of greater efficiency. To improve them he had sent them out upon raids within the Confederate lines, and for several weeks the region between Bull's Run and the Rapid Anna was the theatre of many daring cavalry exploits.

Army of the Potomac Created (1861). On the day after the battle of Bull's Run (which see) General McClellan, then in Western Virginia, was summoned to Washington and placed in command of the shattered army there. The Departments of Washington and of Northeastern Virginia were created and placed under the command of McClellan. The Department of the Shenandoah was also created, and General N. P. Banks was placed in command of it, relieving Major-general Patterson. McClellan turned over the command of the troops in Western Virginia to General Rosecrans, and on July 27 he entered with zeal upon the duty of reorganizing the army in the vicinity of the national capital. He brought to the service youth, a spotless moral character, robust health, untiring industry, a good theoretical military education, the prestige of recent success, and the unlimited confidence of the loyal people. Having laid a broad moral foundation for an efficient army organization, he proceeded with skill and vigor to mould his material into perfect symmetry. So energetically was this done that at the end of fifty days an army of at least 100,000 men, well organized, officered, equipped, and disciplined, were in and around Washington. At that time the entire force in his department included 152,000 soldiers. By the 1st of March, 1862, that number was so increased that when, at that time, the forces were put in motion, having been thoroughly drilled and disciplined, the grand total of the army was 222,000, of which number about 30,000 were sick or absent. It was called the "Grand Army of the Potomac."

Army of the Potomac on the Peninsula (1862). General McClellan left Washington for Fortress Monroe, April 1, 1862, with the greater part of the Army of the Potomac, leaving for the defence of the capital and other service more remote 75,000. Very soon there were 120,000 men at Fortress Monroe, exclusive of the forces of General Wool, the commander there. A large portion of these moved up the Peninsula in two columns, one under General S. P. Heintzelman, marching near the York River; the other under General Keyes, near the James River. A comparatively small Confederate force, under General J. B. Magruder, formed a fortified line across the Peninsula in the pathway of the Nationals. The left of this line was at Yorktown, and the right on the Warwick River, that falls into the James. In front of this line McClellan's continually augmenting army remained a month, engaged in the tedious operations of a regular siege, under the direction of General Fitz John Porter, skirmishing frequently, and, on one occasion, making a reconnoissance in force that was disastrous to the Nationals. On the 3d of May, Magruder, who had resorted to all sorts of tricks to deceive and mislead the Nationals, wrote to Cooper, of the Confederate War Department: "Thus, with five thousand men, exclusive of the garrison, we stopped and held in check over one hundred thousand of the enemy." McClellan now began those approaches toward Richmond which resulted in the Seven Days' battles near that city.

Army of the United States. The military system of the United States is based upon volunteer armies, raised as occasion may require. A small standing army is kept up for the support of good order and for safety against incursions of barbarians on the borders of expanding settlements; and a well-regulated militia, under the control of the respective states, forms an ample body of citizen soldiery. The first act for the enrolment in the militia of all able-bodied white men of eighteen and under forty-five years of age was passed by Congress in 1792. The act provided that in the organization there should be infantry, cavalry, and artillery. An act was passed early in 1795 which empowered the President, in case of invasion, or imminent danger thereof, to call forth the militia of the state or states most convenient to the place of danger. He was also empowered, in case of insurrection, or when the laws of the United States should be opposed by a combination too powerful to be suppressed by the ordinary course of judicial proceedings, to call out the militia. The late Civil War gave full examples of the working of our military system. When combinations in the slave-labor states became too powerful for the civil authorities to oppose, the President of the United States called for 75,000 militia (designating the number required from each state) to suppress the insurrection. (See *President's Call for Troops.*) As soon as the various regiments from the states were mustered into the service of the United States they were no longer under the control of their respective state governments, but of that of the national government, and were assigned to brigades, divisions, corps, and armies, according to the requirements of the service. They were then entirely supported by the national government. All their general and staff officers were commissioned by the President, and no officers, after having been mustered into the service of the United States, could be dismissed by the state authorities. During the Civil War, from first to last, 2,690,401 men, including reinforcements, were enrolled, equipped, and organized into armies. The regular army during that war was raised to something over 50,000 men, but was reduced, at its close, to 30,000 men. The standing army now (1876) numbers 25,000, and is mainly used in garrisoning the permanent fortifications, protecting the routes of travel and commerce across the continent, and preserving order among the Indian tribes west of the Mississippi River.

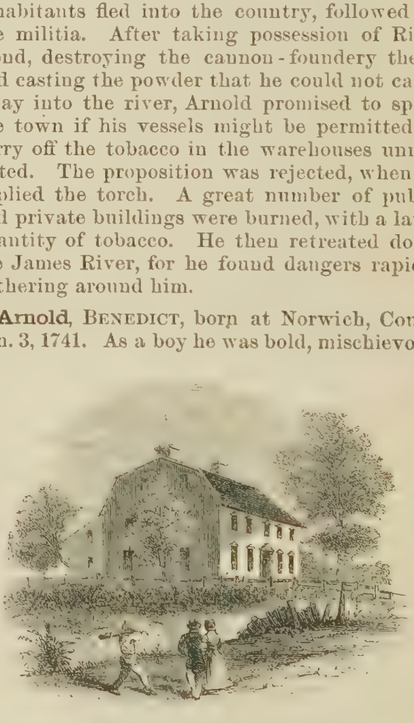
Army of Virginia (1862). To give more efficiency to the troops covering Washington in 1862, they were formed into an organization called the "Army of Virginia," and placed under the command of Major-general John Pope. General Halleck was then general-in-chief of all the armies, with his headquarters at Washington. The corps of the new army were commanded, respectively, by Generals McDowell, Banks, and Sigel. When McClellan had retreated to Harrison's Landing (which see), and the Confederate leaders were satisfied that no further attempts would then be made to take Richmond, they ordered Lee to make a dash on Washington. Hearing of this, Halleck ordered Pope, in the middle of July, to meet the intended invaders at the outset of their raid. General Rufus King lead a troop of cavalry that destroyed railroads and bridges to within thirty or forty miles of Richmond. Pope's troops were posted along a line from Fredericksburg to Winchester and Harper's Ferry, and were charged with the threefold duty of covering the national capital, guarding the valley entrance into Maryland in the rear of Washington, and threatening Richmond from the north as a diversion in favor of McClellan.

Army, The (1861). When Mr. Lincoln entered upon the duties of President of the Republic (March 4, 1861) the total regular force of the army was 16,000 men, and these were principally in the Western states and territories, guarding the frontier settlers against the Indians. The forts and arsenals on the seaboard, especially within the slave-labor states, were so weakly manned, or not manned at all, that they became an easy prey to the insurgents. The consequence was that they were seized; and when the new administration came into power, of all the fortifications within the slave-labor states only Fortress Monroe, in Virginia, and Forts Jefferson, Taylor, and Pickens, on the Gulf coast, remained in possession of the government. The seized forts were sixteen in number. They had cost the government about $6,000,000, and had an aggregate of 1226 guns. All the arsenals in the cotton-growing states had been seized. Twiggs had surrendered a portion of the National army in Texas. (See *Twiggs's Treasonable Acts.*) The army had been put so far out of reach, and the forts and arsenals in the North had been so stripped of defenders, by the treacherous Floyd, Buchanan's secretary of war, in preparation for the assault on the Union (see *Floyd's Disloyal Acts*), that the government was threatened with sudden paralysis.

Arnold at New London (1781). When Sir Henry Clinton found that the allied armies were actually going to Virginia, he tried to alarm Washington by threats and marauding expeditions. He sent the traitor, Arnold, with a band of regulars and Tories to commit atrocities in Connecticut. Arnold crossed the Sound, from Long Island, and on Sept. 6, 1781, landed his troops on each side of the Thames, below New London. He plundered and burned that town, and a part of his force took Fort Griswold, opposite, by storm. It was gallantly defended by Colonel Ledyard and a garrison of one hundred and fifty poorly-armed militiamen. Only six of the garrison were killed in the conflict, but after the surrender the British officer in command (Colonel Eyre) murdered Ledyard with his sword, and, refusing to give quarter to the garrison, seventy-three were massacred. Then the wounded were placed in a baggage-wagon and sent down the slope towards the river, with the intention of drowning them in the stream at its foot, but the vehicle was caught by an apple-tree. The cries of the sufferers could be heard above the crackling of the burning town by persons across the river. With this atrocious expedition the name of Benedict Arnold disappears from the records of our history.

Arnold at Richmond. Virginia had generously sent her best defenders to help Greene in the Carolinas, when Arnold, the traitor, invaded the state, by way of the James River, with a band of British and Tories. (See *Arnold in Virginia.*) Only militia remained to protect the state. These were called out, but they were insufficient for the emergency. Arnold penetrated to Richmond, hoping to catch Governor Jefferson there, but the latter had left. Many of the inhabitants fled into the country, followed by the militia. After taking possession of Richmond, destroying the cannon-foundery there, and casting the powder that he could not carry away into the river, Arnold promised to spare the town if his vessels might be permitted to carry off the tobacco in the warehouses unmolested. The proposition was rejected, when he applied the torch. A great number of public and private buildings were burned, with a large quantity of tobacco. He then retreated down the James River, for he found dangers rapidly gathering around him.

Arnold, Benedict, born at Norwich, Conn., Jan. 3, 1741. As a boy he was bold, mischievous, and quarrelsome. Apprenticed to an apothecary, he ran away, enlisted as a soldier, but deserted. For four years (1763–67) he was a bookseller and druggist in New Haven, Conn., and



BIRTH-PLACE OF BENEDICT ARNOLD.

was afterwards master and supercargo of a vessel trading to the West Indies. Immediately after the affair at Lexington, he raised a company of volunteers and marched to Cambridge. There he proposed to the Massachusetts Committee of Safety an expedition against Fort Ticonderoga, and was commissioned a colonel. Finding a small force, under Colonels Easton, Brown, and Allen, on the same errand when he reached Western Massachusetts, he joined them without command. (See *Ticonderoga.*) Returning to Cambridge, he was placed at the head of an expedition for the capture of Quebec, which went by the way of the Kennebec, the Wilderness, and the Chaudière River, and, after terrible sufferings, reached the St. Lawrence and boldly demanded the surrender of the city. (See *Arnold's Expedition.*) He assisted Montgomery in the siege of Quebec, and was there severely wounded in the leg. Montgomery was killed, and Arnold was promoted to brigadier-general (Jan. 10, 1776) and took command of the remnant of the American troops in the vicinity of Quebec. Succeeded by Wooster, he went up Lake Champlain to Ticonderoga, where he was placed in command of an armed flotilla on the lake. With these vessels he had disastrous battles (Oct. 11 and 13, 1776) with British vessels built at St. Johns. Arnold was deeply offended by the appointment, by Congress, early in 1777, of five of his juniors to the rank of major-general. He received the same appointment soon afterwards (Feb. 7, 1777), but the affront left an irritating thorn in his bosom, and he was continually in trouble with his fellow-officers, for his temper was violent and he was not upright in pecuniary transactions. General Schuyler admired him for his bravery, and was his abiding friend until his treason. He successfully went to the relief of Fort Schuyler on the upper Mohawk (August, 1777), with eight hundred volunteers; and in September and October following he was chiefly instrumental in the defeat of Burgoyne, in spite of General Gates. (See *Bemis's Heights, Battles on.*) There he was again severely wounded in the same leg, and was disabled several months. When the British evacuated Philadelphia (June, 1778) Arnold was appointed commander at Philadelphia, where he married the beautiful young daughter of a leading Tory (Edward Shippen), lived extravagantly, became involved in debt, was accused of dishonest official conduct, plotted treason against his country, and, when his scheme had failed, fled to the British lines and obtained his promised reward. (See *Treason of Arnold.*) Arnold led a British marauding expedition into Virginia early in 1781, when he ascended the James River and inflicted great injury by burning and pillaging property. In September (1781) he led a force of British and Tories to the coasts of Connecticut, who massacred the garrison at Fort Griswold, opposite New London, and burned the latter place. Arnold went to England at the close of the war, where he was despised and shunned by all honorable men. He was afterwards a resident of St. Johns, New Brunswick, engaged chiefly in trade and navigation, but was very unpopular. He was there hung in effigy. His son, James Robertson (an infant at the time of his father's treason), became a lieutenant-general in the British army. Arnold's second wife (daughter of Chief-justice Shippen, of Pennsylvania), whom he married when she was not quite eighteen years of age, survived him just three years. Arnold died in obscurity, but in comfortable pecuniary circumstances, in Gloucester Place, London, June 14, 1804.

Arnold in Virginia. With great generosity Virginia had sent her best troops to assist the Carolinians in their attempt to throw off the yoke laid upon their necks by Cornwallis. To call these troops back from Greene's army, the British, at the close of 1780, sent Arnold, the newly-bought traitor, into Virginia with a marauding party of British and Tories, about sixteen hundred in number, with seven armed vessels, to plunder, distress, and alarm the people of that state. In no other way could Arnold be employed by his master, for respectable British officers refused to serve with him in the army. He arrived at Hampton Roads on Dec. 30, 1780. Anxious to distinguish himself, he immediately pushed up the James River as far as Richmond, when, after destroying a large quantity of public and private stores there and in the vicinity (Jan. 5, 1781), he withdrew to Portsmouth, opposite Norfolk, and made that place his headquarters for a while. Earnest efforts were made to capture the marauder, but in vain. Jefferson offered $25,000 for his arrest, and Washington detached Lafayette, with twelve hundred men, drawn from the New England and New Jersey levies, who marched to Virginia for that purpose and to protect the state. A portion of the French fleet went from Rhode Island (March 8) to shut Arnold up in the Elizabeth River and assist in capturing him. Steuben, who was recruiting for Greene's army in Virginia, also watched him. The effort failed, for Arnold was vigilant and extremely cautious. He knew what would be his fate if caught. "What would the Americans do with me, if they should catch me?" Arnold inquired of a young prisoner. "They would cut off and bury with military honors your leg that was wounded at Saratoga, and hang the rest of you," replied the young American soldier. General Phillips joined Arnold (March 26) with more than two thousand men, and took the chief command. The traitor accompanied him on another expedition up the James River, in April, and then returned to New York, for Cornwallis, who came into Virginia from North Carolina, refused to serve with him.

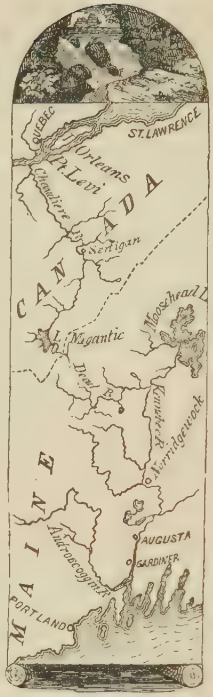
Arnold, Richard, was born in Providence, R. I., April 12, 1828, and graduated at West Point in 1850. Entering the artillery, he served in Florida, and was aid to General Wool in California. He was at the battle of Bull's Run, served on the Peninsula, and was made chief of artillery of Banks's expedition in November, 1862, when he was commissioned brigadier-general of volunteers. At Port Hudson (which see) and in the Red River campaign (which see) he rendered important service; also in the capture of Fort Fisher, and of Fort Morgan, near Mobile.

He was breveted major-general U. S. Army in 1866.

Arnold, Samuel Greene, was born in Providence, R. I., April 12, 1821. He graduated at Brown University in 1841, and the Cambridge Law School in 1845. After extensive travel in Europe, the East, and South America, he became, in 1852, lieutenant-governor of Rhode Island, and in 1861 a delegate to the Peace Convention (which see). He took the field a little later in command of a battery of artillery, and as aide-de-camp to Governor Sprague. He was lieutenant-governor, 1861–62, and United States Senator in 1863. He was the author of a valuable *History of Rhode Island*, published in 1859–60. Mr. Arnold died Feb. 14, 1880.

Arnold's attempt at Corruption. Soon after his flight to the British army, Arnold, the traitor, published an "Address to the Inhabitants of America," in which he attempted to gloss over his treason by abusing the Congress and the French alliance. He also published a "Proclamation to the Officers and Soldiers of the Continental Army," in which he contrasted the wretchedness of their condition with the prompt pay and abundant supplies of the British service. To induce them to desert he offered fifteen dollars to every private soldier, and to the officers commissions in the British army according to their rank and the number of men they might bring with them. This effort by a traitor to corrupt those whom he had sought to betray produced no result except to excite the contempt and scorn of the American soldiers.

Arnold's Expedition to Quebec. While Montgomery was successfully invading Canada by way of Lake Champlain, Colonel Benedict Arnold was making his way to the St. Lawrence and Quebec by the Kennebec and Chaudière rivers, through a terrible wilderness. Arnold, commissioned a colonel in the Continental Army, left Cambridge with a little more than one thousand men, composed of New England musketeers and riflemen from Virginia and Pennsylvania, the latter under Captain Daniel Morgan. He sailed from Newburyport for the Kennebec in the middle of September, 1775. They rendezvoused at Fort Western, on the Kennebec River, opposite the site of the present city of Augusta, Maine, and on the verge of a wilderness uninhabited except by a few Indian hunters. At Norridgewock Falls (see *Ralle*) their severe labors began. Their bateaux were drawn by oxen, and their provisions were carried on their backs around the falls—a wearisome task often repeated as they pressed towards the head-waters of the Kennebec, often wading and pushing their bateaux against swift currents. At length they left that stream and traversed tangled ravines, craggy knolls, and deep morasses, until they reached the Dead River. That stream flowed placidly on the summit of the water-shed between the St. Lawrence and the Atlantic, and they moved pleasantly over its bosom until they encamped at the foot of a high mountain capped with snow. Sickness and desertion now began to reduce the number of effective men. October was passing away. Keen blasts came from the north. A heavy rain fell, and the water, rushing from the hills, suddenly filled the Dead River to its brim and overflowed its banks. Some of the boats were overturned and much provision was lost or spoiled. Food for only twelve days remained. A detachment was sent to get a supply, but did not return. The floods began to freeze and the morasses became almost impassable. Through ice-cold water they were frequently compelled to wade; even two women, wives of soldiers, endured this hardship. At length they reached the Chaudière River, that empties into the St. Lawrence. Starvation threatened. Seventy miles lay between them and Sertigan, the nearest French settlement. Leaving his troops on the banks of the upper Chaudière, Arnold and fifty-five men started down the river for Sertigan to obtain food. Two or three boats had been wrecked just before their departure, and much of their scanty supply of food was lost. Arnold and his party reached the settlement. Indians were sent back with provisions and as guides for the rest of the troops to the settlement. When the forces were joined they moved towards the St. Lawrence; and on the 9th of November, in a heavy snow-storm, they suddenly appeared at Point Levi, opposite Quebec, only seven hundred and fifty in number. It was almost two months after they left Cambridge before they reached the St. Lawrence. Their sufferings from cold and hunger had been extreme. At one time they had attempted to make broth of boiled deer-skin moccasins to sustain life, and a dog belonging to Henry (afterwards General) Dearborn made savory food for them. In this expedition were men who afterwards became famous in American history—Aaron Burr, R. J. Meigs, Henry Dearborn, Daniel Morgan, and others.



ARNOLD'S ROUTE THROUGH THE WILDERNESS.

Arsenal at St. Louis, Attempted Seizure of. Under the inspiration of a disloyal graduate of the West Point Academy (Daniel M. Frost), a native of New York, and under the lead of the Governor of Missouri (C. F. Jackson), an attempt was made in May, 1861, to seize the U. S. Arsenal at St. Louis. The Secessionists had already seized one unguarded arsenal at Liberty, Clay County, under the direction of the governor, but the one at St. Louis was guarded by five hundred regular troops, under Captain Nathaniel Lyon, who had been appointed commander of the post in place of Major Bell, a Secessionist. The governor had sent orders to the militia officers of the state to assemble their respective commands and go into encampment for a week, the avowed object being "to attain a greater degree of efficiency and perfection in discipline." For weeks before the President's call for troops the Secessionists of St. Louis were drilled in the use of fire-arms in a building in that city; were furnished with state arms by the governor; received commissions from him, and were sworn into the military service of the state. They were closely watched by a few Unionists, and finally the latter class in St. Louis (who were largely of the German population) were formed into military companies, and drilled in the use of fire-arms. When the President's call for troops came, they openly drilled, made their place of meeting a citadel, established a perpetual guard, and kept up constant communication with the arsenal. They were denounced by the Secessionists as "outlaws, incendiaries, and miscreants," preparing to make war on Missouri. They were relieved by an order from the President (April 30, 1861) for Captain Lyon to enroll into the military service of the United States the loyal citizens of St. Louis, in number not exceeding one thousand. This order was procured chiefly through the influence of Colonel (afterwards Major-general) Frank P. Blair, who had already raised and organized a regiment of Missourians, and assisted in the primary formation of four others. Meanwhile, in accordance with an order from General Wool (see *Wool, Relief of the Capital*), a large portion of the arms at the arsenal were removed (April 26) secretly to Alton, Illinois, in a steamboat, and thence by railway to Springfield. Frost, the New York Secessionist, whom the governor had commissioned a brigadier-general, formed a militia camp in the suburbs of St. Louis, and, to deceive the people, kept the national flag flying over it. Captain Lyon had enrolled a large number of volunteers, who occupied the arsenal grounds. Some of them, for want of room, occupied ground outside. The St. Louis police demanded their return to the government grounds, because they were "Federal soldiers, violating the rights of the sovereign state of Missouri." No attention was paid to this demand. To make his little force appear large, Lyon sent out squads at night to distant points, to return in the morning with drums beating and flags flying. Finally word came to Lyon that cannons and mortars, in boxes marked "marble," had been landed from a steamboat and sent to Frost's Secession camp. Disguised as a woman, closely veiled, Lyon rode around that camp, and was satisfied that it was time for him to act with vigor. Early in the afternoon of May 9, Lyon, by a quick movement, surrounded Frost's camp with six thousand troops and heavy cannon, and placing guards so as to prevent any communication with the city, demanded of the commander the immediate surrender of men and munitions of war under him, giving him only thirty minutes for deliberation. Intelligence of this movement had reached the city, and an armed mob of Secessionists rushed out to assist their friends. They were too late. Frost surrendered his twelve hundred militia, twelve hundred new rifles, twenty cannons, several chests of muskets, and a large quantity of ammunition. Most of these materials of war had been stolen from the arsenal at Baton Rouge. As the prisoners were marching out of the camp, the mob fired on the National troops. The fire was returned, and about twenty persons in the crowd were wounded, some of them mortally. That night was one of great excitement in St. Louis. The mob paraded the streets until after midnight, but no serious disturbance occurred. Two days afterwards (May 11), as some of the troops were entering the town from the arsenal, a boy in an excited crowd fired a pistol at the soldiers. The rear line turned and fired, when the column, broken, fired quickly upon the multitude on the sidewalks. Several persons were killed or wounded, and some of the soldiers were badly hurt by the wild firing of the mob. The arsenal was saved. On the 12th General W. S. Harney resumed command of the Department of the West, of which he was the head. Order was restored. Excepting once afterwards (June 18), St. Louis was spared from scenes of bloodshed during the war.

UNITED STATES ARSENAL AT ST. LOUIS.

Articles of Confederation. In July, 1775, Dr. Franklin submitted to the Continental Congress a plan of government for the colonies, to exist until the war then begun with Great Britain should cease. It was not acted upon. On July 12, 1776, a committee, appointed on July 11, reported, through John Dickenson, of Pennsylvania, a draft of "Articles of Confederation." Almost daily debates upon it continued until August 20, when the report was laid aside, and was not called up for consideration until April 8, 1777. Meanwhile several of the states had adopted constitutions for their respective governments, and the Congress was practically acknowledged the supreme head in all matters appertaining to war, public finances, etc., and was exercising the functions of sovereignty. From April 8 until Nov. 15 ensuing, the subject was debated two or three times a week, and several amendments were made. On Nov. 15, 1777, after a spirited debate, daily, for a fortnight, a plan of government, known as "Articles of Confederation," was adopted, the substance of which was, that the thirteen confederated states should be known as the "United States of America;" that all engage in a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship for mutual advantage; each to assist the other when help should be needed; that each state should have the right to regulate its own internal affairs; that no state should separately send or receive embassies, begin any negotiations, contract engagements or alliances, or conclude treaties with any foreign power, without the consent of the general Congress; that no public officer should be allowed to accept any presents, emoluments, office, or title from any foreign power; and that neither Congress nor state governments should possess the power to confer any title of nobility; that none of the states should have the right to form alliances among themselves without the consent of Congress; that they should not have the power to levy duties contrary to the enactments of the Congress; that no state should keep up a standing army or ships of war in time of peace, beyond the amount stipulated by Congress; that when any of the states should raise troops for the common defence, all officers of the rank of colonel or under should be appointed by the legislature of the state, and the superior officers by Congress; that all expenses of the war should be paid out of the public treasury; that Congress alone should have the power to coin money; and that Canada might at any time be admitted into the confederacy when she felt disposed. The last clauses of the "Articles of Confederation" were explanatory of the powers of certain governmental operations, and contained details of the same. Under this weak government, without a sovereign head anywhere, its whole being subject to the caprices of thirteen distinct legislative bodies, the inchoate nation existed about seven years, when this form of government was superseded by one under a constitution plethoric with national life, and by which the republic has become one of the leading members of the family of nations. The "Articles of Confederation" were submitted to the several state legislatures, and if approved by them they were advised to authorize their delegates to ratify the same by affixing their signatures thereto. Slowly the states ratified them, some of them pointing out serious defects, and all taking time to discuss them. The work was finally accomplished, March 1, 1781, by the signatures of the delegates from all the colonies. (See *Articles of Confederation, Signing of the.*)

Articles of Confederation, SIGNING OF THE. Congress again assembled, in Philadelphia, on July 2, 1778, and on the 9th the "Articles of Confederation" (which see), engrossed on parchment, were signed by the delegates of eight states. A circular was sent to the other states, urging them "to conclude the glorious compact which was to unite the strength and councils of the whole." North Carolina acceded to the Confederation on the 21st of July; Georgia on the 24th, and New Jersey on the 26th of November following. On May 5, 1779, the delegates from Delaware agreed to the compact; but Maryland steadily refused to assent without a compliance with its demands that the public lands northwest of the Ohio should first be recognized as the common property of all the states, and held as a common resource for the discharge of the debts contracted by Congress for the expense of the war. Maryland alone stood in the way of the consummation of the union at that time. This point was finally settled by the cession, by claiming states, to the United States, of all unsettled and unappropriated lands, for the benefit of the whole Union. This action having removed all objections, the delegates from Maryland signed the "Articles of Confederation" March 1, 1781, and the league of states was perfected.

Artillery, THE ANCIENT AND HONORABLE, was organized in Boston, Mass., in 1638, and is still (1876) in existence. It is the oldest military organization in the United States. On the occasion of its annual election of officers it has a sermon preached. The first one was by the Rev. Uriah Oakes, in 1672. On the top of the Bunker Hill Monument are two cannons, named respectively "Hancock" and "Adams," which formerly belonged to this artillery company. The "Adams" was burst by them in firing a salute. Each gun bears the following inscription: "SACRED TO LIBERTY. This is one of four cannons which constituted the whole train of field-artillery possessed by the British colonies of North America at the commencement of the war, on the 19th of April, 1775. This cannon and its fellow, belonging to a number of citizens of Boston, were used in many engagements during the war. The other two, the property of the government of Massachusetts, were taken by the enemy."

Arts, FINE, INTRODUCTION OF THE. The earlier settlers in our country were compelled to battle with privations of every kind, and for long years were struggling to overcome the wilderness and to procure food and clothing. This condition did not admit of the cultivation of æsthetic tastes. Their architecture was at first little superior in form to the log-hut, and painting and sculpture were strangers to most of the inhabitants. Music, for use in public worship only, was cultivated to the extent of the ability of the common singing-master, and only occasionally poetry was attempted. Engraving was wholly unknown before the middle of the last century. At about that time Horace Walpole wrote, "As our disputes and politics have travelled to America, it is probable that poetry and painting, too, will revive amidst those extensive tracts, as they increase in opulence and empire, and where the stores of nature are so various, so magnificent, and so new." That was written fourteen years before the Declaration of Independence. Little could he comprehend the value of freedom, such as the Americans were then about to struggle for, in the development of every department of the fine arts, of which Dean Berkeley had a prophetic glimpse when he wrote:

> "There shall be sung another Golden Age,
> The rise of empires and of arts,
> The good and great, inspiring epic rage,
> The wisest heads and noblest hearts."

The first painter who found his way to America professionally was John Watson, a Scotchman, who was born in 1685. He began the practice of his art at Perth Amboy, then the capital of New Jersey, in 1715, where he purchased land and built houses. He lived long, and died at an old age. John Smybert (which see) came with Dean Berkeley in 1728, and began portrait-painting in Newport, R. I. Nathan Smybert, "an amiable youth," began the practice of painting, but died young in 1757. During John Smybert's time there were Blackburn in Boston and Williams of Philadelphia who painted portraits. These were all Englishmen. The first American painter was Benjamin West, who spent a greater part of his life in England, where he attained to a high reputation. (See *West.*) John Singleton Copley was his contemporary, and painted portraits so early as 1760. At the same time Woollaston, who painted the portraits of Mrs. Custis (afterwards Mrs. Washington) and her husband, about 1756. He was an Englishman. At the period of the Revolution, Charles Wilson Peale, who had learned the manipulation of the art from Hesselius, a portrait painter, was the only American, if we except young Trumbull, who might be called a good artist, for Copley had gone to England. So it was that the fine art of painting was introduced. At that time there were no professional architects in the United States. Plans for churches, other than the ordinary buildings, were procured from abroad. The "meeting-house" of that day was only the shell of a dwelling-house, with very little decoration, and with a small bell-tower rising a few feet above the roof. The dwelling-houses were extremely plain, generally. When a fine one was to be built, plans, and even materials sometimes, were procured from Europe. But from the beginning of the present century there have been competent American architects, who have carried the people through the various styles—the Greek, Gothic, and Mansard — of architecture. Sculpture waited long for a practitioner in America, and very little of the sculptor's art was known in this country. Within forty or fifty years it has become appreciated, and now the demand for statuary promises a fair future for the sculptor. Among the earlier of good American sculptors were Horatio Greenough and Hiram Powers. They may be said to have introduced the art. Greenough was the first American who produced a marble group —"The Chanting Cherubs," for J. Fenimore Cooper. Until within the last forty years there was a prudish feeling in this country that made nude figures an abomination. So sensitive were the ladies of Philadelphia concerning the antique figures displayed at the exhibitions of the Academy of Fine Arts, that one day in the week was set apart for the visits of the gentler sex. Crawford gave to American sculpture a fame that widened that of Greenough and Powers. Now (1880) we have as able sculptors as any in the world. Music has had a habitation here, first in the form of psalm-singing, from the earliest settlements. Now its excellent professors and practitioners are legion in number. The graphic art in our country is only a little more than a century old. Nathaniel Hurd, of Boston, engraved on copper portraits and caricatures as early as 1762. Paul Revere, also, engraved at the period of the Revolution. He engraved the plates for the Continental money. Amos Doolittle was one of the earliest of our better engravers on copper. The late Dr. Alexander Anderson (which see) was the first man who engraved on wood in this country—an art now brought to the highest perfection here. The earliest and best engraver on steel was Asher B. Durand, now (1880) living, who became one of the first line-engravers in the world, but abandoned the profession for the art of painting. The art of lithography was introduced into the United States, in 1821, by Messrs. Burnet and Doolittle, and steadily gained favor as a cheap method of producing pictures. It is now extensively employed in producing chromo-lithographic pictures. Photography, the child of the daguerreotype, was first produced in England by Mr. Talbot, and was introduced here chiefly by the labors in science of Dr. J. W. Draper of New York. Indeed, the discovery of the process of making pictures by employing sunlight as the artist was the result of the previous experiments and writings concerning the chemical action of light by Dr. Draper. The "American Academy of Fine Arts" was incorporated in 1808, and the first public exhibition of works of art followed. It did not prosper. At the suggestion of S. F. B. Morse, younger painters associated, and in 1826 organized the "National Academy of the Arts of Design in the United States." Mr. Morse was the first president. Only two of the original officers (Asher B. Durand and Thomas S. Cummings) survive in 1880.

Asboth, Alexander Sandor, a native of Hungary, where he was born Dec. 18, 1811, died in Buenos Ayres, Jan. 21, 1868. He had served in the Austrian army, and at the outbreak of the European revolution in 1848 he entered the insurgent army of Hungary, struggling for Hungarian independence. He accompanied Kossuth in exile in Turkey. In the autumn of 1851 he came to the United States in the frigate *Mississippi*, and became a citizen. When the Civil War broke out in 1861 he offered his services to the government, and in July he went as chief of Fremont's staff to Missouri, where he was soon promoted to brigadier-general. He performed faithful services until wounded in the face and one arm, in Florida, in a battle on Sept. 27, 1864. For his services there he was breveted a major-general in the spring of 1865, and in August following he resigned, and was appointed Minister to the Argentine Republic. The wound in his face caused his death.

Asbury, Francis, D.D., was the first bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church in America. He was born at Handsworth, Staffordshire, England, Aug. 26, 1745; died at Spottsylvania, Va., March 31, 1816. In his twenty-third year he became an itinerant preacher under the guidance of John Wesley, and came to the United States in 1771. The next year Wesley appointed him general superintendent of the Methodist churches in America, and he held that office until the close of the Revolution, when the Methodists here organized as a body separate from the church in England. Mr. Asbury was consecrated bishop by Dr. Coke in 1784. After that, for thirty-two years, he travelled yearly through the United States, ordaining not less than 3000 ministers, and preaching not less than 17,000 sermons.

Asgill, SIR CHARLES, held for retaliation by Washington. (See *Huddy and Asgill.*) He was born in England in 1762; died a baronet and British general in July, 1823. He was a son of Sir Charles Asgill, Alderman of London. He was among the troops under Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown, where he held the position of captain. After his narrow escape from death under the law of retaliation, he returned home, and served with the troops engaged in suppressing a rebellion in Ireland. He was commissioned a major-general in 1814.

Ashby, TURNER, was born in Fauquier County, Va., in 1824; killed in the battle of Cross Keys (which see), June 6, 1862. When the Civil War began he raised a regiment of insurgent cavalry, which soon became celebrated. He covered the retreat of "Stonewall Jackson" from attacks by General Banks and General Fremont, skirmishing with the vanguard of each; and he was made a brigadier-general in the Confederate army in 1862.

Ashe, JOHN, a general of the Revolution. He was born in England in 1721; died in Duplin County, N. C., Oct. 24, 1781. He came to America with his father while yet a small child. He was in the North Carolina Legislature for several years, and was speaker in 1762–65. He warmly opposed the Stamp Act (which see); assisted Governor Tryon in suppressing the Regulator movement in 1771 (see *Regulators*), but soon afterwards became a zealous Whig. He was an active patriot, and because he led five hundred men to destroy Fort Johnson (which see) he was denounced as a rebel. Raising and equipping a regiment at his own expense, he was appointed brigadier of the Wilmington district in April, 1776. He joined Lincoln in South Carolina in 1778; and after he was defeated at Brier Creek (which see), in March, 1779, he returned home. General Ashe suffered much at the hands of the British at Wilmington after the battle at Guilford (which see), and died of small-pox, which he had contracted in prison.

Ashmun, JEHUDI, Agent of the Colonization Society, was born at Champlain, N. Y., in April, 1794; died Aug. 25, 1828. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1816, and prepared for the ministry. He was sent with a reinforcement to the colony of Liberia (which see) in 1822, where he acted as legislator, soldier, and engineer in constructing fortifications. He had a force of only thirty-five men and boys, with which he repulsed the attacks of eight hundred natives. His wife died, and he, attacked by fevers, was compelled, by broken health, to sail for America. A fortnight after his arrival at New Haven, Conn., he died. He had made the settlement in Africa orderly and permanent during the six years he was there.

"Asia," THE, AT NEW YORK. This British man-of-war brought Governor Tryon to New York (June, 1775), and anchored off the Grand Battery, foot of Broadway. A party led by John Lamb, a captain of artillery, proceeded, on the evening of Aug. 23, to remove the cannons from that battery and the fort (for war seemed inevitable) and take them to a place of safety. There was, also, an independent corps, under Colonel Lasher, and a body of citizens, guided by Isaac Sears. The captain of the *Asia*, informed of the intended movement, sent a barge filled with armed men to watch the patriots. The latter, indiscreetly, sent a musket-ball among the men in the barge, killing and wounding several. It was answered by a volley. The *Asia* hurled three round shot ashore in quick succession. Lamb ordered the drums to beat to arms; the church-bells in the city were rung, and, while all was confusion and alarm, the war-ship fired a broadside. Others rapidly followed. Several houses were injured by the grape and round shot, and three of Sears's party were killed. Terror seized the inhabitants as the rumor spread that the city was to be sacked and burned. Hundreds of men, women, and children were seen, at midnight, hurrying from the town to places of safety. The exasperation of the citizens was intense; and Tryon, taking counsel of his fears, took refuge on another vessel of war in the harbor, whence, like Dunmore, he attempted to exercise authority as governor. Among the citizens led by Sears was Alexander Hamilton, then a student in King's (Columbia) College, eighteen years of age. The cannon were removed from the battery and fort, and were hidden on the college grounds. These did good service in the patriot cause afterwards.

Aspirations for Political Independence, THE FIRST IN AMERICA. With the dawn of 1766, there were, here and there, almost whispered expressions of a desire for political independence of Great Britain. Samuel Adams had talked of it in private; but in Virginia, where the flame of resistance to the Stamp Act burned with vehemence, Richard Bland, in a printed "Inquiry into the Rights of the British Colonies," etc., claimed freedom from all parliamentary legislation; and he pointed to independence as a remedy in case of a refusal of redress. He appealed to the "law of nature and those rights of mankind which flow from it," and pleaded that the people of the English colonies ought to be as free in the exercise of privileges as the people of England—freedom from taxation, customs, and impositions, excepting with the consent of their general assemblies. He denounced the navigation laws (which see) as unjust towards the colonies, because the latter were not represented in Parliament. This was but an expression of sentiments then rapidly spreading, and which soon grew into strong desires for political independence.

Assassination of President Lincoln. On the morning of April 14, 1865, General Grant arrived in Washington, and attended a meeting of the Cabinet at eleven o'clock. An arrangement was made, at the close of the meeting, for the President and the General to attend Ford's Theatre in the evening, and a box was engaged. The General was called to New York, and did not attend. The President, with Mrs. Lincoln and a little party, were there. Mr. Lincoln was seated in a high-back chair. The play was *Our American Cousin;* and just before its close, at a little past ten o'clock, John Wilkes Booth, an actor by profession, entered the President's box, closed and fastened the door behind him, and with a Derringer pistol in one hand and a dagger in the other, he rested the former on the back of the chair and shot the President. The ball entered behind the ear, passed through his brain, and lodged near one of his eyes. The President lived nine hours afterwards, but in an insensible state. The assassin was seized by Major Rathbone, who was in the box. Booth dropped his pistol, struck Rathbone on the arm with his dagger, tore away from his grasp, rushed to the front of the box with the gleaming weapon in his hand, and shouting "Sic semper tyrannis" (So may it always be with tyrants—the motto on the seal of Virginia), leaped upon the stage. He was booted and spurred for a night ride. One of his spurs caught in the flag, and he fell. Rising, he turned to the audience and said, "The South is avenged!" and then escaped by a back door. There he mounted a horse which a boy had held for him, fled across the Anacosta, and found temporary refuge among sympathizing friends in Maryland. The President died the next morning, April 15. Booth was pursued and overtaken in Virginia, concealed in a barn. He refused to surrender. The barn was set on fire, and the assassin was shot by a sergeant. The President's body was embalmed and taken back to his home in Springfield by almost the same route as he went to the capital more than four years before. Everywhere funeral honors were performed, and the loyal people of the land were his sincere mourners. Foreign governments and distinguished men expressed their grief and sympathy, and forty thousand French Democrats testified their appreciation of his character and services by causing a magnificent gold medal to be struck and presented to the President's widow. (See *Lincoln Medal.*) Mr. Lincoln's remains repose at Springfield, Ill.

Assiniboins, a branch of the Dakota family, inhabiting each side of the boundary-line between the United States and British America in Montana and Manitoba. They were originally a part of the Yankton Sioux, but, after a bitter quarrel about women, they separated from the main body at the beginning of the seventeenth century, and the two bands have ever remained hostile. The French discovered them as early as 1640. In 1871 the number of Assiniboins in the United States was estimated at four thousand eight hundred and fifty.

Assistants, COURT OF. (See *Court of Assistants.*)

Associated Loyalists, BOARD OF. This board, formed in the winter of 1779–80, was organized for the purpose of embodying such American loyalists as did not desire to enter military life as a profession, but were anxious to serve the king. William Franklin, only son of Dr. Franklin, and the last royal governor of New Jersey, was made president of the board; and in the course of 1780–81 they collected a considerable navy of small vessels in Long Island Sound for predatory expeditions, making Oyster Bay its general rendezvous. They established their headquarters at Lloyd's Neck, an elevated promontory between Oyster Bay and Huntington harbor, where the Tories had erected a small fort. The chief operations of the association were directed against the Whig inhabitants on Long Island and the neighboring shores. There were branches in New Jersey and elsewhere. Their depredations aroused a fierce spirit of retaliation, and the manifest mischief to the royal cause which the association was working caused its dissolution at the close of 1781.

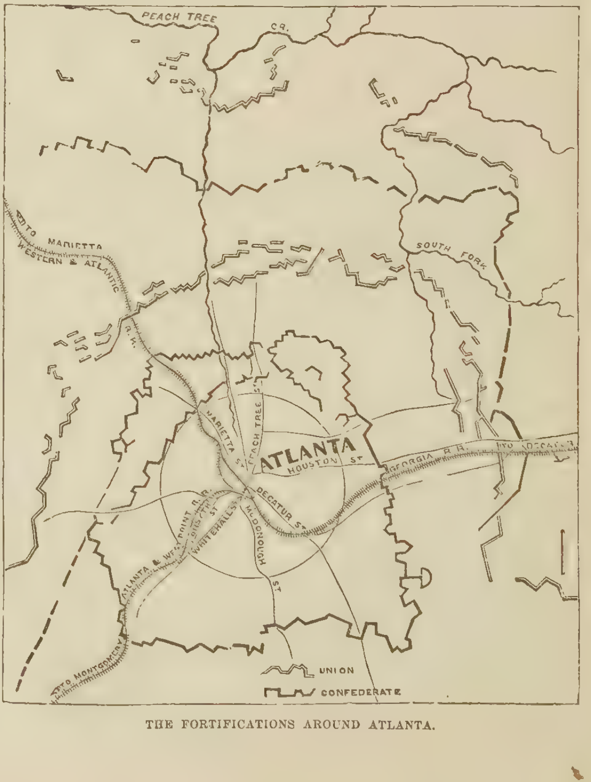
Astor, JOHN JACOB, founder of the Astor Library, New York, was born at Waldorf, Germany, July 17, 1763; died in New York city, March 29, 1848. Joining his brother, a dealer in musical instruments in London, at the age of sixteen, he remained until he was twenty, when, with a small stock of furs, he began business in New York. He built up a vast fur-trade with the Indians, extending his business to the mouth of Columbia River, on the Pacific coast, where he founded the trading station of Astoria in 1811. By this and other operations in trade, and by investments in real estate, he accumulated vast wealth. He appropriated four hundred thousand dollars for establishing a library in the city of New York, and afterwards added an endowment fund.

Astor Library, THE, was founded under the provisions of the will of John Jacob Astor (which see), who bequeathed $400,000 "for the establishment of a public library in the city of New York." It was placed under the care of eleven trustees. At the head of the first board of managers was Washington Irving; and the mayor of New York and the chancellor of the university of the state for the time being are *ex officio* members of the board of trustees. Aided by Dr. J. G. Coggswell, one of the trustees, Mr. Astor had, so early as 1839, purchased a number of volumes with the ultimate intention expressed in his will. The first meeting of the trustees was in May, 1848, when Dr. Coggswell was appointed superintendent. He went to Europe in the fall of 1848, authorized to purchase books to the amount of $20,000. He was absent four months, and collected 20,000 volumes. During other visits to Europe the number of volumes was increased to 70,000, with which the library was first opened, Jan. 9, 1854. The library building is in Lafayette Place. In January, 1856, the first building (the library room one hundred feet in length and fifty-four in width) having become filled, William B. Astor, eldest son of the founder, gave a lot of land adjoining to the trustees, on which another library building was erected in 1859. Both buildings may contain 200,000 volumes, and are rapidly filling up. In December, 1866, William B. Astor made a further donation to the library of $50,000, and at his death, in 1877, he made, by his will, further provision for the enlargement of the library.

Athabascas. A nation of North American Indians divided into two great families, one bordering on the Esquimaux in the northwest, and the other stretching along the Mexican frontier from Texas to the Gulf of California. The domain of the northern family extends across the continent from Hudson's Bay to the Pacific Ocean. There are some smaller bands of the same nation, scattered along the Pacific coast from Cook's Inlet to Umpqua River, in Oregon. The northern family is divided into a large number of tribes, none of them particularly distinguished. The population of the northern family is estimated at 32,000, that of the scattered bands at 25,000, and the southern family at 17,000. The latter includes the Navajos and those fierce rovers, the Apaches, with which the government of the United States has had much to do. (See *Navajos* and *Apaches.*) The southern family also includes the Lipans on the borders of Texas. (See *Lipans.*) The Athabascas are distinguished for their heavy beards, short hands and feet, and square, massive heads. They derive their name from Lake Athabasca, in British North America, in latitude 59° north, and half-way between Hudson's Bay and the Rocky Mountains. They claim to have come from the West, over a series of islands, and from a land covered with snow. Some observers trace in their language and features a resemblance to the Tartar race.

Atlanta, EVACUATION OF. Hood, flanked out of Atlanta, was joined by Hardee near Jonesborough. He left the city half in ruins by incendiary fires. The Nationals marched in (Sept. 2, 1864) with drums beating and flags flying. Two days afterwards, Sherman issued an order for the inhabitants to leave the town within five days, that the place might be appropriated to military purposes. He deemed the measure humane, under the circumstances, for he expected the Confederates to attack him there. To a remonstrance by Hood, he replied, "God will judge me in good time, and he will pronounce whether it be more humane to fight with a town full of women and the families of a brave people at our backs, or to remove them in time to places of safety among their own friends." In a few days Atlanta was thoroughly evacuated by the civilians.

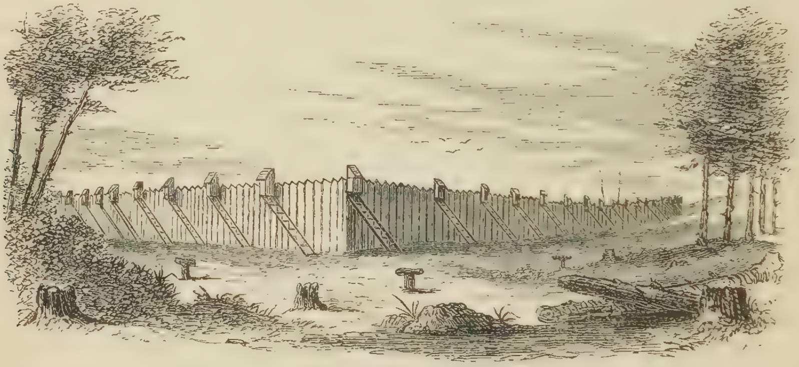
Atlanta (GEORGIA), SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF (1864). The main National and Confederate armies remained quiet in their camps after their arrival at the Chattahoochee (which see) until the middle of July. Sherman was eight miles from the city. On the 17th he resumed offensive and active operations, by throwing Thomas's army across the Chattahoochee, close to Schofield's right, with directions to move forward. McPherson moved against the railway east of Decatur, and destroyed (July 18) four miles of the track. Schofield seized Decatur. At the same time Thomas crossed Peach-tree Creek, on the 19th, in the face of the Confederate intrenchments, skirmishing heavily at every step. At this juncture, General Rousseau, who had swept through Alabama and Northern Georgia, joined Sherman with 2000 cavalry. On the 20th the National armies had all closed in, converging towards Atlanta, and at 4 o'clock P.M. the Confederates, under Hood (see *Army Changes at Atlanta*), made a sortie, and struck Hooker's corps with great strength. The Confederates were repulsed and driven back to their intrenchments. The entire National loss in this conflict was 1500 men; Sherman estimated that of the Confederates at not less than 5000 men. Hood left on the field 500 dead, 1000 severely wounded, and many prisoners. On the morning of the 21st, the Confederates had abandoned their position on the south side of Peach-tree Creek, and Sherman believed they were evacuating Atlanta. He pressed on towards the town in a narrow semicircle, when, at the average distance of two miles from it, the Nationals were confronted by an inner line of intrenchments much stronger than the one just abandoned. Behind these swarmed a Confederate host. On



THE FORTIFICATIONS AROUND ATLANTA.

the 22d, McPherson moved from Decatur to assail this strong line; Logan's corps formed his centre, Dodge's his right, and Blair's his left. The latter had driven the Confederates from a commanding eminence the evening before, and the Nationals proceeded to plant a battery upon it. Hood had left a sufficient number of troops in front of Sherman to hold them, and, by a night march to the flank and rear of the Nationals, struck them a severe and unexpected blow. It fell with heaviest force on the division of General G. A. Smith, of Blair's corps. McPherson had ridden from Sherman to Dodge's moving column, and had entered a wood almost alone, for observation, in the rear of Smith's column. At that moment Hardee charged upon the Nationals, and his men were pouring into a gap between Blair and Dodge. McPherson had just given an order from his place in the wood for a brigade to fill that gap, when the bullet of a sharp-shooter killed him. His body was recovered during the heat of the battle that ensued. Logan immediately took command of the Army of the Tennessee. At that moment the battle was general all along the line, and raged fiercely for several hours. At 4 o'clock P.M. there was a brief lull in the contest. Then a charge of the Confederates broke Logan's line, pushed back a brigade in much disorder, and took possession of two important batteries. Sherman ordered up reinforcements, and Logan soon recovered the ground lost. Very soon the Confederates gave way and fell back to their defences. The losses on both sides were heavy. That of the Nationals was 3722, of whom about 1000 were prisoners. Generals Thomas and Schofield having well closed up, Hood was firmly held behind his inner line of intrenchments. Sherman concluded to make a flank movement, and sent Stoneman with about 5000 cavalry, and McCook with another mounted force, including Rousseau's cavalry, to destroy the railways in Hood's rear. McCook performed his part well (see *McCook's Raid*); but Stoneman, departing from Sherman's instructions, did not accomplish much. Simultaneously with these raids, Slocum began (July 27) a flanking movement from Atlanta. Hood had penetrated Sherman's design, knew of changes in his army, and acted promptly. Under cover of an artillery fire, he moved out with the larger part of his army (July 28), with the expectation of finding Howard's forces in confusion. He was mistaken, and disastrous consequences followed. He threw heavy masses of his troops upon Logan's corps on Howard's right, and was met by a fire that made fearful havoc in their ranks. They recoiled, but returned to the attack again and again. The battle raged fearfully from noon until about 4 o'clock, when the Confederates retired to their intrenchments, leaving several hundred of their dead on the field. Hood's entire loss in this struggle was about 5000 men; that of the Nationals did not exceed 600. Logan captured 2000 muskets, and took 233 prisoners. Sherman extended his right along an intrenched line to the junction of two railways at East Point, over which came the supplies for Atlanta and Hood's army; and the latter, extending a parallel line of works, stood on the defensive. Sherman's long-range guns kindled destructive fires in Atlanta. At length Hood, who had lost half his infantry in rash encounters, in sheer desperation sent out Wheeler with his cavalry to break up Sherman's communications and capture supplies. Kilpatrick made a successful counter-movement. On the 25th all of Sherman's munitions of war, supplies, and sick and wounded men were sent to his intrenched position on the Chattahoochee, the siege of Atlanta was raised, and the Nationals began a grand flanking movement, which events had delayed, and which finally caused Hood to abandon the coveted post, cross the Chattahoochee, and make a formidable raid upon Sherman's communications. The Nationals entered Atlanta as victors on Sept. 2, 1864, and the national flag was unfurled over the court-house.

Atlanta to the Sea. When General Sherman had resolved to march through the heart of Georgia from Atlanta to the sea, he delegated to General Thomas full power over all the troops under his (Sherman's) command excepting four corps. He also gave him command of two divisions of A. J. Smith's, then returning from the expulsion of Price from Missouri, also of all the garrisons in Tennessee, and all the cavalry of the Military Division excepting a division under Kilpatrick, which he reserved for operations in Georgia. General Wilson had just arrived from Petersburg to take command of the cavalry of the army. He was sent to Nashville to gather up all the Union cavalry in Kentucky and Tennessee, and report to Thomas. It was believed that Thomas now had strength sufficient to keep Hood out of Tennessee, whose force then was about thirty-five thousand infantry and ten thousand cavalry. When, on Nov. 1, Hood was laying a pontoon bridge over the Tennessee at Florence for the invasion of Tennessee, Sherman, who had pursued him, turned his forces towards Atlanta, his troops destroying all the mills and founderies at Rome, and dismantling the railway from the Etowah River to the Chattahoochee. The railways around Atlanta were destroyed, and on Nov. 14 the forces destined for the great march were concentrated around that doomed city. Those forces were composed of four army corps, the right wing commanded by General O. O. Howard, and the left wing by General H. W. Slocum. Howard's right was composed of the corps of Generals Osterhaus and Blair, and the left of the corps of Generals J. C. Davis and A. S. Williams. General Kilpatrick commanded the cavalry, consisting of one division. Sherman's entire force numbered sixty thousand infantry and artillery and five thousand five hundred cavalry. On Nov. 11, Sherman cut the telegraph wires that connected Atlanta with Washington, and his army became an isolated column in the heart of an enemy's country. It began its march for the sea on the morning of the 14th, when the entire city of Atlanta — excepting its court-house, churches, and dwellings — was committed to the flames. The buildings in the heart of the city, covering two hundred acres of ground, formed a great conflagration; and, while the fire was raging, the bands played, and the soldiers chanted the stirring air and words, "John Brown's soul goes marching on!" (See *Brown's Raid.*) For thirty-six days that army moved through Georgia, with very little opposition, subsisting off the country. It was a sort of military promenade, requiring very little military skill in the performance, and as little personal prowess. It was grand in conception, and easily executed. Yet on that march there were many deeds that tested the prowess and daring of the soldiers on both sides. Kilpatrick's first dash across the Flint River and against Wheeler's cavalry, and then towards Macon, burning a train of cars and tearing up the railway, gave the Confederates a suspicion of Sherman's intentions. There was wide-spread consternation in Georgia and South Carolina, for the invader's destination was uncertain. Beauregard was sent from the Appomattox to the Savannah to confront the Nationals. He sent before him a manifesto in which he said, "Destroy all the roads in Sherman's front, flank, and rear," and, "be trustful in Providence." Benjamin H. Hill, of Georgia, in the Confederate Congress at Richmond, wrote to the people of his state, "Every citizen with his gun and every negro with his spade and axe can do the work of a soldier. You can destroy the enemy by retarding his march. Be firm!" The representatives of Georgia in the Confederate Congress called upon their people to fly to arms. "Remove your negroes, horses, cattle, and provisions from Sherman's army," they said, "and burn what you cannot carry away. Burn all bridges and block up the roads in his route. Assail the invader in front, flank, and rear, by night and by day. Let him have no rest." And Governor Brown, before he fled from Milledgeville on the approach of the Nationals, issued a proclamation ordering a levy *en masse* of the whole white population of the state between the ages of sixteen and forty-five, and offering pardon to prisoners in the penitentiary if they would volunteer and prove themselves good soldiers. But the people did none of these things, and only about one hundred convicts accepted the offer. All confidence in "President Davis" and the Confederate government had disappeared in Georgia, and a great portion of the people were satisfied that it was, as they expressed it, "the rich man's war, and the poor man's fight," and would no longer lend themselves to the authorities at Richmond. The National army moved steadily forward. At Griswoldsville there was a sharp engagement (Nov. 22, 1864) with a portion of Hardee's troops sent up from Savannah, and several brigades of militia. The Confederates were repulsed with a loss of twenty-five hundred men. Howard could have taken Macon after this blow upon its defenders, but such was not a part of Sherman's plan. The Nationals were attacked at the Oconee River while laying a pontoon bridge, but the assailants, largely composed of Wheeler's cavalry, were defeated. Kilpatrick made a feint towards Augusta to mislead the Confederates as to Sherman's destination, also to cover the passage of the army over the Ogeechee River, and, if possible, to release Union captives in the prison-pen at Millen. Kilpatrick and Wheeler had several skirmishes, but no severe battles. On Nov. 30, Sherman's whole army, excepting one corps, had passed the Ogeechee. This was a most skilful manœuvre; and now, having destroyed the principal railways in Georgia over long distances, Sherman was prepared to make a final conquest of the state. Moving on seaward, the division of Hazen had a severe skirmish (Dec. 4) at Statesburg, south of the Ogeechee. The Confederates were dispersed. On the same day Kilpatrick fought Wheeler on the railway between Millen and Augusta, drove him from his barricades through Waynesborough, and pushed him eight miles, while a supporting column of Union infantry under Baird were tearing up the railway and destroying bridges. When Sherman reached Millen, the Union prisoners had been removed; and he pushed on, amid swamps and sands, with the city of Savannah, where Hardee was in command, as his chief object. Kilpatrick and Baird covered the rear of the wing columns


THE PRISON-PEN AT MILLEN.

between the Ogeechee and Savannah rivers. There was some skirmishing, but no Confederates in force were seen until within fifteen miles of the city of Savannah. All the roads leading into that city were obstructed by felled trees, earthworks, and artillery. These were turned, and by Dec. 10 the Confederates were all driven within their lines, and Savannah was completely beleaguered; but the only approaches to it were by five narrow causeways. They had broken communications, so that no supplies could be received in Savannah. Sherman sought to make the Ogeechee an avenue of supply, oceanward, for his army, and to communicate with the Union fleet outside. The latter was soon effected. Fort McAllister, near the mouth of the Ogeechee, was in the way, and, on the 13th, Slocum ordered General Hazen to carry it by assault. It was a strong enclosed redoubt, garrisoned by two hundred men. It was carried (see *McAllister, Fort*); and this was the brilliant ending of the march from Atlanta to the sea. It opened to Sherman's army a new base of supplies. Sherman communicated with the officers of the fleet, and, on Dec. 17, he summoned Hardee to surrender. Hardee refused. Perceiving the arrangements made to cut off his retreat to Charleston, Hardee secretly withdrew on the dark and stormy night of Dec. 20, and, with fifteen thousand men, escaped to that city. The National army took possession of Savannah on Dec. 22, 1864. On the 26th Sherman wrote to President Lincoln: "I beg to present to you, as a Christmas gift, the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns and plenty of ammunition, and also about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton." On his march Sherman had lived generously off the country, which was abundantly filled with provisions. He appropriated to the use of the army 13,000 beeves, 160,000 bushels of corn, more than 5000 tons of fodder, besides a large number of sheep, swine, fowls, and quantities of potatoes and rice. He forced into the service 5000 horses and 4000 mules. He captured 1328 prisoners and 167 guns; burned 20,000 bales of cotton, and captured and secured to the government 25,000 bales. Full 10,000 negroes followed the flag to Savannah, and many thousands more, chiefly women and children, had been turned back at the crossings of rivers. So families were separated.

Atlantic Telegraph. In 1843 (Aug. 10), Professor Samuel F. B. Morse, who had endowed the electro-magnetic telegraph (which see) with intellectual power, in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, remarked, after alluding to recent experiments, "The practical inference from this law is, that a telegraphic communication on my plan may, with certainty, be established across the Atlantic. Startling as this may *now* seem, the time will come when this project will be realized." Almost eleven years afterwards an attempt was made to establish telegraphic communication between America and Europe by means of an insulated metallic cable under the sea. Mr. Cyrus W. Field, a New York merchant, was applied to for aid in completing a land line of telegraph on the Morse plan, then in the course of construction across Newfoundland — about four hundred miles. The question occurred to him, Why not carry the line across the ocean? and with his usual pluck and energy he proceeded to the accomplishment of such an enterprise. On March 10, 1854, five gentlemen met at the house of Mr. Field, on Gramercy Park, New York, and signed an agreement for an association called "The New York, Newfoundland, and London Telegraph Company." They obtained from the Legislature of Newfoundland a charter guaranteeing an exclusive right, for fifty years, to establish a telegraph from the American continent to that island, and thence to Europe. These gentlemen were Peter Cooper, Moses Taylor, Marshall O. Roberts, Chandler White, and Cyrus W. Field. Twenty-five years afterwards, all but one (Mr. White) were living, and again met in the same room, and around the same table whereon that association was signed, with the same attorney of the association, then engaged, David Dudley Field. Mr. Cooper was chosen president of the company. Mr. Field procured a cable in England to span the waters between Cape Ray and Cape Breton Island. It was sent out in 1855, and was lost in an attempt to lay it. It was recovered, and was successfully laid in 1856. The same year Mr. Field organized in London the "Atlantic Telegraph Company" to carry the line across the ocean. Mr. Field subscribed for one fourth of the stock of the company. The American and British governments gave them aid in ships, and during 1857 and 1858 expeditions were at sea laying a cable across the ocean to Valentia on the western coast of Ireland. Twice, in 1857, the attempt failed, but was successful the following year. Vessels starting with portions of the cable from Newfoundland and Ireland met in mid-ocean on Wednesday, July 28, 1858, and on the following day spliced the two portions, and so made a continuous line across the ocean. It was nine hundred and fifty miles in length, and traversed water two thirds of the distance over two miles in depth. These wonderful facts were communicated by Mr. Field, by telegram, from Trinity Bay, Newfoundland, on Aug. 5, 1858, and created intense interest all over the country. The first public messages across the Atlantic were transmitted, Aug. 16, 1858, by Queen Victoria to President Buchanan, and by him in an immediate reply, in which they congratulated each other on the success of the enterprise by which the two countries were connected by such a mysterious tie. The queen hoped that it would "prove an additional link between the nations, whose friendship is founded upon their common interest and reciprocal esteem." To this the President cordially responded, and asked: "Will not all nations of Christendom spontaneously unite in the declaration that it shall be forever neutral, and that its communications shall be held sacred in passing to their places of destination even in the midst of hostilities." Bonfires and illuminations throughout the Union followed these communications. The *London Times* said (Aug. 6, 1858), "Since the discovery of Columbus, nothing has been done in any degree comparable to the vast enlargement which has thus been given to the sphere of human activity." In a very short time the cable ceased to work, and it was pronounced a failure. It was even intimated that the reputed despatches were only part of a huge fraud. Mr. Field's faith never faltered, though discouragements that would have paralyzed the energies of most men were encountered. He crossed the Atlantic several times to resuscitate the company. The cable had cost $1,256,250, and the expenses of the company up to Dec. 1, 1858, amounted to $1,834,500. The civil war in America broke out in 1861, and it was not until 1865 that another expedition to lay a cable was fitted out. The *Great Eastern* then carried an improved cable. While laying it, a sudden lurch of the ship snapped the line, and it was lost. The company was discouraged. Mr. Field went to Thomas Brassey, a great and liberal English capitalist, and told him that the Atlantic Telegraph Company had suddenly come to a standstill. "Mr. Field," said Mr. Brassey, "don't be discouraged; go down to the company and tell them to go ahead, and, whatever the cost, I will bear one tenth of the whole." That company and the "Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company" joined in forming a new association known as the "Anglo-American Telegraph Company," with a capital of $3,000,000. Another cable was laid, and permanent electric communication between Europe and America was established July 27, 1866. After twelve years of hard and anxious labor, during which time Mr. Field crossed the ocean nearly fifty times, he saw the great work accomplished. He had been nobly aided by men in Europe and America. Congress voted him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal, while the Prime-minister of England declared that it was only the fact that he was a citizen of another country that prevented his receiving high honors from the British government. The glory of his achievement transcends all that man could bestow.

At Lee, Samuel John, a colonel in the Continental army, was born in Pennsylvania, in 1738; died in Philadelphia, November, 1786. He commanded a company of Pennsylvanians in the French and Indian War. Entering the Continental army, Pennsylvania line, he commanded a battalion in the battle of Long Island, Aug. 27, 1776, where he was made prisoner and remained some time in the hands of the British. Afterwards he was appointed a commissioner to treat with the Indians. He was a member of the Continental Congress from 1778 to 1782.

Atlixco, Battle at. General Lane marched from Puebla (Mexico) in October, 1847, to attack the Mexican general Rea, of Santa Aña's army, at Atlixco, thirty miles from that place. Lane's cavalry first encountered Rea's advanced guard, and skirmished until the arrival of his infantry, when the Mexicans fell back towards Atlixco, keeping up a running fight. Less than two miles from that place their main body was discovered (Oct. 18, 1847). Lane's cavalry dashed in among them and drove them into a thick chaparral, which the horses could not enter. The cavalry dismounted, entered the thicket, and there a long and fierce hand-to-hand encounter ensued. The rest of the Americans coming up, the Mexicans were forced into the town, when Lane's artillery, posted on a hill, cannonaded the place most severely by the light of the moon. The Mexicans were driven away with much loss. At Atlixco Santa Aña's troops finally deserted him, and he fled alone towards the coast. So ended the active hostilities of the war.

Attakappas. This was a tribe of Indians found on the borders of the Gulf of Mexico, west of the Mississippi River in Southern Louisiana and Eastern Texas. The Choctaws named them Attakappas, or Man-eaters. The French were the first Europeans who discovered them; and the Attakappas aided the latter in a war with the Natchez and Chickasaws. When Louisiana was ceded to the United States in 1803, there were only about one hundred of this nation on their ancient domain, near Vermilion Bayou, and they had almost wholly disappeared about fifty years ago. What their real name was, or whence they came, may never be known. Their language was peculiar, composed of harsh monosyllables.

Attiwandaronk, Indians of the family of the Hurons and Iroquois, named by the French the Neutral Nation. In early times they inhabited both banks of the Niagara River, but were mostly in Canada. They were first visited in 1627 by the Recollect father Daillon, and by Brébeuf and Chaumonot in 1642. The Iroquois attacked them in 1651–53, when a part of them submitted and joined the Senecas, and the remainder fled westward and joined the remnant of the fallen Hurons on the borders of Lake Superior.

Audubon, John James, ornithologist, was born in New Orleans, May 4, 1780; died in New York city, Jan. 27, 1851. He was the son of a French admiral. Educated at Paris, he acquired much skill as an artist under the instruction of the celebrated David. At the age of seventeen years he began to make a collection of drawings of the birds of America, and became a most devoted student of the feathered tribes of our country. So early as 1810 he went down the Ohio River with his wife and child, in an open boat, to a congenial spot for a forest home. He visited almost every region of the United States. In some of his Western excursions, Wilson, the ornithologist, was his companion. In 1826 he went to Europe to secure subscriptions to his great work, *The Birds of America*. It was issued in numbers, each containing five plates, the subjects drawn and colored the size and tints of life. It was completed in four volumes, in 1838. Of the one hundred and seventy subscribers to the work, at $1000 each, nearly one half came from England and France. He also prepared a work entitled *Ornithological Biographies*, and had partly completed a work entitled *Quadrupeds of America*, when he died. His two sons, who inherited his tastes and much of his genius, finished this work, which was published in 1850. His residence, in the latter years of his life, was on the banks of the Hudson, on Manhattan or New York Island, not far from Washington Heights.

JOHN JAMES AUDUBON.

Auger, CHRISTOPHER COLON, was born in New York about 1821, and graduated at West Point in 1843. He served as aide-de-camp to Generals Hopping and Cushing in the war with Mexico, and in 1861 was made a brigadier-general of volunteers, after serving under McDowell. He took command of a division under Banks, and was wounded at the battle of Cedar Mountain (which see). In November, 1862, he reported to General Banks for service in a Southern expedition, and was made major-general of volunteers in August, 1862. General Auger was very active in the siege and capture of Port Hudson. From October, 1863, to August, 1866, he had command of the Department of Washington, and in 1867 he was assigned to the Department of the Platte. In 1869 he was made brigadier-general U. S. Army.

Augusta, SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF (1781). When Cornwallis proceeded to subjugate South Carolina, he sent Lieutenant-colonel Brown, a Tory leader, to hold Augusta. Over this garrison Pickens and Clarke had kept watch, and when, on May 20, 1781, they were joined by Lee and his legion, they proceeded to invest the fort there. They took Fort Galphin, twelve miles below, on the 21st, and then an officer was sent to demand the surrender of Augusta. Lieutenant-colonel Brown was one of the most cruel of the Tories in that region, and the partisans were anxious to make him a prisoner. He refused to surrender. A regular siege began May 23, and continued until June 4, when a general assault was agreed upon. Hearing of this, Brown proposed to surrender, and the town was given up the next day. In this siege the Americans lost fifty-one men killed and wounded; and the British lost fifty-two killed, and three hundred and thirty-four, including the wounded, were made prisoners.

Austin, STEPHEN F., founder of the first colony in Texas. His father, Moses Austin, of Connecticut, was at Bexar, Texas, in 1820, and applied to the Mexican commander at Monterey for permission to colonize three hundred families in the province. His son Stephen successfully carried out the scheme. The latter went to the city of Mexico in 1821, and the grant given to his father was confirmed in February, 1823. By it he was invested with almost absolute power over the colonists, whom he seated where the city of Austin now is, the site selected by him for the capital of Texas. In March, 1833, a convention formed a state constitution, which Austin took to the central government of Mexico to obtain its ratification. There were delays; and he recommended a union of all the municipalities, and the organization of a state under a Mexican law of 1824. He was arrested, taken back to Mexico, and detained until September, 1835. On his return he found the country in confusion, and he took part with the revolutionary party. He attempted, with a small force, to drive the Mexicans out of Texas, but failed. In November (1835) General Sam. Houston was chosen to command the little Texan army, and Austin was made commissioner to the United States. In July, 1836, he returned to Texas and was engaged in negotiations to obtain the official recognition of independence, when death closed his career. (See *Texas*.)

Authority of Parliament. Four great wars had burdened Great Britain with a debt of about $700,000,000 in 1763. Her treasury was low, and she looked to the colonies for contributions to her revenues. At the beginning of the French and Indian War, the Board of Trade had contemplated a scheme of colonial taxation, and Pitt had intimated to more than one colonial governor that at the end of the war the government would look to the colonies for a revenue; yet he dared not undertake a scheme which the great Walpole had timidly evaded. Pitt's successors, more reckless, entered upon a scheme of taxation under the authority of Parliament, boldly asserting the absolute right and power of that body over the colonies in "all cases whatsoever." Then began the resistance, to that claim on the part of the colonies which aroused the government to a more vigorous and varied practical assertion of it. For more than ten years the quarrel raged before the contestants came to blows. The great question involved was the extent of the authority of the British Parliament over the English American colonies, which had no representative in that legislative body—a question in the settlement of which the British empire was dismembered. The colonies took the broad ground that "taxation without representation is tyranny."

Auttose, BATTLE OF. Late in November, 1813, the Creek country was invaded by troops from Georgia. A cry for help from the settlers among the Creeks had come to the ears of the Georgians, when General John Floyd, at the head of 950 militia of that state and 450 friendly Indians, guided by Mordecai, a Jew trader, entered the region of the hostiles from the east. Crossing the Chattahoocheè, he pushed on towards the Tallapoosa, where he was informed that a large number of hostile Indians had gathered at the village of Auttose, on the "Holy Ground," on which the prophets had made the barbarians believe no white man could set foot and live. It was on the left bank of the Tallapoosa, about twenty miles above its confluence with the Coosa. Floyd encamped unobserved near the town on the evening of Nov. 28, and at dawn he appeared before the village with his troops arrayed for battle in three columns. He also had two or three field-pieces. There were two towns, one below the other. The towns were simultaneously attacked, and a general battle ensued. After a brief contest, the roar of artillery and a furious bayonet-charge made the Indians fall back in terror to whatever shelter they could find. Their dwellings, about four hundred in number, were burned, and the smitten and dismayed barbarians were hunted and butchered with fiendish cruelty. It was estimated that full 200 of the Indians were murdered. Floyd lost 11 men killed and 54 wounded. He had marched 120 miles, laid waste the town, and destroyed the inhabitants in the space of seven days.

Autumn Elections (1863). To the apprehensions of reflecting men the Civil War, in the fall of 1863, had assumed the grander feature of a war for free institutions. There was ample evidence that the government would not recede from the position taken by the President in his Emancipation Proclamation, and the great majority of the people seemed ready to sustain it. Thousands of the opposition party refused longer to follow the leadings of the peace faction, and at the elections in the autumn of 1863 they voted with the friends of the government. There were overwhelming majorities in favor of government measures everywhere. The State of Ohio gave over one hundred thousand majority against C. L. Vallandigham, the Democratic candidate for governor; and in the State of New York Governor Seymour's majority of ten thousand in 1862 was annihilated, and a majority of nearly thirty thousand appeared on the opposite side of the political balance-sheet. Even in Maryland, where the emancipation of the slaves was made a distinct issue in the canvass, there was given at the polls a very large Union majority. This political reaction and the recent successes of the National arms encouraged the government; and appended to the President's first message (Dec. 8, 1863) to the Thirty-eighth Congress was a proclamation in which he offered full pardon and restoration of all rights of property, excepting as to slaves, to all persons (with specified exceptions) who had participated in the rebellion who should take a prescribed oath of allegiance to the government. It also offered a prescription for reorganizing civil governments in states in which rebellion existed, by which the people might be restored to all the political privileges guaranteed by the National Constitution. This proclamation effected nothing.

Averasborough, BATTLE OF. On his march from Fayetteville to Goldsborough, Sherman's forces were menaced by the Confederates, and Kilpatrick had several skirmishes with Wheeler and Hampton. He had struck the rear of Hardee's column (March 8, 1865) in its retreat towards Fayetteville. He had fought Hampton, and was defeated, losing many men (who were made prisoners) and guns. Kilpatrick barely escaped on foot in a swamp, where he rallied his men. They fell upon Hampton, who was plundering their camp, routed him, and retook the guns. Hampton had captured 103 Nationals and killed or wounded 80. At Fayetteville, Sherman utterly destroyed the arsenal, with all the valuable public property of the Confederates there. Moving on, Sherman, in accordance with his usual plan, made movements to distract his adversary. He sent Slocum with four divisions of the left wing, preceded by cavalry, towards Averasborough and the main road to Raleigh; while two divisions of that wing, with the train, took the direct road to Goldsborough. Howard moved with four divisions on the right, ready to assist the left if necessary. It was a terrible march over quagmire roads, made so by incessant rain. They had to be corduroyed continually. Slocum found Hardee intrenched near Averasborough with about 20,000 men. General Williams, with the 20th corps, took the lead in making an attack, and very soon he broke the Confederate left wing into fragments and drove it back upon a second and stronger line. Ward's division pushed the fugitives and captured 3 guns and 217 men; and the Confederates left 108 of their dead on the field. Kilpatrick was just securing a footing on the road to Bentonville (which see) when he was furiously attacked by McLaws's division, and, after a hard fight, was pushed back. Then the whole of Slocum's line advanced, drove Hardee within his intrenchments, and pressed him so heavily that on the dark and stormy night of March 16, 1865, he retreated to Smithfield. Slocum lost in the battle 77 killed and 477 wounded. Hardee's loss was estimated at about the same. Ward pursued the fugitives through Averasborough, but soon gave up the chase.

Averill, WILLIAM W., is a native of New York, and was born in 1830. He graduated at West Point in 1855. Entering the mounted rifles, he distinguished himself in New Mexico by the surprise and capture of a body of Indians. In that warfare he was severely wounded. Soon after the breaking out of the Civil War he was chosen colonel of a regiment of Pennsylvania cavalry, and became brigadier-general of volunteers in September, 1862. He had taken an active part in the battles on the Peninsula and in Pope's campaign in July and August, 1862. He reinforced Pleasanton in the advance after the battle of Antietam, and was afterwards very active in Virginia, especially in the mountain regions, in 1863. (See *Averill's Raids.*) He performed gallant service under Hunter, Sigel, and Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley in 1864; and he was breveted major-general in March, 1865. After the war he became consul-general in Canada.

WILLIAM W. AVERILL.

Averill's Raids in Western Virginia (1863). There had been comparative quiet in that region after the close of 1861 until the summer and fall of 1863, when General W. W. Averill, with a cavalry force, made extensive raids in that mountainous country. Before the close of that year he had nearly purged Western Virginia of armed Confederates, and seriously interrupted railway communication between the armies of Lee and Bragg. Colonel John Tolland had led a cavalry raid in these mountain regions in July, 1863. He made a descent upon Wytheville, on the Virginia and Tennessee Railway, where his force was roughly handled by Confederates. Tolland was killed, and his command returned to the Kanawha. In a ride of about four hundred miles, during eight days, they had suffered much, and lost 82 men and 300 horses. A little later General Averill started from Tygart's Valley; passed through several counties southward; drove Confederates over Warm Spring Mountains; destroyed saltpetre-works; menaced Staunton; and was confronted by a large force of General S. Jones's command, near White Sulphur Springs, where a conflict for Rock Gap occurred, and lasted a greater part of August 26 and 27. Averill was repulsed, and made his way back to Tygart's Valley, having lost 207 men and a Parrott gun, which burst during the fight. The Confederates lost 156 men. Much later in the year Averill made another aggressive movement. He left Beverly early in November with 5000 men of all arms, and moved southward, driving Confederates under General "Mudwall" (W. S.) Jackson to a post on the top of Droop Mountain, in Greenbrier County; stormed them (Nov. 6, 1863), and drove them into Monroe County, with a loss of over 300 men, 3 guns, and 700 small-arms. Averill's loss was about 100 men. West Virginia was now nearly free of armed Confederates, and Averill started, in December, with a strong force of Virginia mounted infantry, Pennsylvania cavalry, and Ewing's battery, to destroy railway communications between the armies of Lee in Virginia and Bragg in Tennessee. He crossed the mountains amid ice and snow, and first struck the Virginia and Tennessee Railway at Salem, on the headwaters of the Roanoke River, where he destroyed the station-house, rolling-stock, and Confederate supplies. Also, in the course of six hours his troops tore up the track, heated and ruined the rails, burned five bridges, and destroyed several culverts over the space of fifteen miles. This raid aroused all the Confederates of the mountain region, and seven separate commands were arranged in a line extending from Staunton to Newport to intercept the raider. He dashed through this line at Covington in the face of some opposition, destroyed the bridges behind him, and one of his regiments, which had been cut off from the rest, swam the stream and joined the others, with the loss of four men drowned. Averill captured during the raid about 200 men. "My command," he said in his report (Dec. 21, 1863), "has marched, climbed, slid, and swam three hundred and forty miles since the 8th inst." He reported a loss of 6 men drowned, 5 wounded, and 90 missing.

Avery, WAIGHTSTILL, was born at Groton, Conn., May 3, 1745; died in Burke County, N. C., March 15, 1821. He studied law in Maryland, and began its practice in Mecklenburg County, N. C., in 1769. He was prominent there among the opposers of the obnoxious measures of the British Parliament bearing on the colonies, and was one of the promoters and signers of the famous "Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence" (which see). He was a delegate to the Provincial Congress at Hillsborough in 1775 which organized the military forces of the state; and in the summer of 1776 he joined the army, under General Rutherford, in the Cherokee country. He was a commissioner in framing the treaty of Holston, which effected peace on the Western frontier. Mr. Avery was active in civil affairs; and in 1779 was colonel of the county militia, serving with great zeal during the British invasion of North Carolina. He removed to Burke County in 1781, which he represented in the State Legislature many years. Mr. Avery was the first state attorney-general of North Carolina.

Ayres, ROMEYN B., was born in New York, and graduated at West Point in 1847. He served in the artillery in the war with Mexico, and commanded a battery in the battle of Bull's Run. In October, 1861, he became chief of artillery of W. F. Smith's division, and soon afterwards of the sixth corps. He was in the campaign on the Peninsula, and the chief battles afterwards in Virginia and Maryland. He served with distinction through the Richmond campaign of 1864–65; and he was breveted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865.

B.

Babbitt, ISAAC, inventor of the "Babbitt metal" used on railway cars, axle-boxes, etc., was born at Taunton, Mass., July 26, 1799; died in McLean Asylum, Mass., May 26, 1862. About 1831 he made, in Taunton, the first Britannia-ware manufactured in this country; and in 1839 he invented the anti-friction metal which bears his name. Congress gave him $20,000 for his invention; and he took out patents in England (1844) and Russia (1847). A few years before his death he became deranged.

Bache, ALEXANDER DALLAS, Superintendent of the Coast Survey, was born in Philadelphia, July 19, 1806; died at Newport, R. I., Feb. 17, 1867. He was a great-grandson of Dr. Franklin.

ALEXANDER DALLAS BACHE.

Graduating at the West Point Military Academy with high honor in 1825, and receiving the appointment of lieutenant of engineers, he remained in the academy a while as assistant professor. Two years he was under Colonel Totten in the construction of military works at Newport, where he married Miss Fowler, who, as his wife, was his great assistant in astronomical observations. He resigned in 1827, and from that time until 1832 he was a professor in the University of Pennsylvania. Ardently devoted to scientific pursuits, he made important discoveries. In 1836 he was chosen President of the Board of Trustees of Girard College, and he was very efficient in the organization of that institution. He visited Europe to study various institutions of learning there; and in 1839 he published a *Report on the European System of Education.* In 1841 he became the first principal of the Philadelphia High School; and in 1843 he was appointed Superintendent of the United States Coast Survey (which see). His services in this field were of the highest importance. Various universities conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL.D. He published several scientific essays; was a member of the Light-house Board; a regent of the Smithsonian Institution, and active in various public labors. Dr. Bache bequeathed $42,000 to the Academy of Natural Science in Philadelphia, for the promotion of researches in physical and natural science, by assisting experimenters and observers.

Backwoodsmen of the Carolinas, GATHERING OF THE (1781). Fugitives from their dwellings in the Carolinas, east of the mountains, the backwoodsmen there, aroused by the cry of distress that came from the region of their homes, resolved to aid their brethren in driving out the British invaders. They formed themselves into regiments, under Isaac Shelby and John Sevier. The former sent a messenger to William Campbell, on the Holston River; and it was resolved that he, with four hundred men, should join an expedition against Major Ferguson, who was embodying the Tory militia in the western part of the Carolinas. An express was also sent to Colonel Cleaveland, of North Carolina. The volunteers all met on the Watauga, Sept. 25; and on the following day all, mounted on their own horses and carrying rifles and provisions, began a ride over the lofty mountains, where there was not even a bridle-path, nor a house for the space of forty miles between the Watauga and the Catawba. They asked Gates to furnish them with a general officer. Meanwhile Ferguson, who had pursued a party of patriots to the foot of the mountains, had moved eastward towards Cornwallis, and reached King's Mountain, where he formed a strong encampment. There he was attacked, defeated, and killed. (See *King's Mountain, Battle of.*)

Bacon, NATHANIEL, a Virginia patriot, was born in Suffolk, England, about 1630; died October, 1676. He was educated at the Inns of Court, London; came to America with a considerable fortune; settled in Gloucester County, Va., and owned a large estate high up on the James River. A lawyer by profession and eloquent in speech, he easily exercised great influence over the people. He became a member of the council in 1672. He was a republican in sentiment; and, strongly opposing the views and public conduct of Governor Berkeley, the stanch loyalist, he stirred up the people to rebellion. (See *Bacon's Rebellion.*) He died from malarial fever, while conducting military operations against the governor, at Accomac.

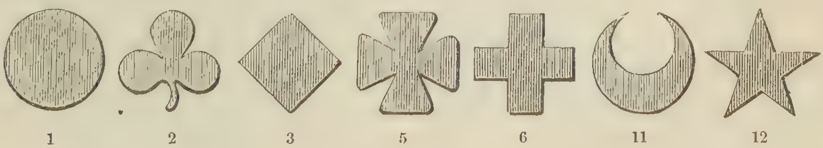
Bacon's Rebellion. In 1675 Nathaniel Bacon, a wealthy English lawyer, about forty-five years of age, emigrated to Virginia. He was popular in his manners, eloquent and persuasive in speech, and well-informed in legal science. Bacon wielded great influence in the colony immediately, and was, very soon after his arrival, chosen a member of the governor's council. Discontents were then rife in the colony. Berkeley, who was very popular at first, had become tyrannical and oppressive as an uncompromising royalist and rigorous executor of his royal master's will. At the same time republicanism had begun a vigorous growth among the people of Virginia; but it was repressed somewhat by a majority of royalists in the House of Burgesses; and the council were as pliant tools of Berkeley as any courtiers who paid homage to the king. The governor rigidly enforced navigation laws oppressive to colonial commerce; and the marriage laws, and the elective and other franchises were modified, abridged, or abolished. The Church of England was made supreme, and was an instrument of persecution in the hands of the dominant party, in attempts to drive Baptists, Quakers, and Puritans out of Virginia. (See *Berkeley*.) Stimulated by these oppressions, republicanism grew vigorously in Virginia, and the toilers and righteous men of the aristocracy soon formed a powerful republican party that threatened ere long to fill the House of Burgesses with men of their creed. Berkeley, having a pliant majority of the cavalier class in the Assembly, sanctioned unjust and arbitrary decrees of the king, who gave to profligate court favorites, first large tracts of land, some of it cultivated, in Virginia; and, finally, in 1673, he gave to two of them (Lord Culpepper and Earl of Arlington), "all the dominion of land and water called Virginia" for thirty years. The best men in the colony of both parties, alarmed by this proceeding, sent a committee with a remonstrance to the king, but the mission was fruitless. The republicans were very indignant. Rebellious murmurs were heard everywhere in the colony; and the toiling people were taught to regard the aristocracy as their enemies, and so the majority of them were. Having a majority in the Legislature of the colony, they ruled without any regard for the happiness of the people. Everything for the public good was neglected. There were no roads or bridges in Virginia; and the people were compelled to travel along bridle-paths on land, and to ford or swim the streams. They journeyed on the water in canoes or boats, and endured many hardships. The working people lived in log-cabins with unglazed windows. There were no villages. At the time we are considering, Jamestown, the capital, consisted of only a church, a state-house, and eighteen dwellings; and, until lately, the Assembly had met in the hall of an ale-house. This was about seventy years after the founding of the colony, when it contained fifty thousand inhabitants. The large land-owners—the aristocracy—meanwhile were living in luxury in fine mansions, in sight of some beautiful river, surrounded by negro slaves and other dependents, and enjoying a sort of patriarchal life. The governor was clamoring for an increase of his salary, while his stables and fields had seventy horses in them, and flocks of sheep were on his great plantation, called "Green Spring." The tendency of such a state of society was obvious to every reflecting mind. It was at this juncture that Bacon arrived in Virginia, and espoused the cause of the Republicans. In the summer of 1675, the Indians, seeing their domain gradually absorbed by the encroaching white people, in their despair struck a heavy blow. As they swept from the North through Maryland, John Washington, grandfather of the first President of the United States, opposed them with a force of Virginians, and a fierce border war ensued. Berkeley, who had the monopoly of the fur-trade with the barbarians, treated the latter leniently. Six chiefs, who had come to camp to treat for peace, were treacherously slain by Englishmen. The wrathful savages strewed their pathway, in the country between the Rappahannock and James rivers, with the dead bodies of ten Englishmen for every chief that was treacherously murdered, and blackened its face with fire. The supineness of the governor increased the sense of insecurity among the people, and a deputation headed by Bacon petitioned him for leave to arm and protect themselves. Berkeley, having reason, as he thought, to suspect Bacon of ambitious rather than patriotic motives (for he had been engaged in an insurrection before), refused to grant this prayer. At this Bacon took fire. He knew the hidden cause of the refusal, and he at once proclaimed that he was ready to lead the people against the approaching invaders without permission, if another white person should be murdered by them. Very soon news reached him that some on his own plantation, near (present) Richmond, had been slain. He summoned the people to a consultation. Mounting a stump, he addressed them with impassioned eloquence, denounced the governor, and advised his hearers to take up arms in their own defence. They were soon embodied in military force, and chose Bacon as their general. He asked the governor to give him a commission as such, but was refused; and Bacon marched against the Indians without it. Before he had reached York River, the governor proclaimed him a rebel, and ordered his followers to disperse. A greater portion of them followed Bacon's standard, and the expedition pushed forward; while the lower settlements arose in insurrection, and demanded an immediate dissolution of the aristocratic Assembly. The Indians were driven back to the Rappahannock, a new assembly was chosen, and Bacon was elected to a seat in the House of Burgesses from Henrico County. The new House represented the popular will. They gave Bacon a commission as general, but Berkeley refused to sign it. Some of the Assembly supported the governor in the matter, when Bacon, fearing treachery, retired to the "Middle Plantation" (now Williamsburg), where five hundred followers proclaimed him commander-in-chief of the Virginia forces. With these he appeared at Jamestown, and demanded his commission. Regarding the movement as revolutionary, the governor again refused to sign it. The sturdy old cavalier went out in great anger before the insurgent chief, and baring his bosom, exclaimed, "Shoot! shoot! it is a fair mark!" Bacon said, respectfully, "Not a hair of your head shall be hurt; we have come for our commissions to save our lives from the Indians." The governor, influenced by his judgment when his anger had cooled, or by his fears, not only signed the commission, but joined his council in commending Bacon to the king as a zealous, loyal, and patriotic citizen. That was done on July 4, 1676, just one hundred years before the famous Declaration of Independence, written by a Virginia "rebel" (Thomas Jefferson), proclaimed the English-American colonies "free and independent states." Bacon, so encouraged, immediately marched against the Indians. The faithless governor, relieved of his presence, crossed the York River, called a convention of the inhabitants of Gloucester County, and proposed to proclaim Bacon a traitor. The convention refused to do so, when the haughty baronet issued such a proclamation on his own responsibility, in spite of their remonstrances. The news of this perfidy reached Bacon at his camp on the Pamunky River. He addressed his followers with much warmth, saying, "It vexes me to the heart that, while I am hunting the wolves and tigers that destroy our lands, I should myself be pursued as a savage. Shall persons wholly devoted to their king and country — men who hazard their lives against the public enemy, deserve the appellation of 'rebels' and 'traitors?' The whole country is witness to our peaceable behavior. But those in authority, how have they obtained their estates? Have they not devoured the common treasury? What arts, what sciences, what learning have they promoted? I appeal to the king and Parliament, where the cause of the people will be heard impartially." Under the circumstances, Bacon felt compelled to lead in a revolution. He invited the Virginians to meet in convention at the Middle Plantation. The best men in the colony were there. They debated and deliberated on a warm August day from noon until midnight. Bacon's eloquence and logic led them to take an oath to support their leader in subduing the Indians and in preventing civil war; and again he went against the barbarians. The governor, alarmed by the proceedings at the Middle Plantation, fled, with his council, to the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay, where, by promises of booty, he tried to raise an army among the inhabitants and the seamen of English vessels there. William Drummond, who had been the first governor of North Carolina, with his brave and patriotic wife, Sarah, was then with Bacon. (See *North Carolina.*) Mrs. Drummond did much to incite the Virginians to go on in the path of revolution, and she was denounced as "a notorious, wicked rebel." Her husband proposed to Bacon to proclaim government in the colony abdicated by Berkeley on account of his act. It was suggested that a power would come from England that would ruin the republicans in the colony. Sarah snatched up a small stick from the ground, and exclaimed, "I fear the power of England no more than a broken straw. The child that is unborn shall have cause to rejoice for the good that will come by the rising of the country." The proclamation of abdication was made, on the ground that the governor was fomenting civil war; and writs were issued for a representative convention. Meanwhile Berkeley had gathered a motley host of followers incited by promises of plunder; proclaimed the freedom of the slaves of "rebels;" was joined by some Indians from the eastern shore, and the English ships were placed at his service. With this army, commanded by Major Beverly, the governor sailed with five ships and ten sloops, and landed at Jamestown early in September, 1676, where, after piously offering thanksgiving in the church, he proclaimed Bacon a traitor. Bacon was surprised, for he had then few followers in camp; but his ranks swelled rapidly as the news went from plantation to plantation. At the head of a considerable host of patriotic Virginians, he marched towards Jamestown, seizing by the way as hostages the wives of loyalists who were with Berkeley. The republicans appeared before the capital on a moonlit evening, and cast up intrenchments. In vain the governor urged his motley troops to attack them; they were not made of stuff for soldiers. Finally, the royalists stole away in the night, and compelled the indignant governor to follow them, when Bacon entered Jamestown, and assumed the reins of civil power. Very soon he was startled by a rumor that the royalists of the upper counties were coming down upon him. In a council of war it was agreed to burn the capital. The torch was applied at the twilight of a soft September day, and the next morning nothing was left but the brick tower of the church and a few chimneys. (See *Jamestown.*) Then Bacon hastened to meet the approaching royalists, who, not disposed to fight, deserted their leader and joined the "rebels." At the same time the royalists of Gloucester

THE OLD CHURCH TOWER AT JAMESTOWN, IN 1850.

yielded their allegiance to Bacon, and he resolved to cross the Chesapeake and drive the loyalists and Berkeley from Virginia. His plans were suddenly frustrated by a foe deadlier than the malignity of the royalists who opposed him. The malaria from the marshes around Jamestown in September, had poisoned his blood, and on the 11th of October (1676) he died of malignant fever. His followers made but feeble resistance thereafter; and before November Berkeley returned to the Peninsula and resumed the functions of government at the Middle Plantation, which was made the capital of Virginia. (See *Williamsburg.*) Bacon had failed; yet those "do not fail who die in a good cause." His name is embalmed in history as a *rebel;* had he succeeded, he would have been immortalized as a *patriot.* His principal followers were very harshly treated by the soured governor, and for a while terror reigned in Virginia. (See *Berkeley.*) The rebellion cost the colony $500,000.

Badeau, ADAM, was born in New York, and served on the staff of General Sherman early in the Civil War. He was severely wounded at Port Hudson. In January, 1864, he joined General Grant, and became his military secretary, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. In March, 1865, he was made aide-de-camp to the general of the army, with the title of colonel, and retired in 1869, when he was made secretary of the American Legation at the British court.

Badge Designations IN THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC. These were introduced by General Hooker in the spring of 1863. The idea originated with General Kearney at the battle of Seven Pines, or Fair Oaks (which see). At that time it was impossible for the common volunteer soldiers to renew their clothing except by drawing from the quartermaster the same as that used by enlisted men. Officers and men were thus dressed alike. To distinguish them apart, Kearney issued an order that the field and staff officers of his division should wear a red patch on the top of their caps, and the line-officers the same in front. Kearney's successor (General Birney), after his death, ordered this habit to be continued, in memory of their old commander; and also, for the same purpose, the rank and file should wear a red patch on the side of their caps. When General Hooker took command of the army, he ordered each of the seven corps of the Army of the Potomac to be distinguished by a badge, as follows: The first by a disk; the second by a trefoil; the third by a lozenge; the fifth by a Maltese cross; the sixth by a plain cross; the eleventh by a crescent; and the twelfth by a star. Each corps had three divisions, and the badges, whose form determined the corps, also designated the divisions by colors. The badge of the first division of each corps was made of *scarlet* cloth, of the second of *white,* and the third of *blue.* These were all placed on the top of the cap. Those who wore hats placed them on the left side.



BADGES.

Badge of Military Merit. In 1782 Washington established a badge of military merit, to be conferred upon non-commissioned officers and soldiers who had served three years with bravery, fidelity, and good conduct, and upon every one who should perform any singularly meritorious action. The badge entitled the recipient "to pass and repass all guards and military posts as fully and amply as any commissioned officer whatever." A board of officers for making such award was established, and upon their recommendation the commander-in-chief presented the badge. It was the American order of the "Legion of Honor."

Badger State, a name popularly given to the State of Wisconsin, on account of the number of badgers found there by the early settlers.

Baffin, WILLIAM, an English Arctic explorer, was born in 1584; died in 1622. He made voyages to West Greenland in 1612–15, and to Spitzbergen in 1614. In 1616 he commanded a vessel which reached, it is said, eighty-one and a half degrees north latitude. He was killed at the siege of Ormuz, on the Persian Gulf. He is supposed to have ascertained the limits of the great bay that bears his name.

Bahama Islands, THE, were granted by Charles II. (1667) to the eight courtiers to whom he granted the Carolinas. (See *Grantees of Carolina.*) They had sent William Sayle to bring them some account of the Carolina coast. His vessel was driven by a storm among the Bahama islands, lying eastward of Florida. There he gained much knowledge of them, especially of New Providence, the chief among them. On his return to England, King Charles gave a patent for the Bahamas to the proprietors of Carolina, and they were annexed. At that time these islands were uninhabited, and the group was a favorite resort for the buccaneers (which see), thus becoming notorious. The island of New Providence had a good harbor, but the arid soil did not invite cultivation. It is now a favorite resort for invalids.

Bailey, GUILFORD DUDLEY, was born at Martinsburg, Lewis Co., N. Y., June 4, 1834; killed in battle, May 31, 1862. He graduated at West Point in 1856, and entered, as lieutenant, the Second Artillery, then stationed at Fort Ontario, Oswego, N. Y., where, in 1858, he married a daughter of Colonel G. W. Patten, U. S. A. He was afterwards stationed at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; and when the Civil War began he was acting-adjutant of the post at Fort Brown, Texas, whose commander, Captain Stoneman, refused to surrender to the insurgents of Texas in obedience to the orders of the recreant General Twiggs (which see). Captain Stoneman chartered a steamboat, and, after securing the most valuable public property there, evacuated the fort, and sailed for New York, where he arrived March 15, 1861. Soon afterwards Lieutenant Bailey was sent with reinforcements for Fort Pickens (which see). His mission was successful. Sickness finally compelled him to return to New York to recruit his strength. Soon afterwards he was requested by Governor Morgan to organize a state regiment of light artillery, of which he was made colonel. With these troops, which he had well disciplined at Elmira, he went to Washington, and in the spring of 1862 he joined the Army of the Potomac at Fortress Monroe. At the battle of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines (which see), Colonel Bailey was in General Casey's division. When the sudden and furious attack was made, the infantry fell back, leaving Colonel Bailey's battery exposed. Instead of retreating and leaving his guns in the hands of the Confederates, he determined to make their spoils useless to them. Leaping from his horse, he was in the act of spiking one of the guns with his own hand, when the bullet of a sharp-shooter penetrated his brain, and he fell dead. His remains repose, under a monument erected by his widow, in the beautiful rural cemetery of Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

Bailey, JOSEPH, acquired great fame by his skill in damming the Red River at Alexandria (May, 1864), by which the squadron of iron-clad gunboats, under Admiral Porter, were enabled to pass down the rapids there when the water was low. He had been a lumberman in Wisconsin, and in that business had learned the practical part which he used in his engineering at Alexandria, where he was acting chief-engineer of the Nineteenth Army Corps. Other engineers said his proposition to dam the river was absurd, but in eleven days the boats, by his method, passed safely down. (See *Red River Dam.*) For this achievement he was made brigadier-general. He settled in Missouri after the war, where he was a formidable enemy of the "bushwhackers," and was shot by them in Nevada, in that state, on March 21, 1867.

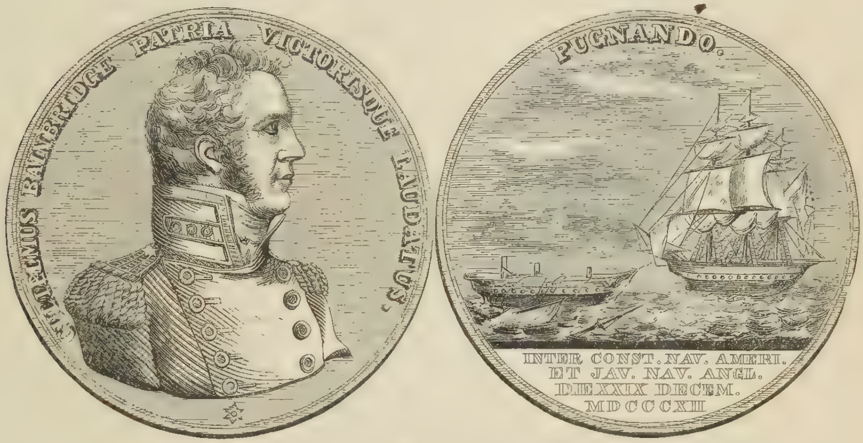
Bailey, THEODORUS, rear-admiral U. S. Navy, was born at Chateaugay, Franklin Co., N. Y., April 13, 1805; died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 10, 1877. He entered the navy as midshipman in January, 1818, and was captain in 1855. In July, 1862, he was made commodore, and in July, 1866, rear-admiral on the retired list. In 1861 Captain Bailey was in command of the *Colorado*, in the Western Gulf squadron, and was second in command of the expedition under Butler and Farragut up the Mississippi to capture New Orleans, in the spring of 1862. His vessel was too large to pass the bar, and taking what men and guns he could spare, he went up the river in his boats as a volunteer, and assumed the command of the first division. He led in the desperate attack on Fort St. Philip, Fort Jackson, and the Confederate flotilla. It was one of the most gallant naval operations of the war; and Admiral Farragut specially commended Captain Bailey as the leader in that attack. In 1862 he was in command of the Eastern Gulf squadron, and was successful in breaking up blockade-running on the Florida coast. He captured about one hundred and fifty of those violators of the neutrality laws of his country in the space of a year and a half. In 1865–67 he was in command of the navy-yard at Portsmouth.

THEODORUS BAILEY.

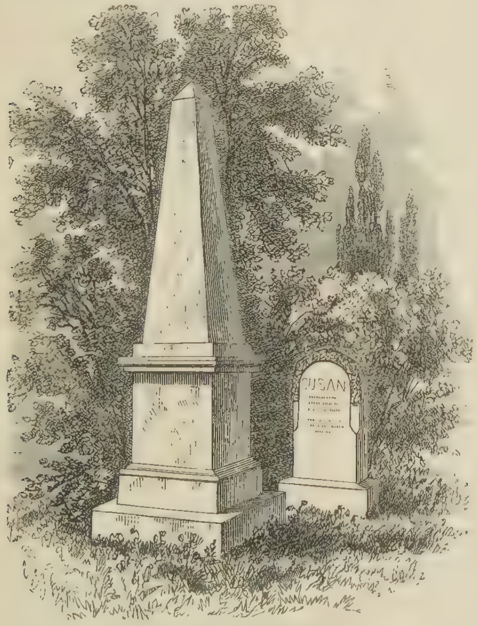
Bainbridge, WILLIAM, an American commodore, was born at Princeton, N. J., May 7, 1774; died in Philadelphia, July 28, 1833. At the age of sixteen years he went to sea, and commanded a ship at nineteen. On the reorganization of the navy in 1798 he was appointed a lieutenant. He and his vessel and crew were captured in the West Indies by a French cruiser in September of that year, but were released in December, when, returning home, he was promoted to the command of a brig. In May, 1800, he was commis-

WILLIAM BAINBRIDGE.

sioned a captain, and in the ship *Washington* he carried tribute from the United States to the Dey of Algiers, by whom he was treated with much insolence. By threats of capture and a declaration of war by the Algerine ruler, he was compelled to take an embassy to Constantinople for that petty despot. On his return, with power given him by the Sultan, Bainbridge frightened the insolent Dey, compelling him to release all Christian prisoners then in his possession. He returned to the United States in 1801, and he was again sent to the Mediterranean with the frigate *Essex*. Upon the declaration of war against the United States by Tripoli, in 1803 (see *War with Tripoli*), Bainbridge was put in command of the *Philadelphia*, one of Preble's squadron. On October 11 the *Philadelphia* struck on a rock near Tripoli, and was captured, with her commander and crew. At Tripoli Bainbridge and three hundred and fifteen of his men remained prisoners about nineteen months. On his return to the United States, he was received with great respect, and in the reorganization of the navy, in 1806, he became the seventh in the list of captains. Having obtained the rank of commodore, Bainbridge was appointed to the command of a squadron (September, 1812) composed of the *Constitution* (flag-ship), *Essex*, and *Hornet*, and sailed from Boston in October. Off the coast of Brazil the *Constitution* captured the British frigate *Java* (Dec. 26); and for this exploit the commodore received the thanks of Congress and a gold medal. (See *Constitution* and *Java*.) Other honors were bestowed upon him. In 1815 he was appointed to the command of a squadron of twenty sail, destined for Algiers (see *Algiers, War with*), but peace was concluded before it reached the Mediterranean. He settled disputes with the Barbary Powers (which see); and he again commanded in the Mediterranean in 1819–21. From that time he was almost constantly employed in service on shore, being at one time President of the Board of Navy Commissioners. Commodore Bainbridge was buried in Christ-church-yard, Philadelphia, and over his grave is a plain white marble obelisk. His wife's remains were buried near.


GULIELMUS BAINBRIDGE PATRIA VICTORIQUE LAUDATUS
PUGNANDO.
INTER CONST. NAV. AMERI.
ET JAV. NAV. ANGL.
DIE XXIX DECEM.
MDCCCXII

BAINBRIDGE MEDAL.



BAINBRIDGE'S MONUMENT.

Baird, Absalom, was born at Washington, Penn., Aug. 20, 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1849, having studied law before he entered the Military Academy. He was ordered to Washington, D. C., in March, 1861, and in May was made assistant adjutant-general. He became aid to General Tyler in the battle of Bull's Run, and in November was made assistant inspector-general, with the rank of major. In March, 1862, he became General Keys's chief of staff; and in April he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and sent to Kentucky. He commanded a division under General Granger in April, 1863, and was afterwards active in northern Georgia and in the Atlanta campaign. In Sherman's march to the sea (which see) he commanded a division of the 14th Army Corps, and also in the advance through the Carolinas. He was breveted major-general in March, 1865.

Baker, Edward Dickinson, soldier and statesman, was born in London, Feb. 24, 1811; killed at Ball's Bluff, on the Potomac, Oct. 21, 1861. His family came to America when he was a young child, and settled first in Philadelphia and afterwards (1825) in Illinois. Young Baker chose the law for a vocation, and entered upon its practice in Green County, Ill. In 1837, while residing in Springfield, he was elected to the Legislature. He was state senator in 1840–44, and then a member of Congress until the beginning of the war with Mexico. In that war (1846–47) he served as colonel of Illinois volunteers, and was elected to Congress in 1848. He settled in California in 1852, where he became distinguished in his profession, and as an orator in the ranks of the Republicans. In 1859 he removed to Oregon, where he was elected United States senator in 1860. He was in that service when the Civil War broke out, in 1861, when he raised a body of troops in New York and Philadelphia. Those of Pennsylvania were called the "First California Regiment." Declining to be appointed general, he went into the field as colonel at the head of his regiment. While fighting at Ball's Bluff, in Virginia, he was shot dead. (See *Ball's Bluff.*)

EDWARD DICKINSON BAKER.

Baker, Remember, a captain of "Green Mountain Boys" (which see), was born at Woodbury, Conn., about 1740; killed by Indians on the Sorel, the outlet of Lake Champlain, in August, 1775. He went to the New Hampshire Grants in 1764, before the Allens took up their abode there. (See *New Hampshire Grants.*) He was a soldier in the French and Indian War, and was in the fierce battle at Ticonderoga in 1758. He settled at Arlington, on "the Grants," and was very active with Ethan Allen in resisting the claims of New York to Vermont territory. Baker was arrested, and was cruelly treated while a prisoner, by the New-Yorkers. The government of that province had outlawed him and set a price upon his head. Captain Baker was with Allen when he took Ticonderoga, in May, 1775. He was killed while on a scout in the Continental service.

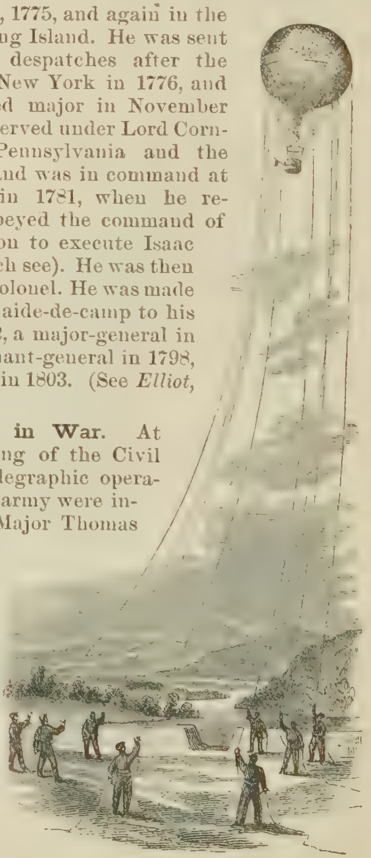
Balboa. (See *Nuñez, Vasco de.*)

Balcarras (Earl), Alexander Lindsay, was born in Scotland in 1752; died in London, March 27, 1825. He served three years in America under Carleton and Burgoyne, and was captured with the latter at Saratoga. At the battle of Hubbardton (which see), where he was wounded, thirteen balls passed through his clothes. He was made major-general in 1793, and was lieutenant-governor of Jamaica in 1794. He was made general in 1803, and was one of the representative peers from Scotland.

Balch, George B., U. S. Navy, was born in Tennessee, Dec. 30, 1821. He entered the navy in 1837; engaged in the war against Mexico, and was wounded in a naval engagement at Shanghai, China. He was engaged actively and successfully in the South Atlantic blockading squadron and in other naval operations on the Southern coasts during the Civil War.

Balfour, Nisbet, a British officer who served in America, was born in Edinburgh in 1743; died at Denbigh, Fifeshire, Scotland, Oct. 10, 1823. He was a son of an auctioneer and bookseller in Edinburgh; entered the British army as an ensign in 1761; commanded a company in 1770; was wounded at the battle of Bunker's Hill in June, 1775, and again in the battle of Long Island. He was sent home with despatches after the capture of New York in 1776, and was breveted major in November following. Served under Lord Cornwallis in Pennsylvania and the Carolinas; and was in command at Charleston in 1781, when he reluctantly obeyed the command of Lord Rawdon to execute Isaac Hayne (which see). He was then lieutenant-colonel. He was made colonel and aide-de-camp to his king in 1782, a major-general in 1793, lieutenant-general in 1798, and general in 1803. (See *Elliot, Mrs.*)

Balloons in War. At the beginning of the Civil War the telegraphic operations of the army were intrusted to Major Thomas J. Eckert. In this connection, T. S. C. Lowe, a distinguished aeronaut, was employed, and for some time balloons were used with great efficiency in



WAR BALLOON.

reconnoitring, but later in the progress of the war they fell into disuse. At the height of five hundred feet above Arlington House, opposite Washington City, Mr. Lowe telegraphed to President Lincoln as follows, in June, 1861: "Sir, from this point of observation we command an extent of country nearly fifty miles in diameter. I have pleasure in sending you the first telegram ever despatched from an aerial station, and acknowledging indebtedness to your encouragement for the opportunity of demonstrating the availability of the science of aeronautics in the service of the country." After sending the above despatch, Mr. Lowe was invited to the Executive mansion and introduced to General Scott; and he was soon afterwards employed in the military service. When in use, the balloon was kept under control by strong cords in the hands of men on the ground, who, when the reconnoissance was ended, drew it down to the place of departure.

Ballou, HOSEA, a leading clergyman of the denomination of Universalists, was born at Richmond, N. H., April 30, 1771; died in Boston, June 7, 1852. He was one of six sons of a Baptist clergyman, of whom three became Universalist ministers. Self-taught to read and write at the age of sixteen, he began to preach at the age of twenty-one, laboring principally in Rhode Island for a while, and afterwards in various parts of New England. About 1804 he wrote and published *Notes on the Parables* and *Treatise on the Atonement*. He was made pastor of a congregation in Portsmouth, N. H., in 1817, where he became distinguished as a controversialist writer, and in 1819 he began the publication of the *Universalist Magazine*. In 1831 he began, with his nephew (Hosea Ballou, Jr.), a quarterly publication entitled the *Universalist Expositor*.

Ball's Bluff, BATTLE AT. In October, 1861, a National force, commanded by General Charles P. Stone, was encamped between Edwards's and Conrad's ferries, on the Maryland side of the Upper Potomac, while the left wing of the Confederate army, under General Evans, lay at Leesburg, in Virginia. Misinformation had caused a belief that the Confederates had left Leesburg at a little past the middle of October, when General McClellan ordered General McCall, who commanded the advance of the right of the National forces in Virginia, to move forward and occupy Drainesville. At the same time he ordered General Stone to co-operate with General McCall, which he did by making a feint of crossing the river at the two ferries above named on the afternoon of Sunday, Oct. 20. At the same time part of a Massachusetts regiment, under Colonel Devens, was ordered to take post upon Harrison's Island, in the Potomac, abreast of Ball's Bluff. Devens went to the island with four companies in flat-boats taken from the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal. About 3000 men, under Colonel Edward D. Baker, of the National Senate, acting as brigadier, were held in readiness as a reserve in case of a battle. With that reserve was a fine body of Pennsylvanians known as the "First California Regiment." These movements of the Nationals caused an opposing one on the part of the Confederates, who had watched their antagonists with keen vigilance at a point of concealment not far off. Misinformed as to the position of the insurgents, and supposing McCall to be near enough to give aid if necessary, Stone, on the morning of the 21st, ordered some Massachusetts troops under Colonels Lee and Devens to cross to the Virginia shore from Harrison's Island to reconnoitre. They did not find the foe in the neighborhood. General Evans, unperceived, lay not far off; and riflemen and cavalry were hovering near and waiting a favorable opportunity to strike Devens, who, leaving a part of Lee's command near the Bluff, had advanced to near Leesburg. After a skirmish, in which he lost one man killed and nine wounded, he fell back towards the Bluff. While halting in an open field, he received orders from Stone to remain there until support could be sent to him. His entire force consisted of only 600 men. They were very soon attacked by the Confederates. It was a little past noon. Pressed by overwhelming numbers, Devens fell back to avoid being flanked. Meanwhile Colonel Baker had been pressing forward from Conrad's Ferry to the relief of the assailed troops. Ranking Devens, he had been ordered to Harrison's Island, with discretionary powers to reinforce the party on the Virginia main or to withdraw all the troops to the Maryland side of the river. He concluded to go forward, supposing the forces of McCall and others to be near. He was ignorant of the fact that General McClellan had ordered McCall to fall back from Drainesville. On reaching the field of conflict, Baker took the chief command of all the forces on the Bluff, about 1700 strong. Very soon afterwards, while he was in the thickest of the fight encouraging his men, a bullet pierced his brain and he fell dead. The battle had lasted two hours. His troops, unsupported by others, were crushed by superior numbers. Pressed back to the verge of the Bluff, which there rises more than one hundred feet above the river, they fought desperately for a while at twilight, for they had no means for crossing the swollen flood. They were soon overpowered. Some had been pushed down the declivity. Many were made prisoners, and many perished in trying to escape by swimming in the dark. Some were shot in the water, and others were drowned. A flat-boat laden with the wounded was riddled with bullets and sank. In this affair the Nationals lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, full 1000 men. The Confederates lost 153 killed. The number of their wounded is unknown.

Baltimore, ADJOURNMENT OF CONGRESS TO (1776). When the British army approached the Delaware River (December, 1776), and it was feared that they would cross into Pennsylvania and march on Philadelphia, there was much anxiety among the patriots. The Continental Congress, of the courage and patriotism of which there was a growing distrust, were uneasy. Leading Republicans hesitated to go further, and only Washington and a few other choice spirits were hopeful. When the commander-in-chief was asked what he would do if Philadelphia should be taken, he replied, "We will retreat beyond the Susquehanna River, and thence, if necessary, to the Allegheny Mountains." The great body of Quakers, numerous and influential in Pennsylvania, were opposed to the war, and loyalists abounded everywhere. Mifflin, who was a disowned member of the Society of Friends, and had witnessed the sudden growing lukewarmness of the Congress, fearing the effect of Howe's proclamation (which see) upon both, strongly recommended the removal of that body from Philadelphia. General Putnam, who had been sent to that city to fortify it, earnestly seconded Mifflin's proposition; and the Congress, trembling for their personal safety, gladly complied, and adjourned (Dec. 12, 1776) to meet at Baltimore, December 20. Putnam was invested with almost absolute control of military affairs in Philadelphia, and the Congress delegated its executive powers to a resident committee composed of Robert Morris, George Clymer, and George Walton, to act in their behalf during their absence. In Baltimore, the Congress reassembled (Dec. 20, 1776) in a spacious brick building that stood until within a few years, with fronts on Baltimore, Sharpe, and Liberty streets, and where, on the 23d, Rev. Patrick Allison, first minister of the Presbyterian Church in Baltimore, and Rev. William White, of the Episcopal Church in Philadelphia, were appointed chaplains.

MEETING-PLACE OF CONGRESS IN BALTIMORE IN 1776.

Baltimore Convention (1860). On June 18 the adjourned convention of Democratic delegates who had assembled in the Front Street Theatre at Charleston met at Baltimore, with Mr. Cushing in the chair. (See *Charleston Convention.*) The seceders from the Charleston Convention, who had been in session at Richmond (see *Seceders' Convention at Richmond*), had adjourned to Baltimore, and claimed the right to sit in the convention from which they had withdrawn. Mr. Cushing declined to decide the delicate question which arose, and referred the whole matter to the convention. It was debated for some time, when it was proposed that no delegate should be admitted unless he would pledge himself to abide by the action of a majority of the convention and support its nominees. The debates were hot and acrimonious, and at evening there were two mass-meetings of the Democracy in Baltimore, attended by tens of thousands of citizens and strangers. On the morning of June 19 the subject of contesting delegates was referred to the committee on credentials, and on the 21st, the committee not agreeing, two reports were submitted. Then a very warm debate was had, in which free rein was given to the expression of opinion, and the reopening of the slave-trade was advocated. Finally, on Friday, the 22d, the majority report was adopted, and the places of most of the seceders, who were unseated, were filled by Douglas men. Then there was another secession of delegates from the slave-labor states, and on the following morning Mr. Cushing and a majority of the Massachusetts delegation also withdrew. "We put our withdrawal before you," said Mr. Butler (Benjamin F.), of that delegation, "upon the simple ground, among others, that there has been a withdrawal, in part, of a majority of the states, and, further (and that, perhaps, more personal to myself), upon the ground that I will not sit in a convention where the African slave-trade — which is piracy by the laws of my country — is approvingly advocated." Governor David Tod, of Ohio, was then called to the chair in place of retired Cushing, and the convention proceeded to ballot for a Presidential candidate. Some of the Southern members remained in the convention; and the speech of a delegate from Arkansas (Mr. Flournoy), a slaveholder and friend of the system, was so liberal that it had a powerful effect upon delegates from the free-labor states in favor of Mr. Douglas. Of 194 votes cast on the second ballot, Mr. Douglas received 181, and he was declared duly nominated. Mr. Fitzpatrick, of Alabama, nominated for Vice-President, declined two days afterwards, and Herschel V. Johnson, of Georgia, was substituted. The convention adjourned June 23, 1860.

Baltimore Deputations in Washington. Governor Hicks passed the night of April 19, 1861, at the house of Mayor Brown in Baltimore. It was the night after the attack on the Massachusetts troops there. At 11 o'clock the mayor, with the concurrence of the governor, sent a committee of three persons to President Lincoln with a letter in which he assured the chief magistrate that the people of Baltimore were exasperated to the highest degree by the passage of troops through that city, and that the citizens were "universally decided in the opinion that no more should be ordered to come." He gave notice of the fearful riot the day before, and he requested the President not to order or permit any more troops to pass through the city, adding, "If they should attempt it the responsibility for the bloodshed will not rest on me." The committee saw the President early in the morning (April 20, 1861). The President told them that no more should come *through* the city if they could pass peaceably *around* it. This answer did not satisfy the Secessionists, and they pushed forward military preparations, making the capital more isolated from the loyal people every hour. The excitement in Washington was now becoming fearful, and at 3 o'clock on Sunday morning (April 21) the President sent for Governor Hicks and Mayor Brown. The former, with two others, hastened to Washington. At an interview with the President and General Scott, the latter proposed to bring troops by water to Annapolis, and march them across Maryland to the capital, a distance of about forty miles. The Baltimore Secessionists were not satisfied. The "soil of Maryland must not be polluted by the feet of National troops *anywhere*." On the 22d, Governor Hicks was induced to send a message to the President, advising him not to order any more troops across the soil of Maryland, and to send away some who were already at Annapolis. The President replied kindly but firmly. He reminded his Excellency that the route of the troops across that state chosen by the general-in-chief was farthest removed from populous towns, and said, "The President cannot but remember that there has been a time in the history of our country [1814] when a general [Winder, of Maryland] of the American Union, with forces designed for the defence of the capital, was not unwelcome anywhere in the State of Maryland, and certainly not at Annapolis, then, as now, the capital of that patriotic state; and then, also, one of the capitals of the Union." Governor Hicks had also unwisely recommended the President to refer the matter in dispute between the National Government and Maryland to Lord Lyons, the British Minister at Washington. To this proposition Mr. Lincoln replied: "If eighty years could have obliterated all other noble sentiments of that age from Maryland, the President would be hopeful, nevertheless, that there is one that would ever remain there, as elsewhere. That sentiment is, that no domestic contention whatever that may arise among the parties of this republic ought, in any case, to be referred to any foreign arbitrament, least of all to the arbitrament of a European monarchy." This rebuke was keenly felt. Yet still another embassy in the interest of the Baltimore Secessionists visited the President. Five members of the Young Men's Christian Association of Baltimore, with Rev. Dr. Fulton, of the Baptist Church, at their head, waited on the President, and assured him that if he would let the country know that he was disposed "to recognize the independence of the Southern States, that they had formed a government of their own, and that they would never again unite with the North," he could produce peace. When the Doctor expressed a hope that no more troops would be allowed to cross Maryland, the President replied, substantially, "I *must* have troops for the defence of the capital. The Carolinians are now marching across Virginia to seize the capital and hang me. What am I to do? I *must* have troops, I say; and, as they can neither crawl under Maryland nor fly over it, they must come across it." With this significant intimation of the President that he should take measures to defend the Republic without asking the consent of the authorities or inhabitants of any state, the deputation retired, and none other was afterwards sent by the enemies of the Union in Baltimore.

Baltimore Excited. When news of the "Secession of Virginia" reached Baltimore, the disunionists in that city ventured to take a cannon to Federal Hill, raise a Secession flag, and fire a salute on April 18, 1861. The workmen in the iron-founderies near turned out, captured the gun, and cast it into the Patapsco River; and they tore the Secession flag into shreds, and dispersed the disunionists. On the same day some leading Virginians from Winchester came down to Baltimore, and demanded from the managers of the Baltimore and Ohio railway guarantees that no National troops or munitions of war should be permitted to pass over it. This demand was accompanied with a threat that if it was not complied with, the Virginians would destroy the bridge of the road at Harper's Ferry. In the afternoon, after the Pennsylvanians had passed through the city (see *Pennsylvanians in Baltimore*), the "National Volunteer Association," which had attempted to fire a salute on Federal Hill, held a meeting in Monument Square. T. Parkins Scott presided. The excited citizens were gathered there by thousands, and were harangued in vehement language. "Coercion" was denounced, and the people were exhorted to drill and prepare for conflict. "I do not care," said one of the speakers, "how many Federal troops are sent to Washington, they will soon find themselves surrounded by such an army from Virginia and Maryland that escape to their homes will be impossible; and when the seventy-five thousand [called for by the President] who are intended to invade the South shall have polluted that soil with their touch, the South will exterminate and sweep them from the earth." This meeting prepared the mob that attacked the Massachusetts troops the next day. (See *Massachusetts Troops in Baltimore.*) After the events of that day, when the troops from Massachusetts and Philadelphia had passed on to Washington, a meeting was convened at Monument Square, by the dominant party. George H. Stuart (afterwards a leader of Confederate troops) had the First Light Division there with ball-cartridges, and over the platform waved the flag of Maryland. Mayor Brown, S. Teakle Wallis, W. P. Preston, and others addressed the excited multitude, and assured them that no more National troops should pass through the city. The populace were requested to disperse quietly to their homes. Governor Hicks, moved by the caution which old age brings, yielded to the storm. He and the mayor joined in a despatch to President Lincoln, telling him of the fearful excitement, and saying, "Send no more troops here." (See *Baltimore Deputations in Washington.*) A committee of the meeting invited Hicks to the stand. After Mayor Brown had said to the people, "It is folly and madness for one portion of the nation to attempt the subjugation of another portion; it can never be done," Hicks arose and declared that he coincided in the sentiment of the mayor. "I bow in submission to the people," he said. "I am a Marylander; I love my state, and I love the Union; but I will suffer my right arm to be torn from my body before I will raise it to strike a sister state." The populace were not quieted. They paraded the streets threatening violence to Union men. That evening (April 19, 1861) Marshal Kane, at the head of the Baltimore police, and an earnest disunionist, received an offer of troops from Frederick, which he accepted, and urged them to come immediately. "Send expresses over the mountains and valleys of Maryland and Virginia," he said, "for the riflemen to come without delay." The events of the two days in Baltimore (April 18 and 19) filled the loyal people of the country with indignation, and they determined that that city should not present a barrier to troops hastening to the relief of the menaced capital.

Baltimore in Possession of National Troops (1861). The authorities of Baltimore, civil and military, took measures to prevent any more National troops from passing through the city. Armed men flocked into the town from the country with all sorts of weapons. Cannons were exercised openly in the streets. Marshal Kane, under the direction of the city authorities, forbade the display of the national flag for thirty days, that it might not "disturb the public peace." The exasperated people of the free-labor states could hardly be restrained from marching on Baltimore and laying it in ashes. Measures were soon used to subdue that city by force. Steps were taken to repair the burned railway bridges, and a singular railway battery was constructed in Philadelphia for the protection of the men engaged in the work—a car made of boiler-iron, musket-proof, with a 24-pound cannon mounted at one end to fire grape and chain shot. General Scott planned a grand campaign against Baltimore. He proposed to move simultaneously upon the city four columns of troops of three thousand men each—one from Washington, a second from New York, a third from Perrysville, or Elkton, by land or water, or both, and a fourth from Annapolis. It was thought twelve thousand men would be needed for the enterprise. They were not at hand, for ten thousand troops were yet needed at the capital for its perfect security. The time for the execution of the plan seemed somewhat remote. General B. F. Butler conceived a more expeditious and less cumbersome plan. He was satisfied that the Secessionists in Baltimore were numerically weak, and that the Unionists, with a little help, could easily reverse the order of things there. He hastened to Washington to consult with General Scott, and simply asked permission to take a regiment or two from Annapolis, march them to the Relay House on the Baltimore and Ohio railway (nine miles from Baltimore) and hold it, so as to cut the Secessionists off from facile communication with Harper's Ferry. The permission was granted. "What are the powers of a general commanding a Department?" asked Butler. "Absolute," responded Scott. Butler ascertained that Baltimore was in his "Department," and he went back to Annapolis to execute a bold plan which he had conceived. At the close of April, 1861, he had full ten thousand men under his command, and an equal number were guarding the seat of government. The Unionists of Maryland were already asserting their rights openly. Governor Hicks had just cast a damper on the Secessionists by recommending, in a message to the Legislature, a neutral policy for Maryland. On the evening of May 4, an immense Union meeting was held in Baltimore. These proofs of the latent force of the Unionists of Maryland gave Butler every encouragement. He had proposed to do himself, with a few men, at once, what Scott proposed to do with twelve thousand men in an indefinite time. On the afternoon of May 4, he issued orders for the Eighth New York and Sixth Massachusetts regiments, with a battery of the Boston Light Artillery, to proceed from Washington City to the Relay House on the morning of the 5th. They did so, in thirty cars. They seized the railway station at the Relay House. Butler accompanied them, and remained there a little more than a week. From Unionists of Baltimore he obtained all desired information. Through Colonel Schuyler Hamilton, on Scott's staff, he received permission to arrest Secessionists in and out of Baltimore, to prevent armed insurgents joining those at Harper's Ferry, and to look after a quantity of gunpowder said to be stored in a church in Baltimore. Towards the evening of the 13th, the entire Sixth Massachusetts regiment, a part of the New York Eighth, with the Boston Light Artillery with two cannons—about one thousand men in all—were put on cars headed towards Harper's Ferry. The train moved up the Patapsco Valley about two miles, and then backed slowly to the Relay House and past it. At dark it was in the Camden Street Station in Baltimore. A heavy thunder-storm was about to burst upon the city, and, few persons being about, little was known of this portentous arrival. Butler marched his troops from the station to Federal Hill in a drenching shower. He sat down in his wet garments at past midnight and wrote a proclamation, dated "Federal Hill, Baltimore, May 14, 1861," in which it was announced that troops under his command occupied the city for the purpose of enforcing respect and obedience to the laws, as well of the state as of the United States, which were being "violated within its limits by some malignant and traitorous men." This proclamation, published in the *Baltimore Clipper* in the morning, was the first intimation to the citizens that National troops were in possession of their town. The conquest was complete, and the hold thus taken on Baltimore was never relinquished. General Scott was offended because of Butler's unauthorized act, and requested President Lincoln to remove him from the Department. The President did so, but gave Butler the commission of a major-general and the command of a much more extended military district—the "Department of Virginia," which included Fortress Monroe.

Baltimore, Lords. I. George Calvert, born about 1580, at Kipling, Yorkshire, Eng.; died in London April 15, 1632. He was graduated at Oxford; travelled on the Continent; became secretary of Robert Cecil; married Anne Minne in 1604; was a clerk of the privy council; was knighted in 1617; became a secretary of state soon afterwards, and in 1620 was granted a pension of $5000 a year. When, in 1624, he publicly avowed himself a Roman Catholic, he resigned his office, but King James retained him in the privy council; and a few days before that monarch's death he was created Baron of Baltimore in the Irish peerage. Calvert had already entered upon a colonizing scheme. In 1620 he purchased a part of Newfoundland, and was invested with the privileges and honors of a Count-Palatine. He called his new domain *Avalon*, and, after spending about $100,000 in building warehouses there, and a mansion for himself, he went thither in 1627. He returned to England the following spring. In the spring of 1629 he went again to Avalon, taking with him his wife and unmarried children. The following winter was a severe one, and he began to contemplate a desertion of the domain on account of the rigorous climate. He sent his children home. In the autumn he actually abandoned Newfoundland, and with his wife and retainers sailed to Virginia, where, because he refused to take the oath of allegiance, he was ordered away by Governor Harvey. His wife and retainers remained there during the winter. Going from there in the spring, it is supposed he explored the shores of Chesapeake Bay, and chose that region for a settlement. In 1632, Lord Baltimore obtained a charter from Charles I. of the territory on the Chesapeake now forming the State of Maryland. "What will you call the country?" asked the king. Baltimore referred the matter to his majesty. "Then let us name it after the queen" (Henrietta Maria), said Charles, "and call it *Mariana*." The expert courtier dissented, because that was the name of a Spanish historian who taught that "the will of the people is higher than the law of tyrants." Still disposed to compliment the queen, the king said, "Let it be *Terra Maria—Mary's Land*." And it was named Maryland. Before the great seal of England was affixed to the charter, Lord Baltimore died, and was succeeded by his son Cecil II. Cecilius or Cecil Calvert, second Lord Baltimore, was born about 1605. Very little is known of his early life. When he was about twenty years of age he married Anne, the beautiful daughter of the Earl of Arundel, who was one of the most influential Roman Catholics in the realm. On the death of his father, the charter for Maryland was issued to Cecilius, his eldest son and heir, June, 1632; and he immediately prepared to sail for the Chesapeake with a colony. When he was about ready to depart, he changed his mind, and sent his brother Leonard, as governor, with his brother George, and two assistants and counsellors, Jeremy Hawley and Thomas Cornwallis, both Protestants. The whole company, who sailed in two vessels—the *Ark* and *Dove*—numbered over three hundred, according to Lord Baltimore, who wrote to his friend Wentworth (afterwards the unfortunate Earl of Strafford), "By the help of some of your lordship's good friends and mine, I have sent a hopeful colony into Maryland, with a fair and favorable expectation of good success, without any great prejudice to myself, in respect that many others are joined with me in the adventure. There are two of my brothers, with very near twenty other gentlemen of very good fashion, and three hundred laboring men." As most of the latter took the oath of allegiance before sailing, they were probably Protestants. Father Andrew White, a Jesuit priest, accompanied the expedition. They sailed from the Isle of Wight, and took the tedious southern route by way of the Canaries. The vessels were separated by a furious gale, but met at Bermuda, whence the emigrants went to the Chesapeake, founded a settlement, and established a government under the charter, which was nearly the same in form as all charters then granted. (See *Maryland*.) It conferred on the proprietor absolute ownership of the territory, and also the civil and ecclesiastical power of a feudal nature. Entire exemption from taxation was conceded to the colonists. As an acknowledgment that the original title to the land was still in the possession of the crown, the proprietor was required to pay to the king the tribute of two Indian arrows. Cecil was a member of Parliament in 1634, but mingled very little in public affairs afterwards. He never came to America, but managed his province by deputies forty-three years. His course towards the

CECIL, LORD BALTIMORE.

colonists was generally wise and conciliatory, because it was profitable to be so. In religion and politics he was very flexible, being quite indifferent to either, and he did very little for the religious and intellectual cultivation of the colonists. Negatively good, he was regarded with great respect by all parties, even by the Indians. He died in London, Nov. 30, 1675. III. CHARLES CALVERT, third Lord Baltimore, succeeded his father as Lord-proprietor of Maryland in 1675. He was born in London in 1629; died there Feb. 24, 1714. He was appointed governor of Maryland in 1661, and married the daughter of Hon. Henry Sewall, whose seat was on the Patuxent River. After the death of his father he visited England, but soon returned. In 1684 he again went to England, and never came back. He was suspected of favoring King James II. after the Revolution, and was outlawed for treason in Ireland, although he was never in that country. The outlawry was reversed by William and Mary in 1691. Charles Lord Baltimore was thrice married. IV. BENEDICT LEONARD CALVERT, fourth Lord Baltimore, succeeded his father, Charles, in 1714. In 1698 he married Lady Charlotte Lee, daughter of the Earl of Litchfield (granddaughter of the notorious Duchess of Cleveland, the favorite mistress of Charles II.), from whom he was divorced in 1705. Benedict publicly abjured the Roman Catholic faith in 1713, and died in 1715, only thirteen months after the death of his father. V. CHARLES CALVERT II., son of Benedict, and the fifth Lord Baltimore, was born Sept. 29, 1699, and was an infant in law when he succeeded to his father's title. In July, 1730, he married the widow Mary Janssen, youngest daughter of General Theodore Janssen. His life was spent chiefly in England. In 1731 he was appointed Gentleman of the Bedchamber to the Prince of Wales, and soon afterwards was elected Fellow of the Royal Society. He was in Parliament in 1734, and in 1741 was appointed Junior Lord of the Admiralty. In the spring of 1741 he was appointed cofferer to the Prince of Wales and Surveyor-general of the Duchy lands in Cornwall. After having ruled Maryland in person and by deputy more than thirty years, he died April 24, 1751, at his home in London. VI. FREDERICK CALVERT, sixth and last Lord Baltimore, was born in 1731, and succeeded to the title of his father, Charles II., in 1751. He married Lady Diana Egerton, youngest daughter of the Duke of Bridgewater, in 1753. He led a disreputable life, and died at the age of forty, at Naples, Sept. 14, 1771. Yet he was a patron of literature and a friend and companion of the Earl of Chatham (Pitt). In 1767 he published an account of his "Tour in the East." He was a pretentious author of several other works, mostly of a weak character. Lord Frederick bequeathed the province of Maryland in *tail male*, to Henry Harford, then a child, and the remainder, in fee, to his sister, the Hon. Mrs. Norton. He left an estate valued at $5000. The last representative of the Baltimore family was found in a debtor's prison in England, in 1860, by Colonel Angus McDonald, of Virginia, where he had been confined for twenty years. Henry Harford was the last proprietor of Maryland.

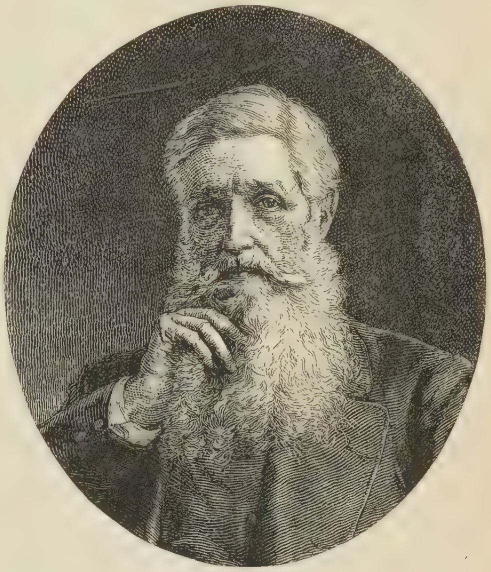
Baltimore, ORIGIN OF THE CITY OF. David Jones, the first settler on the site of Baltimore, in 1682, gave his name to a small stream that runs through the city. In January, 1730, a town was laid out on the west of this stream, contained in a plot of sixty acres, and was called Baltimore, in honor of Cecil, Lord Baltimore. In the same year William Fell, a ship-carpenter, purchased a tract east of the stream and called it Fell's Point, on the extremity of which Fort McHenry now stands. In 1732 a new town of ten acres was laid out on the east side of the stream, and called Jonestown. It was united to Baltimore in 1745, dropping its own name. In 1767 Baltimore became the county town.

Baltimore, PATRIOTIC MOVEMENTS IN (1774). The inhabitants of Baltimore warmly seconded the recommendation of the New York committee for a general congress, and, after adopting a non-importation agreement (May, 1774), appointed delegates to a Continental Congress, and chose a numerous committee of correspondence. This example kindled new life in New York, where the Tory element was then making the spirit of the colony appear lukewarm.

Baltimore Police (1861). The Chief of Police in Baltimore was George P. Kane, with the title of "Marshal." He was a leading Secessionist in that city and an active opposer of the government in Maryland. In Baltimore he was the head of the Secession movements in Maryland; and early in June, 1861, the National government was satisfied that a powerful combination was forming there, whose purpose was to assist the army of insurgents at Manassas, under Beauregard, to seize the National capital, by preventing loyal soldiers passing through that state, and aiding Marylanders to cross into Virginia and swell the ranks of the Confederate forces. The government took energetic steps to avert this threatened danger. N. P. Banks, ex-Governor of Massachusetts, lately commissioned major-general of volunteers, was assigned to the command of the Department of Annapolis, as Butler's successor, with his headquarters at Baltimore. It was evident to Banks that the Board of Police and Marshal Kane were in active sympathy, if not in actual league, with the leading Secessionists of Maryland. After satisfying himself of the complicity of certain officials in the movement, he ordered a large body of soldiers, armed and equipped with ball cartridges, to march into Baltimore from Fort McHenry before daybreak on June 27, and to arrest Marshal Kane and place him a prisoner in that fortress. At the same time Banks issued a proclamation, giving his reasons for the act. He did not intend to interfere with the lawful acts of the civil authority, he said, but as it was well known that a disloyal combination existed in his Department, and that the chief of police, "in contravention of his duty and in violation of law," was "by direction or indirection both witness and protector in the transactions of armed parties engaged therein," the government could not "regard him otherwise than as the head of an armed force hostile to its authority, and acting in concert with its avowed enemies." He appointed Brigadier John R. Kenly, a citizen of Baltimore, provost-marshal in and for that city, to "superintend and cause to be executed the police laws" of Baltimore, "with the aid and assistance of the subordinate officers of the police department," assuring the citizens that when a loyal man should be appointed chief of police the military would at once yield to the civil authority. The police commissioners met and protested against this act as illegal, and disbanded the police. Banks soon regulated the matter so as to quiet the citizens, and Kenly, organizing a police force of loyal men, whom he could trust, two hundred and fifty strong, took possession of the quarters of the late marshal and police commissioners. There he found ample evidence of treacherous designs. Concealed beneath the floors in several rooms he found a large number of small-arms, of every description; and in a wood-yard in the rear, in a position to command an alley, were four iron cannon with suitable cartridges and balls. The old police commissioners continuing to hold meetings, they were arrested and sent to Fort Warren, in Boston Harbor, as prisoners of state. At the suggestion of many Union citizens of Baltimore, George R. Dodge, a civilian and citizen, was appointed chief of police, and Colonel Kenly joined his regiment—the First Maryland Volunteers.

Bancroft, Edward, a political and philosophical writer, was born at Westfield, Mass., Jan. 9, 1744; died in England, Sept. 8, 1820. He was a pupil of Silas Deane (which see), when the latter was a schoolmaster. His early education was not extensive. Apprenticed to a mechanic, he ran away, in debt to his master, and went to sea; but returning with means, he compensated his employer. Again he went to sea; settled in Guiana, South America, as a physician, in 1763, and afterwards made his residence in London, where, in 1769, he published a *Natural History of Guiana.* He became a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and Fellow of the Royal Society. While Franklin was in England on a diplomatic mission, Dr. Bancroft became intimate with him; and through the influence of the philosopher became a contributor to the *Monthly Review.* He was suspected by the British government of participation in the attempt to burn the Portsmouth dock-yards (see *John the Painter*), and he fled to Passy, France. Soon afterwards he met Silas Deane, his old teacher, in Paris, and offered to assist him in his labors as agent of the Continental Congress. His ways were sometimes devious, and Mr. Bancroft, the historian, accuses him of being a spy in the pay of the British government, and of making a dupe of Deane. After the peace, Dr. Bancroft obtained, in France, a patent for the exclusive importation of the bark of the yellow oak, for the dyers, and afterwards he obtained a similar patent in England. Dr Bancroft never returned to America.

Bancroft, George, LL.D., historian, was born at Worcester, Mass., Oct. 3, 1800; son of Rev. Aaron Bancroft, a distinguished Unitarian clergyman and pioneer in "liberal Christianity." He graduated at Harvard in 1817; studied at the German universities, and received, at Göttingen, the honorary degree of Doctor of Philosophy when he was only twenty years of age. He resided some time in Berlin in the society of distinguished scholars, and on his return home, in 1822, he became a tutor of Greek in Harvard University. He published a volume of poems in 1823, and in 1824 a translation of Heeren's *Politics of Ancient Greece.* In 1823, in conjunction with J. G. Cogswell, he established the celebrated "Round Hill School," at Northampton, Mass. While in the German universities, Mr. Bancroft studied with avidity whatever was taught in them, but made history a specialty. His chief tutors there were Heeren, Eichhorn, and Blumenbach. At Berlin he became intimate with Wilhelm von Humboldt and other eminent scholars and philosophers. At Heidelberg he spent some time in the study of history with Schlosser; and in Paris he made the acquaintance of Alexander von Humboldt, Cousin, and others. At Rome he formed a friendship with Chevalier Bünsen; he also knew Niebuhr. While engaged in the Round Hill School, Mr. Bancroft completed the first volume of his *History of the United States,* which was published in 1834. Ten volumes of this work have been published (1876), the last in 1874, or forty years from the commencement of the work. The tenth volume brings the narrative down to the conclusion of the Preliminary Treaty of Peace in 1782. In 1838 President Van Buren appointed Mr. Bancroft collector of the port of Boston. He was then engaged in delivering frequent political addresses, and took a deep interest in the philosophical movement now known as "transcendentalism." He was a Democrat



GEORGE BANCROFT, LL.D.

in politics, and in 1840 received the nomination for governor of Massachusetts, but was not elected. In 1845 President Polk called Mr. Bancroft to his cabinet as Secretary of the Navy, and he signalized his administration by the establishment of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. While Secretary of the Navy he gave the order to take possession of California, which was done by the navy; and while acting temporarily as Secretary of War he gave the order for General Taylor to cross the Rio Grande and invade the territory of Mexico. In 1846 Mr. Bancroft was sent as U. S. Minister-plenipotentiary to England, and in 1849 the University of Oxford conferred upon him the honorary degree of Doctor of Civil Law. During this residence in Europe he perfected his collection of materials for his history, visiting the public archives and libraries at Paris. Returning to America in 1849, he made his residence in New York city, where he prosecuted his historical labors. He was engaged in these labors until 1867, when he was appointed, by President Johnson (May 14), Minister to Prussia, and accepted the office. In 1868 he was accredited to the North German Confederation, and in 1871 to the German empire. In August, 1868, Mr. Bancroft received from the University of Bonn the honorary degree of "Doctor Juris;" and in 1870 he celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the reception of his first degree at Göttingen, receiving the congratulations of many German faculties and societies. Mr. Bancroft has been a contributor of numerous essays to the *North American Review*. His *History of the United States* has been translated into several languages. It is not merely a narrative of events, but a philosophic treatise, dealing with causes and principles as well as events.

Banishment of Quakers. The "Testimony" of Friends, or Quakers, at their yearly meeting in Philadelphia in May, 1775, against the movements of the American patriots attracted special attention to that body. The papers and records of their yearly meeting in New Jersey, captured by Sullivan in his expedition against the loyalist regiments on Staten Island, gave Congress the first proof of the general disaffection of the society. The Congress recommended the executives of the several colonies or states to watch their movements; and the Executive Council of Pennsylvania were earnestly exhorted to arrest and secure the persons of eleven of the leading men of that society in Philadelphia, whose names were given. It was done (Aug. 28, 1777), and John Fisher, Abel James, James Pemberton, Henry Drinker, Israel Pemberton, John Pemberton, John James, Samuel Pleasants, Thomas Wharton, Sr., Thomas Fisher, and Samuel Fisher, leading members, were banished to Fredericksburg, Va. The reason given by Congress for this act was that when the enemy were pressing on towards Philadelphia in December, 1777, a certain seditious publication, addressed "To our Friends and Brethren in Religious Profession in these and the adjacent Provinces," signed John Pemberton, in and on behalf of the "Meeting of Sufferings," held in Philadelphia, Dec. 26, 1776, had been widely circulated among Friends throughout the states. At the same time the Congress instructed the Board of War to send to Fredericksburg John Penn, the governor, and Benjamin Chew, chief-justice of Pennsylvania, for safe custody.

Bank in Pennsylvania, First. In the great emergency of the half-starved Continental army in the spring of 1780, the Congress resorted to the expedient of selling bills on John Jay, who had been sent to the Spanish court to negotiate for a subsidy or a loan. These bills, amounting in the aggregate to more than $500,000, were made payable in six months after sight, in the hope that before they should mature Mr. Jay would obtain the desired subsidy. This proceeding shows the desperate situation of the finances of Congress. At this time of need on the part of the army, Robert Morris, George Clymer, and other leading citizens of Philadelphia, having received on deposit some of the bills drawn on Jay as a support to their credit and an indemnity in case of loss, established a joint-stock company, or bank, the object of which was to transport to the camp a supply of provisions without any profit to themselves. There were, at that time, two political parties in Pennsylvania—one, calling themselves "Republicans," were radical; the other, called the "Constitutional party," were conservative. Those concerned in the establishment of the bank were of the Republican party; and the Constitutional party, not to be outdone by the other in zeal for the cause, obtained, by their majority in the Assembly, authority for President Reed to proclaim martial law, should such a step become necessary in order to carry out the requisitions of Congress.

Bank of North America. It was soon perceived that under the new government (*Articles of Confederation*, which see) the Congress had no power, independent of the several states, to enforce taxation. Robert Morris, then Superintendent of Finance (Secretary of the Treasury), proposed the establishment of a bank at Philadelphia, to supply the government with money, with a capital of $400,000. The promissory notes of the bank were to be a legal-tender currency, to be received in payment of all taxes, duties, and debts due the United States. The plan was approved by the Congress (May 26, 1781), and this financial agent of the government was chartered by the Congress Dec. 31. The capital stock was divided into shares of $400 each, in money of gold and silver, to be procured by subscriptions. Twelve directors were appointed to manage the affairs of the bank, which was entitled by the Congress "The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of North America." That corporation furnished adequate means for saving the Continental army from disbanding.

Bank of the United States. (See *United States Bank.*)

Banking in the United States. (See *United States Bank.*) With the expiration of the charter of the U. S. Bank in 1811, and of the existence of the institution, a large number of state banks were created. In the course of four years (1811–15) one hundred and twenty-three state banks were created, with an aggregate capital of $40,000,000, and an estimated emission of notes to the amount of $200,000,000, a large portion of which, in the Middle States, were issued as loans to the government. The re-creation of the Bank of the United States in 1816 compelled the state banks to resume specie payment (which had been suspended during the war) or wind up. Of the 446 state banks then in existence, with an aggregate capital of about $90,000,000, a very large number were compelled to liquidate. From 1811 to 1830 165 banks, with a capital of $30,000,000, closed business, with a loss to government and individuals of about $5,000,000. The United States Bank became a powerful financial machine, and the state banks complained loudly of the tyranny exercised over them by it and its branches. It ceased to exist in 1836. The number of state banks had then largely increased, being 634 in 1837, with a capital of nearly $291,000,000. This number was increased in 1840 to 901, with a capital of over $358,000,000. In 1860 the number of banks in the Union was 1562, with an aggregate capital of about $422,000,000 and a circulation of about $207,000,000. At that time they held $83,594,537 in specie, and their deposits were nearly $254,000,000. A national bank currency system of the United States was organized by act of Congress early in 1863; and under an act of June 3, 1864, national banks were organized and a uniform national currency was established. (See *National Currency.*) Early in the late Civil War all the banks in the United States suspended specie payments. In January, 1875, Congress passed an act providing for their resumption of specie payments on the first of January, 1879. As that time approached there were preliminary movements towards that end, such as redeeming the fractional currency with silver (1876), by which a large amount of the latter coin was put into circulation. There was very strong opposition to resumption at that time, and prophets of evil foretold infinite disasters to the business of the country. It was declared that the demand for gold would be greater than the supply; but when the day came, and the clerical force of the Subtreasury in New York was increased in order to facilitate the paying out of gold for "greenbacks" (which see) presented, they had nothing to do. There was actually more gold paid *in* than was paid *out.* From that hour the business of the country permanently revived for the first time since the great revulsion of 1873.

Banking Schemes in Massachusetts. In 1740 the colonies were called upon to furnish men and means in a war against the Spanish-American colonies. The call found the people of Massachusetts engaged in bitter strife with Governor Belcher. The laws authorizing the circulation of a paper currency would soon expire. The rapid withdrawal of that paper would act like a bank contraction in our day, but with more stringency. Belcher resolutely refused to sanction laws for the extension of the period of redemption, and schemes for joint-stock banking were revived. Two companies were organized — one, known as the "Silver Scheme," proposed to issue £150,000 in notes redeemable in silver at the end of fifteen years; another, called the "Manufactory Scheme," or "Land Bank," undertook to circulate double that amount, to be redeemed, at the end of twenty years, in colonial produce. The Silver Scheme was patronized by the merchants and traders, the Land Bank by the farmers and mechanics. Belcher opposed both, and took away the commissions of all officers of the militia and justices of the peace who had anything to do with either. The people, in spite of him, established the "Land Bank," with eight hundred stockholders, who controlled the Assembly. The governor issued a proclamation against the scheme. The leaders in the scheme retaliated by plotting for his removal. This was accomplished by downright lying; and William Shirley was appointed his successor. The bank was speedily wound up by an act of Parliament which prohibited the formation of unincorporated stock companies with more than six partners. This act was denounced in Massachusetts and South Carolina as an illegal interference with the chartered rights of the people.

Banks, NATHANIEL PRENTISS, was born at Waltham, Mass., Jan. 30, 1816. His early education was obtained at a common school. He became a lawyer and Democratic orator; edited a newspaper in Waltham and Lowell; and during the administration of President Polk he held office in the Boston Custom-house. In 1849 he was a member of the Massachusetts Legislature, and Speaker of the Lower House in 1851–52. He was President of the State Constitutional Convention in 1853, and a member of Congress in 1853–57, separating from the Democratic party on the question of slavery; and, after a long contest, was elected Speaker of the House of Representatives in 1855. Mr. Banks was chosen Governor of Massachusetts in 1858, and served until 1861. When the Civil War broke out he was President of the Illinois Central Railroad.

NATHANIEL PRENTISS BANKS.

Offering his services to President Lincoln, he was made a major-general of volunteers May 16, 1861, and appointed to command the Annapolis military district. General Banks was an active and skilful leader in various battles during the war in Virginia and in the region of the Lower Mississippi and Red rivers. In 1865 he was elected to Congress.

Banneker, BENJAMIN, a negro mathematician, was born in Maryland, Nov. 9, 1731; died in Baltimore, October, 1806. His maternal grandmother, who had charge of him in his early childhood, taught him to read and write. He taught himself mathematics and astronomy; and for many years, while engaged in daily labor, made the necessary calculations for and published an almanac for Maryland and the adjoining states. Mr. Jefferson presented one of his almanacs to the French Academy of Sciences, where it excited wonder and admiration, and the "African Almanac" became well known to the scientific circles of Europe. In 1790 he was employed by the commissioners in the survey of the boundaries of the District of Columbia. Banneker was also a poet. His grandmother was an Englishwoman, who purchased a small plantation in Maryland, bought two slaves from a ship just from Africa, and married one of them.

Banquets to Naval Heroes. On Dec. 29, 1812, a banquet was given by the corporation and citizens of New York to Hull, Jones, and Decatur, who had gained naval victories. Hull and Decatur were present; Jones was absent. The corporation of New York also gave a banquet to the gallant crew of the frigate *United States*, Decatur's victorious vessel, which captured the *Macedonian*. It was given at the City Hotel, Jan. 7, 1813. The sailors present numbered about four hundred; and as they marched to the hotel they were greeted by crowds of men, women, and children in the streets, and the waving of handkerchiefs from the windows. In the evening they went to the Park Theatre, by invitation of the manager. The drop-curtain had on it a representation of the fight between the *United States* and *Macedonian*. Children dancing on the stage bore letters of the alphabet in their hands, which, being joined in the course of the dance, produced in transparency the names of HULL, JONES, and DECATUR. McFarland, an Irish clown, then sang a comic song of seven stanzas written for the occasion, beginning:

"No more of your blathering nonsense
'Bout Nelsons of old Johnny Bull;
I'll sing you a song, by my conscience,
'Bout Jones and Decatur and Hull.
Dad Neptune has long, with vexation,
Beheld with what insolent pride
The turbulent, billow-washed nation,
Has aimed to control the salt tide.

"CHORUS.—Sing lather away, genteel and aisy,
By my soul, at the game, hob-or-nob,
In a very few minutes we'll plaise ye,
Because we take work by the job."

Such banquets occurred several times during the Second War for Independence—1812–15—in honor of the unexpected and complete victories of the American ships and seamen over those of Great Britain. For these occasions songs were composed, and became very popular; and they continued to be sung at social gatherings for ten years afterwards.

Baptist Church, THE FIRST, IN AMERICA. Roger Williams, before he left England, had been under the teachings of Baptists there, some of whom had been refugees from persecution in Holland. These had instituted baptism among themselves by authorizing certain of their members to be administrators of the rite. Cast out from the Congregational churches in Massachusetts, Williams conceived the idea of forming a Baptist church in his new home at Providence, R. I., after the manner of the refugees in Holland, but in a more simple form. In March, 1639, Ezekiel Holliman, a layman, first baptized Williams, and then Williams baptized Holliman and "some ten more." These men then formed a Baptist church at Providence. But Williams did not remain a Baptist long. He very early doubted the validity of Holliman's baptism, and consequently of his own. He believed "a visible succession of authorized administrators of baptism" to be necessary to insure its validity, and in the course of two months he withdrew from the church, and never rejoined it; but that first Baptist church in America still exists in Providence.

Baptists in the United States: a flourishing denomination of evangelical Christians who differ from others in respect to the mode of administering the rite of baptism. They reject sprinkling, and hold that immersion of the whole body is the only valid mode of baptism, and essential to its specific spiritual purpose; a mode, they claim, that was universally practised throughout Christendom for thirteen hundred years. Their Church government is democratic. Their writers trace their origin to the third century; and they have ever been the champions of civil and religious liberty. Until the Quakers arose, at the middle of the seventeenth century, they stood alone in the advocacy of "soul-liberty." (See *Quakers*.) There were none in America when Roger Williams founded Providence. That earnest man of unstable ecclesiastical views, believing the Anabaptists—those who believe in adult baptism only—were right in their view, caused one of the settlers to immerse him (Williams); when the latter immersed the layman and others in return, and they established a church at Providence, the first Baptist church in America. Within two months Williams, doubting the validity of the baptism he had received and given, for lack of constituted authority, left the Baptist church forever. But the Church and its principles remained, and the colony embodied in its first code of laws (1637) a provision for perfect toleration in matters of religion. In 1764, when numbering only about 5000 members in all America, the Baptists established their first college in Rhode Island. (See *Brown University*.) With one exception, the Baptists are the largest denomination of evangelical Christians in the United States, having (1876) about 1,600,000 members. It is said that the first article of the Amendments to our National Constitution, guaranteeing religious liberty (offered in 1789), was introduced chiefly through the influence of the Baptist denomination.

Barbarian Monarch, RECEPTION AT THE COURT OF A. The authorities at Plymouth had made a treaty of friendship with Massasoit, King of the Wampanoags. (See *Massasoit.*) In the summer of 1621, Governor Bradford sent two envoys (Winslow and Hopkins) to the court of that monarch, at Pokanoket, near Narraganset Bay, forty miles from Plymouth. They were kindly received by the king, who renewed the covenant with the English. When he had taken the ambassadors into his dwelling, heard their message, and received presents from them, he put on the horseman's scarlet coat which they had given him, and a chain about his neck, which made his people "proud to behold their king so bravely attired." Having given a friendly answer to their message, he addressed his people who had gathered around him, saying, "Am not I Massasoit, commander of the country around you? Is not such a town mine, and the people of it? Will you not bring your skins to the English?" After this manner he named at least thirty places, and all gave their assent and applause. At the close of his speech he lighted tobacco for the envoys, and proceeded to discourse about England, declaring that he was "King James's man," and expressing his wonder how the king could live without a wife (for the queen was then dead). Massasoit had just returned home, and had no food to offer the envoys, who craved rest by sleep. "He laid us," wrote one of them, "on a bed with himself and his wife—they at the one end and we at the other; it being only planks laid a foot from the ground, and a thin mat upon them. Two more of his chief men, for want of room, pressed by and upon us, so that we were more wearied of our lodging than of our journey."

Barbary Powers, HUMBLING OF THE. On the southern shore of the Mediterranean Sea, in Northern Africa, were the independent states of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Morocco, known as the "Barbary Powers," a name derived from the Berbers, an ancient race who peopled the whole northern part of Africa. They employed piratical vessels in plundering those of other nations engaged in commerce in the Mediterranean. To secure immunity from these depredators, the United States and other nations paid tribute to their rulers. Just as the war with Great Britain broke out, in 1812, the Dey of Algiers, taking offence at not having received from the United States the precise articles in the way of tribute demanded, unceremoniously dismissed Tobias Lear, the American consul, declared war, and captured an American vessel and reduced her crew to slavery. Mr. Lear was compelled to pay the Dey $27,000 for the safety of himself and family and a few Americans who were there, to save them all from being made slaves. Believing that Great Britain had almost annihilated the American navy, this African robber renewed his depredations upon American commerce, in violation of treaty obligations. Determined no longer to submit to the demands and hostile conduct of this insolent ruler, the United States accepted his war-challenge, and in May, 1815, sent Commodore Decatur to the Mediterranean with a squadron to humble the Dey. As soon as Decatur had passed through the Strait of Gibraltar he found the Algerine corsairs cruising in search of American shipping. On June 17 the commodore met the Algerine flag-ship, of forty-four guns (the largest in the Algerine navy), and after a brief engagement captured her. He also captured another vessel of the Dey, with about six hundred men. With these prizes Decatur sailed with all his vessels for Algiers. His squadron consisted of the frigates *Guerriere*, *Macedonian*, and *Constellation*, the *Ontario* sloop of war, four brigs, and one schooner. On June 28 Decatur demanded of the Dey the instant surrender of all the American prisoners, full indemnification for all property destroyed, and absolute relinquishment of all claims to tribute from the United States thereafter. When the Dey was assured of the fate of a part of his fleet, the terrified robber hastened to comply with Decatur's demands. The commodore ordered the Algerine ruler to appear before him on the quarter-deck of his flag-ship, the *Guerriere*, to make his submission and restitution. He appeared with some of his officers of state and the captives to be released. There, on June 30, he signed a treaty, in accordance with Decatur's demands, and departed deeply humiliated. After this triumph at Algiers, Decatur sailed for Tunis, and demanded and received from the Bashaw, or ruler of that state, $46,000, in payment for American vessels which he had allowed the British to capture in his harbor. Then the commodore proceeded to Tripoli, the capital of another of the Barbary States, and demanded (August, 1815) from the Bey, its ruler, $25,000, for the same kind of injury to property, and the release of prisoners. The treasury of the Bey being nearly empty, Decatur accepted, in lieu of cash, the release from captivity of eight Danish and two Neapolitan seamen. This cruise gave full security to American commerce in the Mediterranean. It elevated the American character in the opinion of Europeans, for in the course of two months Decatur had accomplished, with a small squadron, in the way of humbling the pirates of Northern Africa, what the combined powers of the Christian world had not dared to attempt.

Barber, FRANCIS, a soldier of the Revolution, was born at Princeton, N. J., in 1751; died April 19, 1783. He graduated at the College of New Jersey (Princeton) in 1767, and in 1769 became rector of an academy at Elizabeth, N. J., and pastor of the Presbyterian church there. Leaving these positions, he joined the New Jersey line in the Continental army as major, in February, 1776. In November he was made a lieutenant-colonel, and was afterwards assistant-inspector-general under Baron de Steuben. He was active in several battles until 1779, when he was adjutant-general in Sullivan's campaign, and was wounded in the battle at Newtown. (See *Sullivan's Campaign.*) In 1781 he was successful in quelling the mutiny of Pennsylvania and New Jersey troops. He was with the army at Newburgh, in 1783, and on the day when Washington announced to the troops the preliminary treaty of peace he was killed by the falling of a tree while he was riding in the edge of a wood.

Barclay, Robert, of Ury, was born at Gordonston, Scotland, Dec. 23, 1648; died at Ury, Oct. 13, 1690. Entering a Scotch college in Paris, efforts were made to convert him to Roman Catholicism, when he returned home (1664), and three years afterwards, at the age of nineteen, he embraced the principles of the Society of Friends, or Quakers. In 1670 he vindicated them from false charges in a pamphlet entitled *Truth Cleared of Calumnies.* He also published, in Latin and English, *An Apology for the True Christian Divinity, as the same is held forth and preached by the people called, in scorn, Quakers.* Barclay dedicated it to King Charles, with great modesty and independence, and it was one of the ablest defences of the doctrines of his sect. His writings attracted public sympathy to his co-religionists. The first remonstrance of Friends against war was put forth by Barclay, in 1677, entitled a *Treatise on Universal Love.* Barclay made many religious journeys in England, Holland, and Germany with William Penn, and was several times imprisoned on account of the promulgation of his doctrines. Charles II. was Barclay's friend through the influence of Penn, and made his estate at Ury a free barony in 1679, with the privilege of criminal jurisdiction. He was one of the proprietors of East Jersey, and in 1682 he was appointed its governor (see *New Jersey*); but he exercised the office by a deputy.

Bard, John, M.D., was born at Burlington, N. J., Feb. 1, 1716; died at Hyde Park, N. Y., March 30, 1799. He was of a Huguenot family, and was for seven years a surgeon's apprentice in Philadelphia. Establishing himself in New York, he soon ranked among the first physicians and surgeons in America. In 1750 he assisted Dr. Middleton in the first recorded dissection in America. In 1788 he became the first president of the New York Medical Society; and when, in 1795, the yellow fever raged in New York, he remained at his post, though then nearly eighty years of age.

Bard, Samuel, M.D., LL.D., son of Dr. John, was born in Philadelphia, April 1, 1742; died May 24, 1821. He studied at the University of Edinburgh, where he passed about three years, and was an inmate of the family of Dr. Robertson, the historian. Having graduated as M.D. in 1765, he returned home, and began the practice of medicine in New York city with his father. He organized a medical school, which was connected with King's (Columbia) College, in which he took the chair of Physic in 1769. In 1772 he purchased his father's business. He caused the establishment of a public hospital in the city of New York in 1791, and, while the seat of the National government was at New York, he was the physician of President Washington. He was also appointed President of the College of Physicians and Surgeons in 1813. While combating yellow fever in New York in 1798, he took the disease, but by the faithful nursing of his wife he recovered. Dr. Bard was a skilful horticulturist as well as an eminent physician.

JACOB BARKER.

Barker, Jacob, financier, was born in Kenebec County, Me., Dec. 7, 1779; died in Philadelphia, Dec. 27, 1871. He was of a Quaker family, and related by blood to the mother of Dr. Franklin. He began trade in New York when quite young, and at twenty-one he owned four ships and a brig, and was largely engaged in commercial transactions. As a state senator, and while sitting in the Court of Errors, he gave an opinion in an insurance case in opposition to Judge Kent, and was sustained by the court. During the war of 1812 his ships were all captured. Being in Washington city during its sack by the British (August, 1814) he assisted Mrs. Madison in saving Stuart's portrait of Washington then hanging in the President's house, which was set on fire a few hours later. (See *Madison, Mrs.*) Barker was a banker, a dealer in stocks, and a general and shrewd financier for many years. He finally established himself in New Orleans in 1834, where he was admitted to the bar as a lawyer, and soon became a political and business leader there. He made and lost several fortunes during his long life. The Civil War wrought his financial ruin, and late in 1867 he was again in bankruptcy at the age of eighty-eight years.

Barlow, Francis Channing, was born in Brooklyn, N. Y., Oct. 19, 1834, and graduated at Harvard University in 1855. After serving as a three months' man, he became lieutenant-colonel of a New York regiment, and as colonel distinguished himself in the campaign on the Peninsula in 1862. In the battle of Antietam he captured two stands of colors and three hundred men, and was soon afterwards wounded and carried off the field for dead. He was made brigadier-general in September, and he commanded a division in the battle of Chancellorsville in May, 1863. He was wounded at Gettysburg, and was also distinguished in the Richmond campaign in 1864. He rendered essential service in the final struggle that ended with the surrender of Lee.

Barlow, Joel, poet, was born at Reading, Conn., March 24, 1755; died near Cracow, Poland, Dec. 22, 1812. He graduated at Yale College in 1778; studied theology and was licensed a Congregational minister; and from 1778 to 1783 was a chaplain in the army, writing patriotic songs and addresses to keep up the spirits of the soldiers. When the army was disbanded (1783) he settled at Hartford, where he began to study law, and was admitted to the bar in 1785. He had tried bookselling; and, in 1783, he established a weekly newspaper, entitled the *American Mercury*, published at Westford. His poetic talents becoming widely known, he was requested by several Congregational ministers to revise the phraseology of Watts's Hymns. He also attempted to revise the Bible in the same way. A cousin of Benedict Arnold, who would talk in doggerel rhyme, was asked by Barlow to give him a specimen of his poetic talent. Arnold looked the poet sharply in the face, and said, instantly,

JOEL BARLOW.

> "You've proved yourself a sinful cretur,
> You've murdered Watts and spiled the metre,
> You've tried the Word of God to alter,
> And for your pains deserve a halter."

With Trumbull, Dwight, Humphreys, and others, Barlow published a satirical poem entitled *The Anarchiad*. In 1787 he published his *Vision of Columbus*, a poem which obtained great popularity. Visiting Europe in 1788 as agent for the "Scioto Land Company" (which see), he published, in aid of the French Revolution, *Advice to the Privileged Orders*. To this he added, in 1791, a *Letter to the National Convention*, and the *Conspiracy of Kings*. As deputy of the London Constitutional Society, he presented an address to the French National Convention, and took up his abode in Paris, where he became a French citizen. Barlow was given employment in Savoy, where he wrote his mock-heroic poem, *Hasty Pudding*. He was United States consul at Algiers in 1795–97, where he negotiated treaties with the ruler of that state, and also with the Bey of Tunis. He took sides with the French Directory in their controversy with the American envoys. (See *Directory, The French*.) Having made a large fortune by speculations in France, Mr. Barlow returned to the United States in 1805, and built himself an elegant mansion in the vicinity of Washington, and called his seat there "Kalorama." (See *Decatur*.) In 1807 he published the *Columbiad*, an epic poem. It was illustrated with engravings, some of them from designs by Robert Fulton, and published in a quarto volume in a style more sumptuous than any book that had then been issued in the United States. It was an enlargement of his *Vision of Columbus*. In 1811 he commenced the preparation of a *History of the United States*, when President Madison appointed him minister plenipotentiary to the French court. The next year he was invited to a conference with Napoleon at Wilna. His journey into Poland was fatal to his life. It was made in such haste and with so much exposure to cold and fatigue that he perished before reaching Wilna.

Barlow's Journey to Wilna. Joel Barlow, who, as American minister in France, had labored incessantly to induce Napoleon to establish a good understanding with the United States, suddenly received a request from the emperor, through the Duke of Bassano (October, 1812), to come to his camp at Wilna in Poland for the nominal object of completing a commercial treaty with the United States. It was believed by the war party that some arrangements would be made by which French ships, manned by Americans, might be employed against Great Britain. But such hopes were soon extinguished. Barlow set out from Paris immediately, and, as the call was urgent, he travelled day and night, without rest. The fatigue and exposure brought on a disease of the lungs, and, in the cottage of a Polish Jew at Zarnowice, near Cracow, he suddenly expired (Dec. 4, 1812), from the effects of a violent congestion of the pulmonary organs. What the real object of Napoleon's call was may never be known.

Barnard, Henry, LL.D., promoter of education, was born at Hartford, Conn., Jan. 24, 1811. He graduated at Yale College in 1830; was admitted to the bar in 1835, and in 1837 was elected to a seat in the state Legislature. He was twice re-elected. In that body he effected a reorganization of the Connecticut State School System, and was for four years secretary of the Board of School Commissioners, during which he wrote a number of able reports on the public schools. His first report (1839) was pronounced by Chancellor Kent a "bold and startling document, founded on the most painstaking and critical inquiry." He edited and published the *Connecticut School*

Journal. From 1843 to 1849 he had charge of the public schools of Rhode Island, where he established a model system of popular education. Mr. Barnard took great interest in the subject of school-house architecture; and from 1850 to 1854 he was state superintendent of public schools of Connecticut. In 1855 he began the publication of the *American Journal of Education.* The same year he became president of the "American Association for the Advancement of Education," and was offered the presidency of two state universities. When the Bureau of Education was established at Washington, he was appointed the first commissioner (March, 1867). Dr. Barnard has written much and well on the subject of popular education. A London review, speaking of his work on *National Education in Europe* (1854), said, "He has collected and arranged more valuable information and statistics than can be found in any one volume in the English language." Mr. Barnard received the degree of LL.D. from Harvard, Yale, and Union colleges.

Barnard, JOHN GROSS, LL.D., was born in Essex County, Mass., May 19, 1815. He graduated at the West Point Military Academy in 1833, and entered the engineer corps. He was made captain in 1838; major in 1858; brevet brigadier-general of volunteers in 1861; lieutenant-colonel of regulars in 1863; brevet major-general of volunteers in 1864; brevet brigadier-general and brevet major-general of regulars, March, 1865; and colonel of the corps of engineers, regular army, Dec. 28, the same year. During the war with Mexico he fortified Tampico, and made surveys of the battlefields around the capital. In 1850–51 he was chief-engineer of the projected Tehuantepec railroad; and in 1855–56 he was superintendent of the West Point Military Academy. He was chief-engineer of the Army of the Potomac, 1861–62; also chief-engineer of the construction of the defences of the national capital from September, 1862, to May, 1864. He was chief-engineer of the "armies in the field," on General Grant's staff, from May, 1864, until Lee's surrender at Appomattox (which see) in April, 1865. General Barnard was mustered out of the volunteer service in 1866. He has published *The Gyroscope* and *Problems in Rotary Motions,* which evince profound mathematical investigation; also other works concerning the Civil War and its operations. The degree of LL.D. was conferred upon him by Yale College.

Barnburners, a name given to radical or progressive politicians in the United States, and opposed to Hunkers (which see). It was given to the anti-slavery section of the Democratic party, especially in New York, which separated from the rest of the Democratic National Convention in 1846. They were opposed to certain corporations, and they desired to do away with *all* corporations. They received their name from the story of the man whose house was infested with rats, and who burned it to the ground to get rid of the vermin. At about that time anti-rent outrages were committed, such as burning barns, etc. The radical Democrats sympathized with the Antirenters, and the Hunkers called them "barnburners." (See *Free-soil Party.*)

Barnes, ALBERT, Rev., was born at Rome, N. Y., Dec. 1, 1798; died in Philadelphia, Dec. 24, 1870. He graduated at Hamilton College in 1820; studied theology at Princeton; and was pastor of a Presbyterian church at Morristown, N. J., from 1823 to 1830. He then settled as pastor of a church of the New School Presbyterians in Philadelphia, which connection continued more than thirty years. He early took a decided stand against slavery. As a commentator on the Scriptures, Mr. Barnes has a high reputation, and his writings are greatly prized by the religious world on both sides of the Atlantic. It is estimated that the circulation of his *Notes on the New Testament,* in eleven volumes, up to 1876, was about 1,500,000 volumes. He published two works on slavery, entitled, respectively, *Inquiry into the Scriptural Views of Slavery* and *The Church and Slavery.* His contributions to periodicals, chiefly on religious subjects, were many and highly esteemed.

Barnes, JAMES, was born in Boston, Mass.; died at Springfield, Mass., Feb. 12, 1869. He graduated at West Point in 1829, and resigned in 1836. He became colonel of a Massachusetts volunteer regiment in 1861, and in November of that year was made brigadier-general in the Army of the Potomac, participating in its most exciting operations. He commanded a division at the battle of Gettysburg, and was severely wounded. General Barnes was breveted major-general in March, 1865.

Barney, JOSHUA, was born in Baltimore, Md., July 6, 1759; died at Pittsburgh, Penn., Dec. 1, 1818. Inclined to a seafaring life, he went to sea in his early youth; and when he was only sixteen years of age, an accident caused the care of his ship to devolve upon him. He met the exigency with courage and skill. He entered the Continental navy, at its first organization in 1775, as master's mate, in the sloop *Hornet,* and joined Commodore Hopkins. In an action between the Continental schooner *Wasp* and British brig *Tender,* in Delaware Bay, before he was seventeen years of age, his conduct was so gallant that he was made a lieutenant. In that capacity he served in the *Sachem* (Captain I. Robinson), and after a severe action with a British brig, in which his commander was wounded, young Barney brought her into port. Soon afterwards he was made a prisoner, but was speedily released, and in the *Andrea Doria* he was engaged in the defence of the Delaware River in 1777. He was again made prisoner, and was exchanged in August, 1778. A third time he was made captive (1779), and after his exchange was a fourth time made a prisoner, while serving in the *Saratoga,* 16, was sent to England, and confined in the famous Mill prison, from which he escaped in May, 1781. He was retaken, and again escaped, and arrived in Philadelphia in March, 1782, where he took command of the *Hyder Ali*, 16, in which he captured the *General Monk*, of heavier force and metal. For this exploit the Legislature of Maryland presented him with a sword. At the close of the war he engaged in business on shore, but very soon took to the sea again. At Cape François, W. I., he received on his ship (1792) a large number of women and children who had escaped massacre by the blacks. His vessel was captured by an English cruiser, but Barney recaptured her from the prize crew. He was again captured by an English cruiser (1793), and imprisoned as a pirate. His ship and cargo were condemned. In 1794 he went with Monroe to France, and bore the American flag to the National Convention. (See *Monroe's Reception.*) He was a warm partisan of the French, and entered their navy as commander of a squadron, but resigned his commission in 1802. When the war of 1812–15 broke out, he engaged in privateering with much success. He was appointed captain in the U. S. Navy in April, 1814, and placed in command of a flotilla of small vessels for the defence of the coasts of the Chesapeake. Driven up the Patuxent by a British fleet, he destroyed his vessels, and with over five hundred men he joined General Winder in the defence of Washington. (See *Bladensburg, Battle at.*) Barney was severely wounded (Aug. 24, 1814) near Bladensburg, and made a prisoner. Too much hurt to be removed as a prisoner, he was paroled and sent to Bladensburg, near by, on a litter. There he was joined by his wife and son and his own surgeon, and was conveyed to his farm at Elkridge, Md. The bullet that gave him the wound, from which he never fairly recovered, is preserved in the Navy Department. The Corporation of Washington voted him a sword, and the Legislature of Georgia their thanks. In May, 1815, Barney was sent on a mission to Europe, but suffering from his wound caused him to return in the fall. The bullet was never extracted during his life. Just as he was about to depart from Pittsburgh, Penn., with his family, to Kentucky, where he had bought land, he died. His remains repose in the Allegheny Cemetery.

JOSHUA BARNEY.

Barré, Colonel Isaac, was born in Dublin, Ireland, 1726; died in London, July 20, 1802. His parents were French, his father being a small tradesman in Dublin. Isaac entered the British army at the age of twenty-one, and participated in the expedition against Louisburg in 1758. Wolfe was his friend, and appointed him major of brigade; and in May, 1759, he was made adjutant-general of Wolfe's army that assailed Quebec. He was severely wounded in the battle on the Plains of Abraham (which see), by which he lost the sight of one eye. Barré served under Amherst in 1760; and was the official bearer of the news of the surrender of Montreal to England. In 1761 he was promoted to lieutenant-colonel, and the same year he obtained a seat in Parliament, where he found himself in opposition to the ministry. For this offence he was deprived of his offices, given him as a reward for his services in America. He was the warm friend of the colonies, and made able speeches in Parliament in their favor. Barré was one of the supposed authors of the *Letters of Junius*. Strong in person, vigorous in mind, independent in thought and action, he was a dreaded opponent. During the last twenty years of his life he was blind.

COLONEL BARRÉ.

Barré (M. de la), **Expedition of.** In 1684 M. de la Barré prepared for an expedition from Canada to the country of the Five Nations (which see). His forces consisted of 700 Canadians, 130 regular soldiers, and 200 Indians. Detained, by an epidemic disease among the French soldiers, at Fort Frontenac for six weeks, he was compelled to conclude the campaign with a treaty. He crossed Lake Ontario for that purpose, and at a designated place was met by Oneidas, Onondagas, and Cayugas, the Mohawks and Senecas refusing to attend. Barré assumed much dignity. Seated on a chair of state, with his French and Indian officers forming a circle around him, he addressed himself to Garangula, the Onondaga chief, in a very haughty speech, which he concluded with a threat of burning the castles of the Five Nations, and destroying the Indians themselves, unless the satisfaction which he demanded was given. To this address Garangula made a cool but bold and decisive speech in reply. It made the haughty Barré very angry, and he retired to his tent, where, after deliberation, he prudently suspended his menaces. A treaty of peace was concluded; and two days afterwards Barré and his retinue departed for Canada. Garangula had said, while holding a calumet in his hand, as he answered the arrogant speech of the Frenchman, "Onnunteo, I honor you, and all the warriors who are with me honor you. Your interpreter has finished your speech; I now begin mine. My words make haste to reach your ears; hearken to them, Onnunteo. In setting out from Quebec you must have imagined that the scorching beams of the sun had burned down the forests which render our country inaccessible to the French, or that the inundations of the lakes had shut us up in our castles. But now you are undeceived; for I and my warriors have come to assure you that the Senecas, Cayugas, Onondagas, Oneidas, and Mohawks are yet alive." After ascribing Barré's pacific overtures to the impotency of the French, and repelling the charges brought against his countrymen, he added, "We are born free; we have no dependence on the Onnunteo or the Corlear." (These names signify respectively the governors of Canada and of New York.) Garangula concluded his defiant speech by saying his voice was that of the Five Nations; and that when they buried the hatchet at a former treaty, in the presence of his predecessors, they planted a tree of peace in the same place, and that peaceful relations were then pledged to each other. "I do assure you," he said, "that our warriors shall dance to the calumet of peace under its branches, and that we shall never dig up the axe to cut it down until the Onnunteo (the French) or the Corlear (the English) shall either jointly or separately endeavor to invade the country which the Great Spirit has given to our ancestors."

Barron, James, commodore U. S. Navy, was born in Virginia in 1768; died at Norfolk, Va., April 21, 1851. On the formation of the U. S. Navy in 1798, Barron (who had begun his naval career under his father, commander of the Virginia Navy during the war for independence) was made a lieutenant, and served under Barry in the brief naval war with France. In 1799 he was made a captain and sent to the Mediterranean, under the command of his elder brother, Commodore Samuel Barron, one of the best disciplinarians in the service. James was in command of the frigate *Chesapeake* in 1807, and surrendered her to the *Leopard*, a British ship of war, for which he was court-martialled and sentenced to be suspended from service for five years without pay or emoluments. (See *Chesapeake and Leopard.*) During that suspension he entered the merchant service, and remained abroad until 1818, when an attempt was made to restore him to duty in the naval service. Commodore Decatur and other officers resisted this, and a bitter correspondence between Barron and Decatur ensued. Barron challenged his antagonist to fight a duel. They met near Bladensburg (March 22, 1820), and Decatur was mortally wounded. Barron was severely hurt, but recovered after several months of suffering. During the latter years of his long life Barron held several important commands on shore.

JAMES BARRON.

Barron, Samuel, was a brother of Commodore James Barron, and was born at Hampton, Va., about 1763; died Oct. 29, 1810. He, like his brother, had a training in the navy under his father. In 1798 he commanded the *Augusta*, prepared by the citizens of Norfolk to resist the aggressions of the French. He took a conspicuous part in the war with Tripoli (which see); and in 1805 he commanded a squadron of ten vessels, with the *President* as the flag-ship. He assisted in the capture of the Tripolitan town of Derné, April 27, 1805.. Barron soon afterwards relinquished his command to Captain John Rodgers, and on account of ill-health returned to the United States.

Barry, John, a commodore of the U. S. Navy, was born at Tacumshane, Wexford Co., Ireland, in 1745; died in Philadelphia, Sept. 13, 1803. He went to sea while he was very young, became the commander of a ship, and gained considerable wealth. In February, 1776, he was appointed by Congress to command the *Lexington*, fourteen guns, which, after a sharp action, captured the tender *Edward*. This was the first vessel captured by a commissioned officer of the U. S. Navy. Barry was transferred to the frigate *Effingham;* and in the Delaware, at the head of four boats, he captured an English schooner, in 1777, without the loss of a man. He was publicly thanked by Washington. When Howe took Philadelphia, late in 1777, Barry took the *Effingham* up the Delaware with the hope of saving her, but she was burned by the British. Howe had offered him a large bribe if he would deliver the ship to him at Philadelphia, but it was scornfully rejected. Barry took command of the *Raleigh*, 32, in September, 1778, but British cruisers compelled him to run her ashore in Penobscot Bay. In the frigate *Alliance*, in 1781, he sailed for France with Colonel John Laurens, who was sent on a special mission; and afterwards he cruised successfully with that ship. At the close of May he captured the *Atlanta* and *Trespass*, after a severe fight. Returning in October, the *Alliance* was refitted, and, after taking Lafayette and the Count de Noailles to France, Barry cruised in the West Indies very successfully until May, 1782. After the reorganization of the U. S. Navy in 1794, Barry was named the senior officer. He superintended the building of the frigate *United States*, to the command of which he was assigned, but never entered upon the duty. Commodore Barry was buried in the cemetery of St. Mary's Roman Catholic Church on Fourth Street, Philadelphia. The large recumbent slab of white marble over his grave contains a long inscription.

JOHN BARRY.

COMMODORE BARRY'S MONUMENT.

Bartlett, John Russell, author, was born in Providence, R. I., Oct. 23, 1805. He was for six years of his early manhood cashier of the Globe Bank in Providence, and an active member of the "Franklin Society for the Cultivation of Science." He was also one of the projectors of the *Atheneum* at Providence. In 1837 he engaged in business in New York City, and was for some time an efficient corresponding secretary of the New York Historical Society. Mr. Bartlett was associated with Albert Gallatin as a projector and founder of the American Ethnological Society. In 1850, in company with Mr. Welford, he established a foreign book-store in New York; and in that year he was appointed by President Taylor a commissioner, under the treaty of peace with Mexico in 1848, to settle the boundary-line between that country and the United States. He was engaged in that service until Jan. 7, 1853, making extensive surveys and explorations, with elaborate scientific observations; but, owing to a failure of Congress to make the necessary appropriations, he did not complete his work. He published a personal narrative of his experience in that region in 1854. In May, 1855, he was chosen Secretary of State of Rhode Island, which office he held until 1872, a period of seventeen years. He edited and published the *Records of the Colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations*, in ten volumes; also an *Index to the Acts and Resolves of the General Assembly of Rhode Island from* 1758 *to* 1862. In 1847 Mr. Bartlett published a little volume on the *Progress of Ethnology;* and in 1848 a *Dictionary of Americanisms*, since revised and enlarged. He also published a *Bibliography of Rhode Island, Literature of the Rebellion, Memoirs of Rhode Island Men, Primeval Man*, and several other works.

Bartlett, Josiah, M.D., a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Amesbury, Mass., Nov. 21, 1729; died May 19, 1795. Educated in a common school and taught the science of medicine by a practitioner in his native town, young Bartlett began the business of a healer at Kingston, N. H., in 1750, and soon became quite eminent by his success. He was a member of the New Hampshire Legislature from 1765 until the breaking out of the war of the Revolution. In 1770 he was appointed by the royal governor lieutenant-colonel of the militia, but on account of his patriotic tendencies he was deprived of the office in 1775. He was a member of the Committee of Safety, upon whom for a time devolved the whole executive power of the government of the state. A delegate to Congress in 1775–76, he was the first to give his vote for the Declaration of Independence, and its first signer after the President of Congress. He was with Stark in the Bennington campaign (see *Bennington, Battle of*), in 1777, as agent of the state to provide medicine and other necessaries for the New Hampshire troops. In Congress again in 1778, he was very active in committee duties; and in 1779 he was appointed chief-justice of the Common Pleas in his state. In 1782 he was a judge of the Superior Court of New Hampshire, and chief-justice in 1788. Judge Bartlett retired from public life in 1794, on account of feeble health, having been president of the state from 1790 to 1793, and, under the new constitution, governor in 1793. He was the chief founder and the president of the New Hampshire Medical Society, and received the honorary degree of M.D. from Dartmouth College.

Bartlett, WILLIAM FRANCIS, was born at Haverhill, Mass., June 6, 1840, and graduated at Harvard in 1862. He entered the army of volunteers as captain in the summer of 1861; was engaged in the battle of Ball's Bluff (which see), and lost a leg in the siege of Yorktown in 1862. He was made colonel of a Massachusetts regiment in November, 1862, and took part in the capture of Port Hudson in 1863. In the siege of Petersburg (1864) he commanded a division of the Ninth Corps, and at the explosion of the mine there he was made prisoner, but exchanged in September. In 1865 he was breveted major-general of volunteers.

Barton, WILLIAM, was born in Providence, R. I., in 1747; died there Oct. 22, 1831. Holding the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the Rhode Island militia, he, with a small party, crossed Narraganset Bay in the night (July 10, 1777) and seized and carried away the British general, Prescott. (See *Prescott, Capture of.*) For this service Congress gave him a sword and a commission of colonel in the Continental army. He was wounded in an action at Bristol Ferry in August, 1778, and was disabled from further service in the war. Colonel Barton was a member of the Rhode Island Convention which finally adopted the National Constitution.

WILLIAM BARTON.

Bartram, WILLIAM, naturalist, was born at Kingsessing, Penn., Feb. 9, 1739; died July 22, 1823. He began business in North Carolina in 1761, and became a devoted student of natural history. His father, John, a native of Chester County, Penn., was the founder of the first botanical garden in America. It was on the banks of the Schuylkill. William accompanied his father, when the latter was seventy years of age, in a botanical excursion and exploration of East Florida, and resided some time on the banks of the St. John's River, returning home in 1771. He was employed by Dr. Fothergill of London, in 1773–78, in botanical explorations and collections in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina. Mr. Bartram was a member of the American Philosophical Society and other scientific associations in the United States and Europe. In 1790 he published an account of his travels in the Gulf region, in which he gave an account of the Creek, Chocktaw, and Cherokee Indians. Mr. Bartram made the most complete table of American Ornithology previous to the work of Wilson, and to him we are indebted for a knowledge of many curious and beautiful plants peculiar to North America.

Bastidas, RODERIGO DE, with Juan de la Cosa, sailed towards the Western Continent with two ships in 1502, and discovered the coast of South America from Cape de Vela to the Gulf of Darien. Ojeda, with Americus Vespucius, went in the same course soon afterwards, ignorant of this expedition of Bastidas, touched at the same places, and proceeded to Hispaniola, or Santo Domingo.

Baton Rouge, BATTLE AT. General Williams was in command at Baton Rouge in August, 1862. General Van Dorn sent General J. C. Breckinridge to seize the port. He expected to be aided by the "ram" *Arkansas* (which see). He attacked the Nationals vigorously on the morning of Aug. 5. Williams had only about 2500 men to oppose the assailants; Breckinridge had 5000. The first blow struck fell upon Maine, Indiana, and Michigan troops, who were pushed back; when others from Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Wisconsin, with two sections of a battery, hastened to their relief. The battle raged about two hours. The Twenty-first Indiana lost all its field officers. General Williams then took command of the regiment, and was leading them on, when he was killed by a bullet that passed through his breast. The Nationals fell back. The Confederates, dreadfully smitten, did likewise, and retreated. Baton Rouge was soon afterwards evacuated by the Nationals.

Battle of the Kegs. In January, 1778, while the channel of the Delaware River was nearly free of ice, some Whigs at Bordentown, N. J., sent floating down the stream some torpedoes in the form of kegs filled with gunpowder, and so arranged with machinery that on rubbing against an object they would explode. It was hoped that some of these torpedoes might touch a British war-vessel, explode, and sink her. One of them, touching a piece of floating ice in front of the city, blew up, and created intense alarm. For twenty-four hours afterwards not a thing was seen floating on the bosom of the river without being fired at by musket or cannon. This event greatly amused the Americans, and Francis Hopkinson, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, wrote a satirical poem entitled the "Battle of the Kegs." The following is a copy of this famous poem:

BATTLE OF THE KEGS.

Gallants attend, and hear a friend
Trill forth harmonious ditty;
Strange things I'll tell, which late befell
In Philadelphia city.

'Twas early day, as poets say,
Just when the sun was rising,
A soldier stood on log of wood,
And saw a thing surprising.

As in amaze he stood to gaze
(The truth can't be denied, sir),
He spied a score of kegs, or more,
Come floating down the tide, sir.

A sailor, too, in jerkin blue,
The strange appearance viewing,
First d—d his eyes, in great surprise,
Then said, "Some mischief's brewing.

"These kegs, I'm told, the rebels hold,
Pack'd up like pickled herring;
And they've come down t' attack the town
In this new way of ferry'ng."

The soldier flew, the sailor too,
And, scared almost to death, sir,
Wore out their shoes to spread the news,
And ran till out of breath, sir.

Now up and down, throughout the town,
Most frantic scenes were acted;
And some ran here, and others there,
Like men almost distracted.

Some fire cried, which some denied,
But said the earth had quaked;
And girls and boys, with hideous noise,
Ran through the streets half naked.

Sir William[*] he, snug as a flea,
Lay all this time a snoring;
Nor dream'd of harm as he lay warm
In bed with Mrs. L—ng.[†]

Now, in a fright, he starts upright,
Awaked by such a clatter;
He rubs both eyes, and boldly cries,
"For God's sake, what's the matter?"

At his bedside he then espied
Sir Erskine,[‡] at command, sir;
Upon one foot he had one boot,
And t'other in his hand, sir.

"Arise! arise!" Sir Erskine cries;
"The rebels—more's the pity—
Without a boat, are all afloat,
And ranged before the city.

"The motley crew, in vessels new,
With Satan for their guide, sir,
Pack'd up in bags, or wooden kegs,
Come driving down the tide, sir.

"Therefore prepare for bloody war;
These kegs must all be routed;
Or surely we despised shall be,
And British courage doubted."

The royal band now ready stand,
All ranged in dread array, sir,
With stomach stout to see it out,
And make a bloody day, sir.

The cannons roar from shore to shore,
The small-arms loud did rattle;
Since wars began I'm sure no man
E'er saw so strange a battle.

The rebel dales, the rebel vales,
With rebel trees surrounded,
The distant woods, the hills and floods,
With rebel echoes sounded.

The fish below swam to and fro,
Attack'd from every quarter;
Why sure (thought they), the devil's to pay
'Mong folks above the water.

The kegs, 'tis said, though strongly made
Of rebel staves and hoops, sir,
Could not oppose their powerful foes,
The conq'ring British troops, sir.

From morn to night these men of might
Display'd amazing courage,
And when the sun was fairly down,
Retired to sup their porridge.

A hundred men, with each a pen,
Or more, upon my word, sir,
It is most true, would be too few,
Their valor to record, sir.

Such feats did they perform that day
Against these wicked kegs, sir,
That, years to come, if they get home,
They'll make their boasts and brags, sir.

Battles. The principal battles in which the people of the United States have been engaged, as colonists and as a nation, are as follows:

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

Great Meadows,	May 28, 1754
Fort Necessity.	July 4, "
Fort Beau Séjour,	June 16, 1755
Fort Gaspereaux,	" 17, "
Monongahela,	July 9, "
Bloody Pond (near Lake George),	Sept. 8, "
Head of Lake George,	" 8, "
Oswego,	Aug. 14, 1756
Fort William Henry,	July 6, 1757
Near Ticonderoga,	" 6, 1758
Ticonderoga,	" 8, "
Louisburg,	" 26, "
Fort Frontenac,	Aug. 27, "
Allegheny Mountains,	Sept. 21, "
Fort Niagara,	July 25, 1759
Montmorenci,	" 31, "
Plains of Abraham,	Sept. 13, "
Sillery,	April 28, 1760

OLD WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE.

Lexington,	April 19, 1775
Bunker's (Breed's) Hill,	June 17, "
Near Montreal (Ethan Allen captured),	Sept. 25, "
St. John's, Siege and Capture of,	Oct. & Nov. "
Great Bridge,	Dec. 9, "
Quebec,	" 31, "
Moore's Creek Bridge,	Feb. 27, 1776
Boston (Evacuation of),	Mar. 17, "
Cedar Rapids,	May 9, "
Three Rivers,	June 8, "
Fort Sullivan (Charleston harbor),	" 28, "
Long Island,	Aug. 27, "
Harlem Plains,	Sept. 16, "
White Plains,	Oct. 28, "
Fort Washington,	Nov. 16, "
Trenton,	Dec. 26, "
Princeton,	Jan. 3, 1777
Hubbardton,	July 7, "
Bennington,	Aug. 16, "
Brandywine,	Sept. 11, "
Bemis's Heights (first),	" 19, "
Paoli,	" 20, "
Germantown,	Oct. 4, "
Forts Clinton and Montgomery,	" 6, "
Bemis's Heights (second),	" 7, "
Fort Mercer,	" 22, "
Fort Mifflin,	Nov. 16, "
Monmouth,	June 28, 1778
Wyoming,	July 4, "
Quaker Hill (R. I.),	Aug. 29, "
Savannah,	Dec. 29, "
Kettle Creek,	Feb. 14, 1779
Brier Creek,	Mar. 3, "
Stono Ferry,	June 20, "
Stony Point,	July 16, "

---

[*] Sir William Howe.

[†] The wife of a Boston refugee, who was then a commissary of prisoners in Philadelphia. He is represented by some as being second only to Cunningham in cruelty, while others speak of him as an honorable man.

[‡] Sir William Erskine.

Paulus's Hook,	Aug. 19,	1779
Chemung (near Elmira, N. Y.),	" 29,	"
Savannah,	Oct. 9,	"
Charleston (Siege and Surrender of),	May 12,	1780
Springfield (N. J.),	June 23,	"
Rocky Mount (N. C.),	July 30,	"
Hanging Rock (N. C.),	Aug. 6,	"
Sanders's Creek (near Camden, S. C.),	" 16,	"
King's Mountain (S. C.),	Oct. 7,	"
Fish Dam Ford,	Nov. 18,	"
Blackstocks,	" 20,	"
Cowpens,	Jan. 17,	1781
Guilford,	Mar. 15,	"
Hobkirk's Hill,	April 25,	"
Ninety-six (Siege of),	May & June,	"
Augusta (Siege of),	"	"
Jamestown,	July 9,	"
Eutaw Spring,	Sept. 8,	"
Yorktown (Siege of),	Sept. & Oct.	"

WAR WITH THE INDIANS.

Miami River,	Oct. 19 & 22,	1790
St. Clair's Defeat,	Nov. 4,	1791
Fort St. Clair,	" 6,	1792
Near Fort St. Clair,	Oct. 17,	1793
Fort Recovery,	June 30,	1794
Maumee Rapids (Fallen Timber),	Aug. 20,	"
Tippecanoe,	Nov. 7,	1811

SECOND WAR FOR INDEPENDENCE—1812–15.

Fort Mackinaw,	July 17,	1812
Brownstown,	Aug. 4,	"
Maguaga,	" 9,	"
Chicago (Massacre at),	" 16,	"
Detroit (Surrendered),	" 16,	"
Fort Harrison,	Sept. 4 & 5,	"
Fort Madison,	Sept. 4–6,	"
Gananoqui,	Sept. 21,	"
Queenstown Heights,	Oct. 13,	"
St. Regis,	" 23,	"
Fort Niagara,	Nov. 21,	"
Black Rock,	" 28,	"
French Town (River Raisin),	Jan. 18–22,	1813
Elizabethtown (Canada),	Feb. 7,	"
Ogdensburg,	" 22,	"
York (Toronto),	April 27,	"
Fort Meigs,	May 5,	"
Fort George,	" 27,	"
Sackett's Harbor,	" 29,	"
Stony Creek,	June 6,	"
Hampton (Defence of)	" 13,	"
Craney Island,	" 22,	"
Beaver Dams,	" 23,	"
Near Fort George,	July 8,	"
Black Rock,	" 11,	"
Fort George (Defence of Outworks),	" 17,	"
Fort Stephenson,	Aug. 2,	"
Stonington (Bombardment of),	Aug. 9–11,	"
Fort Mims,	Aug. 30,	"
Thames,	Oct. 5,	"
French Creek,	Nov. 1 & 2,	"
Tallasehatche,	Nov. 3,	"
Talladega,	" 9,	"
Chrysler's Field,	" 11,	"
Hillabee Town,	" 18,	"
Auttose,	" 29,	"
Fort Niagara,	Dec. 19,	"
Econochaca,	" 23,	"
Black Rock,	" 30,	"
Emucfau (Ala.),	Jan. 22,	1814
Enotochopco (Ala.),	" 24,	"
Camp Defiance,	" 27,	"
Longwoods,	Mar. 4,	"
Horseshoe Bend,	" 27,	"
La Colle Mills,	" 30,	"
Fort Oswego,	May 4 & 5,	"
Sandy Creek,	May 30,	"
Odell Town,	June 28,	"
Fort Erie,	July 3,	"
Chippewa,	" 5,	"
Champlain,	July 18 & 19,	"
Lundy's Lane (Niagara Falls),	July 25,	"
Fort Mackinack (Mackinaw),	Aug. 4,	"
Fort Erie,	Aug. 13–15,	"
Bladensburg,	Aug 24,	"
Plattsburg,	Sept. 11,	"
North Point,	" 12,	"
Fort McHenry (Bombardment of),	" 13,	"
Fort Bower,	" 15,	"
Fort Erie (Sortie from),	" 17,	"
Chippewa,	Oct. 15,	"
Lyon's Creek,	" 19,	"
Pensacola,	Nov. 7,	"
Villeré's Plantation (New Orleans),	Dec. 23,	"
Rodriguez's Canal (New Orleans),	Jan. 1,	1815
New Orleans,	Jan. 8,	1815
Fort St. Philip,	" 9,	"
Point Petre (Ga.),	" 13,	"

BLACK HAWK WAR (which see).

May to August, 1832.

SEMINOLE WAR—1835–42.

Micanopy,	June 9,	1836
Fort Drane,	Aug. 21,	"
Wahoo Swamp,	Nov. 17, 18, & 21,	"
Okeechobee Lake,	Dec. 25,	1837
Carloosahatchee,	July 23,	1839
Fort King,	April 28,	1840
Near Fort Brooke,	Mar. 2,	1841
Big Hammock,	April 19,	1842

WAR AGAINST MEXICO.

Fort Brown,	May 3,	1846
Palo Alto,	" 8,	"
Resaca de la Palma,	" 9,	"
Sonoma and Sonoma Pass,	June 15,	"
Monterey,	Sept. 21–23,	"
Braceta,	Dec. 25,	"
San Gabriel,	Jan. 8,	1847
The Mesa,	" 9,	"
Encarnacion,	" 23,	"
Buena Vista,	Feb. 22 & 23,	"
Chihuahua,	Feb. 28,	"
Vera Cruz (Surrendered),	Mar. 20,	"
Alvarado,	April 2,	"
Cerro Gordo,	" 18,	"
Contreras,	Aug. 20,	"
Churubusco,	" 20,	"
El Molino del Rey,	Sept. 8,	"
Chapultepec,	Sept. 12–14,	"
Puebla,	Sept. & Oct.	"
Huamantla,	Oct. 9,	"
Atlixco,	" 18,	"

CIVIL WAR.

Fort Sumter (Evacuated),	April 14,	1861
Big Bethel (Va.),	June 10,	"
Booneville (Mo.),	" 17,	"
Carthage (Mo.),	July 6,	"
Rich Mountain (Va.),	" 10,	"
Bull's Run (Va.) (first),	" 21,	"
Wilson's Creek (Mo.),	Aug. 10,	"
Hatteras Forts Captured,	Aug. 26–30,	"
Carnifex Ferry (Va.),	Sept. 10,	"
Lexington (Mo.),	" 20,	"
Santa Rosa Island,	Oct. 9,	"
Ball's Bluff (Va.),	" 21,	"
Port Royal Expedition (S. C.),	Oct. to Nov.	"
Belmont (Mo.),	Nov. 7,	"
Middle Creek (Ky.),	Jan. 10,	1862
Fort Henry (Tenn.),	Feb. 6,	"
Roanoke Island (N. C.),	Feb. 7 & 8,	"
Fort Donelson,	Feb. 16,	"
Valvend (New Mexico),	" 21,	"
Pea Ridge (Ark.),	Mar. 7 & 8,	"
Hampton Roads (*Monitor* and *Merrimac*),	Mar. 9,	"
Shiloh (Tenn.),	April 6 & 7,	"
Island Number Ten (Surrendered),	April 7,	"
Forts Jackson and St. Philip,	April 18–27,	"
New Orleans (Captured),	April 25 to May 1,	"
Yorktown (Siege of),	April and May,	"
Williamsburg,	May 5,	"
Winchester,	" 25,	"
Hanover Court-house,	" 27,	"
Seven Pines, or Fair Oaks,	May 31 & June 1,	"
Memphis (Tenn.),	June 6,	"
Cross Keys and Port Republic,	June 8 & 9,	"
Seven Days before Richmond,	June & July,	"
Baton Rouge (La.),	Aug. 5,	"
Cedar Mountain (Va.),	" 9,	"
Bull's Run (second),	" 30,	"
South Mountain (Md.),	Sept. 14,	"
Harper's Ferry (10,000 Nationals surrend'd),	" 15,	"
Antietam (Md.),	" 17,	"
Iuka (Miss.),	Sept. 19 & 20,	"
Corinth (Miss.),	Oct. 3,	"
Perryville (Ky.),	" 8,	"
Prairie Grove (Ark.),	Dec. 7,	"
Fredericksburg (Va.),	" 13,	"
Holly Springs (Miss.),	" 20,	"
Chickasaw Bayou (Miss.),	Dec. 27–29,	"
Stone River (Murfreesboro', Tenn.),	Dec. 31, and Jan. 3,	" 1863
Arkansas Post (Ark.),	Jan. 11,	"
Grierson's Raid,	April 11 to May 5,	"
Port Gibson (Miss.),	May 1,	"
Chancellorsville (Va.),	" 1–4,	"
Raymond (Miss.),	" 12,	"

Jackson (Miss.),	May 14,	1863
Champion Hill (Miss.),	“ 16,	“
Big Black River (Miss.),	“ 17,	“
Vicksburg (Miss.),	May 19–22,	“
Port Hudson (La.),	May 27,	“
Hanover Junction (Pa.),	June 30,	“
Gettysburg (Pa.),	July 1–4,	“
Vicksburg (Surrendered),	“ 4,	“
Helena (Ark.),	“ 4,	“
Port Hudson (Surrendered),	“ 9,	“
Jackson (Miss.),	“ 16,	“
Fort Wagner (S. C.),	July 10–18,	“
Morgan's Great Raid (Ind. and O.),	June 24 to July 26,	“
Chickamauga,	Sept. 19 & 20,	“
Campbell's Station (Tenn.),	Nov. 16,	“
Knoxville (Tenn.; Besieged),	Nov. 17 to Dec. 4,	“
Lookout Mountain (Tenn.),	Nov. 24,	“
Missionaries' Ridge (Tenn.),	“ 25,	“
Olustee (Fla.),	Feb. 20,	1864
Sabine Cross Roads (La.),	April 8,	“
Pleasant Hill (La.),	“ 9,	“
Fort Pillow (Tenn.; Massacre at),	“ 12,	“
Wilderness (Va.),	May 5 & 6,	“
Resaca (Ga.),	May 14 & 15,	“
Spottsylvania Court-house (Va.),	May 7–12,	“
Bermuda Hundred,	May 10,	“
New Hope Church (Ga.),	“ 25,	“
Cool Arbor (Va.),	June 1–3,	“
Petersburg (Va.; Smith's Attack),	“ 16,	“
Weldon Road (Va.),	June 21 & 22,	“
Kenesaw (Ga.),	June 27,	“
Peach-tree Creek (Ga.),	July 20,	“
Decatur (Ga.),	“ 22,	“
Atlanta (Ga.),	“ 28,	“
Petersburg (Va.; Mine Explosion),	“ 30,	“
Mobile Bay,	Aug. 5,	“
Jonesborough (Ga.),	Aug. 31 & Sept. 1,	“
Atlanta (Ga.; Captured),	Sept. 2,	“
Winchester (Va.),	“ 19,	“
Fisher's Hill (Va.),	“ 22,	“
Allatoona Pass (Ga.),	Oct. 6,	“
Hatcher's Run (Va.),	“ 27,	“
Franklin (Tenn.),	Nov. 30,	“
Fort McAllister (Ga.),	Dec 14,	“
Nashville (Tenn.),	Dec. 15 & 16,	“
Fort Fisher (N. C.; First Attack on),	“ 24 & 25,	“
Fort Fisher (N. C.; Capture of),	Jan. 15,	1865
Hatcher's Run (Va.),	Feb. 5,	“
Five Forks (Va.),	Mar. 31 & Apr. 1,	“
Averasborough (N. C.),	Mar. 16,	“
Bentonville (N. C.),	“ 18,	“
Petersburg (Carried by Assault),	April 2,	“
Appomattox Court house (near),	“ 9,	“
Mobile (Capture of),	“ 8–12,	“

There has been, from colonial times, desultory warfare quite frequently between the English-American colonists and the Indian tribes. The most formidable of these encounters were the Pequod war, the Esopus war, King Philip's war, Pontiac's war, the Creek and Seminole war, and wars with the Sioux. (See all of these under the respective titles.)

Bayard, GEORGE D., was born in New York in 1835; killed at Fredericksburg, Va., Dec. 14, 1862. He graduated at West Point in 1856, and entered the cavalry corps. Early in April, 1861, he was made brigadier-general of volunteer cavalry, and was attached to the Pennsylvania Reserves (which see). He participated in the battles fought by that eminent body of soldiers. General Bayard served under McDowell and Pope in Virginia; and, after the battle of Antietam Creek, he commanded a cavalry brigade, making frequent attacks on the retreating Confederates, and driving them from the gaps of the Blue Ridge. He was chief of cavalry of the Third Army Corps, and was engaged in the battles of Cedar Mountain, Manassas, and in the defence of Washington City. In the battle of Fredericksburg, where he fell, he was attached to Franklin's corps.

Bayard, JAMES ASHTON, statesman, was born in Philadelphia, July 28, 1767; died in Wilmington, Del., Aug. 6, 1815. He was of Huguenot descent; graduated at Princeton in 1784; studied law under General Joseph Reed; was admitted to the bar in 1787, and, settling in Delaware, soon acquired a high reputation as a lawyer. Mr. Bayard was a member of Congress from 1797 to 1803, and a conspicuous leader of the Federal party. In 1804 he was elected to the United States Senate, in which he distinguished himself in conducting the impeachment of Senator Blount. He was chiefly instrumental in securing the election of Jefferson over Burr in 1800; and made, in the House of Representatives, in 1802, a powerful defence of the existing judiciary system, but which was overthrown. He was in the Senate when war was declared against Great Britain in 1812. In May, 1813, he left the United States on a mission to St. Petersburg, to treat for peace with Great Britain under Russian mediation (which see). The mission was fruitless. In January, 1814, he went to Holland, and thence to England. At Ghent, during that year, he, with J. Q. Adams, Clay, Gallatin, and Russell, negotiated a treaty of peace with England (which see). He was preparing to go to England as a commissioner under the treaty, when an alarming illness seized him, and he returned home early in 1815. He died soon after his arrival.

JAMES ASHTON BAYARD.

Baylis's Creek, BATTLE AT (1864). General Hancock proceeded to attack the Confederates in front of Deep Bottom on the James River Aug. 12, 1864. His whole force was placed on transports at City Point, and its destination reported to be Washington. This was to deceive the Confederates. That night it went up the James River; but so tardy was the debarkation that the intended surprise of the Confederates was not effected. Hancock pushed some of his troops by Malvern Hill to flank the Confederates' defence behind Baylis's Creek, while ten thousand men were sent, under General Barlow, to assail their flank and rear. There were other dispositions for attack; but the delay had allowed Lee to send reinforcements, for the movement seemed to threaten Richmond. On the morning of the 16th, General Birney, with General Terry's division, attacked and carried the Confederate lines, and captured three hundred men. The Confederates soon rallied and drove him back. Another part of the attacking force was driven back, and the attempt failed.

Baylor, George, a cavalry officer in the Revolution, was born in Hanover County, Va.; died in Barbadoes in 1784. Soon after Washington's arrival at Cambridge in 1778, he appointed (Aug. 15) young Baylor as his aid. He was a participant in the battle at Trenton (which see), and carried the news of the victory to Congress, when that body presented him with a horse caparisoned for service, and made him colonel of dragoons (Jan. 8, 1777). A portion of his command were taken by surprise and massacred (see *Baylor's Regiment Surprised*) in September, 1778. Colonel Baylor served until the close of the war.

Baylor's Regiment Surprised. On the night of Sept. 27, 1778, Lieutenant-colonel Baylor's troop of horse, lying in barns unarmed, near old Tappan, were surprised at midnight by the British general Grey, while asleep. The British had silently cut off a sergeant's patrol and fell suddenly upon the sleeping troopers. The latter, without arms and powerless, asked for quarter. Grey had given special orders not to grant quarter, and out of one hundred and four prisoners sixty-seven were killed or wounded. Some of the men were bayoneted in cold blood. Lieutenant-colonel Baylor was wounded and made prisoner, and seventy horses were butchered.

Bayonne Decree. Bonaparte's response to the Embargo Act of 1807 (which see) was issued from Bayonne, April 17, 1808. He was there to dethrone his Spanish ally to make place for one of his own family. His decree authorized the seizure and confiscation of all American vessels in France, or which might arrive in France. It was craftily answered, when Armstrong remonstrated that, as no American vessels could be lawfully abroad after the passage of the Embargo Act, those pretending to be such must be British vessels in disguise.

Bayous in the Yazoo River. After the repulse of Sherman at Chickasaw Bayou (which see), other efforts were made by troops and gunboats to gain the rear of Vicksburg. About five hundred troops under General Ross, with two of Porter's gunboats and two mortars, made an expedition for the purpose. Passing through bayous, they got into the Tallahatchie, and not far from its junction with the Yalabusha, near the village of Greenwood, they encountered a strong work called Fort Pemberton (March 11, 1863). After a severe struggle for several days the Nationals were compelled to withdraw. Other expeditions were undertaken in the same region; and the story of the campaign among these side waters of the Mississippi, for some time in the spring of 1863, forms one of the most stirring and romantic chapters in the history of the Civil War.

Bay State, the popular name of Massachusetts, the colonial corporate title of which was "The Massachusetts Bay." This name it bore until the adoption of the National Constitution in 1788.

Beatty, John, M.D., was born in Bucks County, Penn., Dec. 10, 1749; died at Trenton, N. J., May 30, 1826. He graduated at Princeton in 1769; studied medicine with Dr. Rush; took up arms, and became a colonel in the Pennsylvania line. He was made prisoner at Fort Washington (which see), and suffered much. In 1778 he succeeded Elias Boudinot as commissary-general of prisoners, but resigned in 1780. He was a delegate in the Congress of the Confederation, 1783–85, and of the National Congress, 1793–95. He was Secretary of State for New Jersey for ten years—1795–1805.

Beauharnais, Charles, Marquis de, a natural son of Louis XIV. He was governor of New France (Canada) from 1726 to 1746, and held the rank of commodore in the French navy. On the breaking-out of war with England (1745), he built the fortress of Crown Point, which was afterwards enlarged and strengthened by Amherst. (See *Crown Point.*)

Beaumarchais, Pierre Augustin Caron de, born in Paris, Jan. 24, 1732; died May 19, 1799. In his extreme youth he evinced great mechanical and musical talents. He assisted his father in watch-making, and afterwards became teacher of the harp to the daughters of Louis XV. By a marriage with the young widow of an old government officer, Caron obtained a profitable situation. She soon died. In 1761 he purchased a commission as secretary to the king, a sinecure which conferred noble rank on its possessor, and the name of Beaumarchais, which he had assumed, was legally confirmed. Entering into mercantile speculations, he soon acquired a large fortune and lucrative offices. In April, 1768, having acquired some fame as a dramatic critic, he married a rich widow. His literary ventures did not succeed at first. In 1770 a wealthy financier, with whom he had made a valuable contract, died. His heirs contested the contract, and for seven years Beaumarchais carried on the suit, and won, after making wonderful displays of oratorical powers. Just afterwards appeared his famous play, the *Barber of Seville.* He was engaged in some scandalous trials. In September, 1775, he submitted a memorial to the French monarch, in which he insisted upon the necessity of the French government's secretly aiding the English-American colonies; and as agent of his government he passed some time in England, where he became acquainted with Arthur Lee, which acquaintance led to diplomatic and commercial relations with the Continental Congress. (See *France, Relations with.*) He conducted the business of supplying the Americans with munitions of war with great ability, and afterwards became involved in a lawsuit with them. In 1784 he produced his *Marriage of Figaro*, which was violently opposed by the court. His political tendencies were republican, and he sympathized with the French revolutionists, but did not enter with his usual enthusiasm into their measures. Suspected by the Jacobins, he was compelled to leave the country, and his property was confiscated. He was finally permitted to return to France, but could not recover his wealth. Beaumarchais lived in comparative poverty until May, 1799, when he was found dead in his bed, having died of apoplexy. A suit which he had commenced against the United States for payment for supplies furnished to the Continental Congress, between 1776 and 1779, under the mercantile firm name of Roderique Hortales, & Co., continued about fifty years, and resulted in 1835 in the payment to his heirs by the United States of the sum of about two hundred thousand dollars.

Beaumont, WILLIAM, M.D., was born at Lebanon, Conn., in 1785; died in St. Louis, April 25, 1853. In 1812 he was made assistant-engineer in the United States Army, and served until 1837. While stationed at Michillimackinac (Mackinaw) in 1825, he treated Alexis St. Martin, a Canadian, who had a gunshot wound in his side; the wound healed without closing up, exposing to view the operations of the stomach in its digestive functions. Dr. Beaumont made careful experiments with this man, for several years, upon the process of digestion, and published the result of his researches. St. Martin was yet living in July, 1879, or fifty-four years after the accident. The orifice exposing the stomach had never closed. He was living in Canada, at the age of eighty-seven years, too poor, it was said, to permit him to join his aged wife in Massachusetts, by whom he had had fourteen children.

Beauregard, PETER GUSTAVUS TOUTANT, a Confederate general, was born on a plantation near New Orleans in 1817. He graduated at West Point Military Academy in 1838, and entered the artillery service, but was transferred to the engineer corps. He won the brevets of captain and major in the war with Mexico, and was wounded at Chapultepec (which see); also at the taking of the city of Mexico. He left the service of the United States in 1861, and joined the Confederates in February. He conducted the siege of Fort Sumter, and was afterwards active as a leader in Virginia and other parts of the late slave-labor states. Beauregard was made brigadier-general in the insurgent army Feb. 20, 1861, and major-general after the battle of Bull's Run (which see) in July. He took command of the Army of the Mississippi, under General A. S. Johnston, and directed the battle of Shiloh in April, 1862, after the death of Johnston. (See *Shiloh*.) He successfully defended Charleston in 1862–63, and in May, 1864, he joined Lee in defence of Petersburg and Richmond. As commander of the forces in the Carolinas in 1865, he joined them with those of General J. E. Johnston, and surrendered them to Sherman. At the close of the war, with the full rank of general in the Confederate service, he took up his abode in New Orleans.

P. G. T. BEAUREGARD.

Beauregard's Proclamation. P. G. T. Beauregard, a native of Louisiana, who was commissioned a brigadier-general by President Davis, was placed in command of the gathering army of Confederates at Manassas Junction — the "Department of Alexandria." He took the command at the beginning of June, 1861, and issued a proclamation which was calculated and intended to "fire the Southern heart." He said: "A reckless and unprincipled tyrant has invaded your soil. Abraham Lincoln, regardless of all moral, legal, and constitutional restraints, has thrown his abolition hosts among us, who are murdering and imprisoning your citizens, confiscating and destroying your property, and committing other acts of violence and outrage too shocking and revolting to humanity to be enumerated. All rules of civilized warfare are abandoned, and they proclaim by their acts, if not on their banners, that their war-cry is 'Beauty and Booty.' All that is dear to man—your honor, and that of your wives and daughters, your fortunes, and your lives—are involved in this monstrous contest." He then, as "General of the Confederate States, commanding at Camp Pickens, Manassas Junction," invited the people of Virginia to a vindication of their patriotism, "by the name and memory of their revolutionary fathers, and by the purity and sanctity of their domestic firesides, to rally to the standard of their state and country," and by every means in their power "compatible with honorable warfare, to drive back and expel the invaders from the land." The speech of President Davis at Richmond (see *Davis, Reception of, at Richmond*) and this proclamation of Beauregard's were lauded by the Secessionists at Washington and Baltimore as having the ring of true metal.

Beaver Dams, AFFAIR AT THE. After leaving Fort George (see *Capture of Fort George*) the British established a strong post and depot of supplies at the Beaver Dams, among the hills eighteen miles west of Queenstown, and made a stone house belonging to De Cou a sort of citadel for the garrison. Dearborn determined to attempt the capture of this post and its stores, and for that purpose he detached five hundred and seventy infantry, some cavalry under Major Chapin, a few artillerymen, and two field-pieces, all under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Charles G. Bœrstler. They marched up the Niagara River to Queenstown (June 23, 1813), and the next morning pushed off westward. Their march appears to have been discovered by the British, for while Chapin's mounted men were in the advance and marching among the hills, Bœrstler's rear was attacked by John Brant, at the head of four hundred and fifty Mohawk and Caughnawaga Indians, who lay in ambush. Chapin was instantly called back, and the Americans in a body charged upon the Indians and drove them almost a mile. Then Bœrstler hesitated, and the Indians, rallying, bore upon his flank and rear, and kept up a galling fire at every exposed situation. The Americans pushed forward over the Beaver Dam Creek, fighting the dusky foe at a great disadvantage, and made conscious that they were almost surrounded by them. After keeping up this contest for about three hours, Bœrstler determined to abandon the expedition, when he found himself confronted by an unexpected force. Mrs. Laura Secord, a slight and delicate woman, living at Queenstown, became acquainted with Dearborn's plans, and at the time when Bœrstler and his forces left Fort George—a hot summer evening—she made a circuitous journey of nineteen miles on foot to the quarters of Lieutenant-colonel Fitzgibbon (who was in command of some regulars at the Beaver Dams) and warned him of his danger. Thus forewarned, he had ordered the Indian ambush, and, displaying his men to the best advantage after Bœrstler had crossed the creek, he boldly demanded the surrender of the Americans to Major De Haven, commander of the district. For this purpose Fitzgibbon bore a flag himself. He falsely assured Bœrstler that his party was only the advance of fifteen hundred British troops and seven hundred Indians, under Lieutenant-colonel Bisshopp, and that the barbarians were so exasperated that it would be difficult to restrain them from massacring the Americans. Bœrstler, deceived and alarmed, agreed to surrender on certain conditions. De Haven, whom Fitzgibbon had sent for, came up with two hundred men, and Bœrstler and five hundred soldiers were made prisoners. It had been agreed that the captives should be protected and sent back on parole. This promise was broken. The Indians plundered the captive troops, and the latter were sent to Burlington Heights and kept prisoners of war. When Bœrstler was first attacked by the Indians, he sent a courier back to Dearborn for aid, and that commander sent Colonel Christie with three hundred men to reinforce him. When they reached Queenstown, they heard of the surrender, and hastened back to camp with the sad intelligence. The British advanced upon Queenstown, and, occupying that place, soon invested Fort George.

Beck, Theodoric Romeyn, was born at Schenectady, N. Y., Aug. 11, 1791; died at Utica, N. Y., Nov. 19, 1855. He was graduated at Union College in 1807; studied medicine under Dr. Hosack, and began the practice of it in Albany. In 1813 he prepared a report of American minerals (believed to be the first public systematic account of the mineral deposits of the United States) for the Albany Society of Arts. In 1815 he was appointed Professor of the Institutes of Medicine in the College of Physicians and Surgeons in western New York, and from 1826 to 1836 he was Professor of Medical Jurisprudence at Fairfield Medical College. From 1836 to 1840 he was Professor of Materia Medica there, and held the same professorship in the Albany Medical College from 1840 to 1854. Dr. Beck was President of the State Medical Society in 1829, a manager of the New York State Lunatic Asylum, and a founder and active supporter of the Albany Institute. Dr. Beck gave such statistics of the deaf and dumb that the Legislature of New York adopted measures for their education. For many years he edited the *American Journal of Insanity*. So early as 1823 he published his famous work on *Medical Jurisprudence*—a standard book in America and Europe.

Bedel, Timothy, was a native of New Hampshire. He was a brave and faithful officer in the war for independence, and died at Haverhill, N. H., in February, 1787. He was attached to the Northern Army, and had the full confidence and esteem of General Schuyler, its commander. He was captain of rangers in 1775, and early in 1776 was made colonel of a New Hampshire regiment. He was with Montgomery at the capture of St. John's on the Sorel, and was afterwards in command at the Cedars (which see), not far from Montreal, where a cowardly surrender by a subordinate, in Bedel's absence, caused the latter to be tried by a court-martial, on a false charge, made by General Arnold. He was deprived of command for a while, but was reinstated.

Beecher, Henry Ward, son of Rev. Lyman Beecher, was born at Litchfield, Conn., June 24, 1813, and graduated at Amherst College in 1834. He afterwards studied theology in Lane Seminary. For a few years he was pastor of a Presbyterian Church in Indiana, first at Lawrenceburg and then at Indianapolis. In 1847 he was called to the pastorate of a new Congregationalist organization in Brooklyn, called Plymouth Church, over which he still presides as pastor. From the beginning of his ministry Mr. Beecher has held a high rank as a public teacher and pulpit orator, with a constantly increasing reputation. Laying aside the conventionalities of his sacred profession, and regarding the Gospel minister as peculiarly a leader in social life, his sermons have always been marked by practical good sense, and embraced in their topics the whole field of human society. They are largely made up of illustrations drawn from every phase of life and the instructions of nature. He has an abiding love of music, the fine arts, flowers, and animals; and believing Christianity to be, not a philosophical system, but an exalted rule of conduct, he has never hesitated to discuss in the pulpit the great problems of the times in politics and social life — slavery, temperance, social evils, and the lust for power and gain. Mr. Beecher has led a most active life as preacher, editor, lyceum lecturer, and author of numerous books. He began editorial labors before he began to preach, conducting for a year (1836) *The Cincinnati Journal;* and for nearly twenty years he was an editorial contributor to the *New York Independent,* a weekly newspaper. Since 1870 he has been editor of the *Christian Union,* a weekly paper also published in New York. He is a constant contributor to other publications. The intellectual labors of Mr. Beecher are undoubtedly as great as those of any man living.

Behring, VITUS, a Danish navigator, was born at Horsen, in Jutland, in 1680; died Dec. 8, 1741. In his youth he made several voyages to the East and West Indies. He entered the Russian navy, and served with distinction against the Swedes; and in 1725 he commanded a scientific expedition to the Sea of Kamtchatka. He ascertained that Asia and America were separated by water—a strait which now bears his name. This problem Peter the Great had been very desirous of having solved. Behring was appointed captain commandant in 1732, and in 1741 set out on a second voyage to the same region, when he discovered a part of the North American continent supposed to have been New Norfolk. He and his crew, being disabled by sickness, attempted to return to Kamtchatka, but were wrecked on an island that now bears his name, where Behring died soon afterwards. His discoveries were the foundation of the claim of Russia to a large region in the far northwest of the American continent. (See *Alaska.*)

Belcher and the General Court of Massachusetts. Governor Belcher was authorized to accept from the Legislature of Massachusetts a standing salary of $5000 a year, to be paid first out of the annual grants. When he first met the Legislature (September, 1730), he tried to bring about a settlement for a standing salary, but could not, and the Assembly was dissolved. To secure a majority in the next House, the governor tried to gain the influence of certain leaders by gifts of office; but their acceptance diminished their popularity, and he gained nothing. The people had been encouraged by the English press, which had commended the Bostonians for their "noble stand" against the demands of Burnet, which had "endeared them to all lovers and asserters of liberty." The new court was unmanageable by the governor, and he accepted of a grant of a salary for one year. This was a popular and significant triumph.

Belcher, JONATHAN, a colonial governor, was born at Cambridge, Mass., in January, 1682; died at Elizabethtown, N. J., Aug. 31, 1757. He graduated at Harvard University in 1699. He visited Europe, where he became acquainted with the Princess Sophia and her son (afterwards George I. of England), which led to his future honors. After a six-years' sojourn he returned to America, engaged in mercantile business in Boston, became a member of the Provincial Assembly, and in 1729 was sent as agent of the provinces to England. In 1730 he was appointed governor of Massachusetts and New Hampshire, which office he held eleven years. In consequence of a clamor against him, he was superseded in 1741, but succeeded in vindicating himself before the British court. Belcher was made governor of New Jersey, and arrived in 1747, where he passed the remainder of his life. He extended the charter of the College of New Jersey, and was its chief patron and benefactor.

Belknap, JEREMY, D.D., was born in Boston, June 4, 1744; died there June 20, 1798. He graduated at Harvard University in 1762; studied theology; taught school four years; was pastor of a church in Dover, N. H., from 1767 to 1786, and of the Federal Street Church, in Boston, from April 4, 1787, until his death. He founded the Massachusetts Historical Society; was an overseer of Harvard University; was a patriot during the war for independence, an opponent of African slavery, and a promoter of literature and science. He published a *History of New Hampshire,* 3 vols. (1784–92); a collection of *Psalms and Hymns* (1795); *The Foresters,* a work of wit and humor (1792); *American Biography,* 2 vols. (1794–98), besides sermons and other religious writings.

Bell and Breckinridge. John Bell was the candidate of the "National Constitutional Union Party" (which see) for President of the United States, in 1860. John C. Breckinridge was the candidate of the Secessionists of the Charleston Convention (which see) for the same office, in 1860. The former was a native of Tennessee; the latter of Kentucky—both slave-labor states. On April 23, 1861, Bell, in a speech at Nashville, declared that Tennessee was virtually "out of the Union," and urged the people of his state to prepare for vigorous war upon the government. On April 17, Breckinridge wrote to a friend at Louisville, saying, "Kentucky should call a convention without delay, and Lincoln's extra session of Congress should be confronted by fifteen states." In that Congress Breckinridge, as a professed Unionist, took his seat as senator in July ensuing, where he remained some time, and then joined the Confederates in making war upon the Republic. He held the commission of a brigadier-general in the Confederate Army.

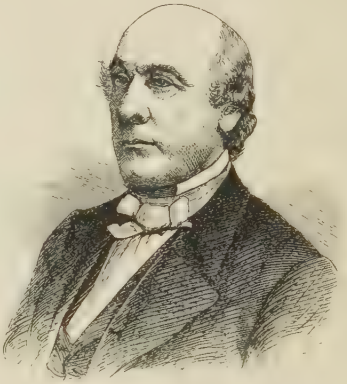
Bell, CHARLES H., was born in New York, Aug. 15, 1798; died at New Brunswick, N. J., Feb. 19, 1875. He entered the naval service in June, 1812; served with Decatur in 1813–14; with Chauncey, on Lake Ontario, in 1814, and with Decatur again, in the Mediterranean, in 1815. He was with the squadron in the West Indies (1824–29) operating against the pirates there. In 1860 he was in command of the Norfolk navy-yard; commanded the Pacific squadron in 1862–64, and the navy-yard at Brooklyn 1865–68. In July, 1866, he was made rear-admiral.

Belligerent Act towards France. On July 8, 1798, Congress passed an act authorizing the President to give instructions to the commanders of American public armed vessels, and to grant commissions to the commanders of private armed vessels, to capture any French armed vessel anywhere met with, but not unarmed vessels. The three vessels so long building—the *Constitution, Constellation,* and *United States*—were now completed and sent to sea.

Bellingham, RICHARD, Governor of Massachusetts, was born in England in 1592; died Dec. 7, 1672. Bred a lawyer, he came to America in 1634, and was chosen deputy-governor the next year. He was elected governor, in opposition to Winthrop, in 1641. He was rechosen in 1654, and in 1666, after the death of Governor Endicott, continuing in office the rest of his life. His administration was a somewhat stormy one. Bellingham was so opposed to all innovations in religious matters, that he was severe in his conduct towards the Friends, or Quakers.

Bellomont (RICHARD COOTE), EARL OF, was born in 1636; died in New York, March 5, 1701. He was of the Irish peerage, and was among the first to espouse the cause of the Prince of Orange when he invaded England. (See *English Revolution.*) He was created earl in 1689, and made treasurer and receiver-general of Queen Mary. In May, 1695, he was appointed Governor of New York, but did not arrive there until May, 1698. Meanwhile he had been commissioned Governor of Massachusetts, including New Hampshire; and on going to Boston, in 1699, he was well received, and his administration was popular. Bellomont had been one of the Parliamentary committee appointed to investigate the affair of Leisler's trial and execution, and had taken a warm interest in the reversal of the attainder of that unfortunate leader. On his arrival in New York, he naturally connected himself with the Leisler party, whom Governor Fletcher had strongly opposed. Bellomont came with power to inquire into the conduct of Governor Fletcher, and he was so well satisfied of his malfeasance in office that he sent him to England under arrest. (See *Fletcher.*) The remains of Leisler and Milborne were taken up, and after lying in state several days were reburied in the Dutch Church. (See *Leisler.*) Bellomont chose for his council a majority of "Leislerians;" and that party soon obtained a majority in the Assembly also. One of their first acts was to vote an indemnity to the heirs of Leisler. Bellomont used every means to gain the good-will of the people in both provinces, and succeeded. The earl was a shareholder in the privateer ship commanded by Captain Kidd; and when that seaman was accused of piracy (see *Kidd*) Bellomont procured his arrest in Boston, and sent him to England for trial. The Bellomont earldom finally expired in the year 1800.

Bellows, HENRY WHITNEY, D.D., a Unitarian clergyman, was born in Boston, June 11, 1814. Educated at Harvard and the Divinity School at Cambridge, he was ordained pastor of the first Unitarian Church in New York city in January, 1838. It was and still is called "All-Souls' Church." Dr. Bellows is yet (1880) its pastor. He was the projector of the *Christian Inquirer*, in 1846, and he has occupied from the beginning a conspicuous place in the pulpit, in letters, and in social life, wielding great influence for good. Dr. Bellows was one of the originators of the "United States Sanitary Commission," which performed such prodigious benevolent work during the late civil war. He was president of the Commission from the beginning. (See *United States Sanitary Commission.*) Besides numerous pamphlets and published discourses, Dr. Bellows is the author of a thoughtful work—a collection of sermons—on *Christian Doctrine*, published in 1860; and later he gave a picturesque account of a European tour in 1868–69, in two volumes, entitled *The Old World in its New Face.*



HENRY WHITNEY BELLOWS, D.D.

Belmont, BATTLE AT (1861). Just before Fremont was deprived of his command (see *Fremont's Embarrassments*) he ordered General Grant to move a co-operative force along the line of the Mississippi River. It was promptly done. A column about three thousand strong, chiefly Illinois volunteers, under General John A. McClernand, went down from Cairo in transports and wooden gunboats (*Tyler* and *Lexington*) to menace Columbus by attacking Belmont, opposite. At the same time another column, under General C. F. Smith, marched from Paducah to menace Columbus in the rear. Grant went with McClernand. The troops landed three miles above Belmont, Nov. 7, 1861, and while they were pushing on the gunboats opened fire upon Columbus. General (Bishop) Polk, the commander, sent General Pillow over the river to reinforce the little garrison at Belmont. A sharp battle ensued, and the Nationals were victorious; but, exposed to the heavy artillery at Columbus, the post was untenable. Giving three cheers for the Union, the Nationals set fire to the Confederate camp, and hastened back towards their boats with captured men, horses, and artillery. Polk opened seven of his heaviest guns upon them, and at the same time sent over some fresh troops under General Cheatham. Then he crossed over himself, with two regiments, making the whole Confederate force about five thousand men. They fell upon Grant, and a desperate struggle ensued. Grant fought his way back to the transports under cover of a fire from the gunboats, and escaped. The Nationals lost about five hundred men, and the Confederates over six hundred, killed, wounded, and missing.

Bemis's Heights, FIRST BATTLE OF (1777). General Schuyler, with his feeble army, had so successfully opposed the march of Burgoyne down the valley of the Hudson that he had not passed Saratoga the first week in August, 1777. When the expedition of St. Leger from the Mohawk and the defeat of the Germans at Hoosick, near Bennington, had crippled and discouraged the invaders, and Schuyler was about to turn upon them, and strike for the victory for which he had so well prepared, he was superseded by General Gates in the command of the Northern Army. Yet his patriotism was not cooled by the ungenerous act, the result of intrigue, and he offered Gates every assistance in his power. Had the latter acted promptly, he might have gained a victory at once; but he did not. At the end of twenty days he moved the army to a strong position on Bemis's Heights, where his camp was fortified by Kosciusko, a Polish patriot and engineer. Burgoyne called in his outposts, and with his shattered forces and splendid train of artillery he crossed the Hudson on a bridge of boats (Sept. 13, 1777), and encamped on the Heights of Saratoga, now Schuylerville. New courage had been infused into the hearts of the Americans by the events near Bennington and on the Upper Mohawk, and Gates's army was rapidly increasing in numbers. Burgoyne felt compelled to move forward speedily. Some American troops, under Colonel John Brown, had got in his rear, and surprised a British post at the foot of Lake George (Sept. 18). They also attempted to capture Ticonderoga. Burgoyne had moved slowly southward, and on the morning of September 19 he offered battle to Gates. His left wing, with the immense artillery train, commanded by Generals Phillips and Riedesel, kept upon the plain near the river. The centre, composed largely of German troops, led by Burgoyne in person, extended to a range of hills that were touched by the American left, and upon these hills General Fraser and Lieutenant-colonel Breyman, with grenadiers and infantry, were posted. The front and flank of Burgoyne's army were covered by the Canadians, Tories, and Indians who yet remained in camp. General Gates, who lacked personal courage and the skill of a good commander, resolved to act on the defensive. General Arnold and others, who observed the movements of the British, urged Gates to attack them, but he would give no order to fight. Even at eleven o'clock, when the booming of a cannon gave the signal for the general advance of Burgoyne's army, he remained in his tent, apparently indifferent. Arnold, as well as others, became extremely impatient as peril drew near. He was finally permitted to order Colonel Daniel Morgan with his riflemen, and Dearborn with infantry, to attack the Canadians and Indians, who were swarming on the hills in advance of Burgoyne's right. These were driven back and pursued. Morgan's troops, becoming scattered, were recalled, and with New England troops, under Dearborn, Scammel, and Cilley, another furious charge was made. After a sharp engagement, in which Morgan's horse was shot under him, the combatants withdrew to their respective lines. Meanwhile Burgoyne had moved rapidly upon the American centre and left. At the same time the vigilant Arnold attempted to turn the British right. Gates denied him reinforcements, and restrained him in every way in his power, and he failed. Masked by thick woods, neither party was now certain of the movements of the other, and they suddenly and unexpectedly met in a ravine at Freeman's farm, at which Burgoyne had halted. There they fought desperately for a while. Arnold was pressed back, when Fraser, by a quick movement, called up some German troops from the British centre to his aid. Arnold rallied his men, and with New England troops, led by Colo-

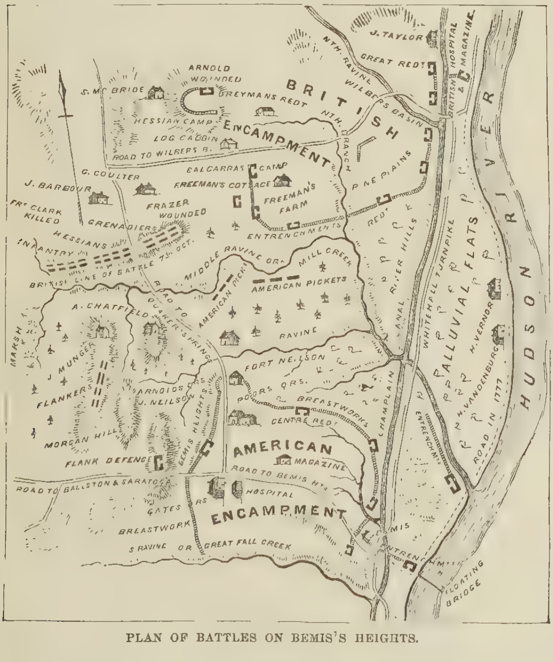
NEILSON HOUSE ON BEMIS'S HEIGHTS.*

---

* The mansion of Mr. Neilson, an active Whig at the time of the battle. It was the headquarters of General Poor and Colonel Morgan. To it the wounded Major Acland was conveyed, and there was joined by his wife. (See *Lady Acland.*)

nels Brooks, Dearborn, Scammel, Cilley, and Major Hull, he struck the enemy such heavy blows that his line began to waver and fall into confusion. General Phillips, below the Heights, heard through the woods the din of battle, and hurried over the hills with fresh English troops and some artillery, followed by a portion of the Germans under Riedesel, and appeared on the battle-field just as victory seemed about to be yielded to the Americans. The battle continued. The British ranks were becoming fearfully thinned, when Riedesel fell heavily upon the American flank with infantry and artillery, and they gave way. The Germans saved the British army from ruin. A lull in the battle succeeded, but at the middle of the afternoon the contest was renewed with greater fury. At length the British, fearfully assailed by bullet and bayonet, recoiled and fell back. At that moment Arnold was at headquarters, seated upon a powerful black horse, and in vain urging Gates to give him reinforcements. Hearing the roar of the renewed battle, he could no longer brook delay, and turning his horse's head towards the field of strife, and exclaiming, "I'll soon put an end to it!" went off on a full gallop, followed by one of Gates's staff, with directions to order him back. The subaltern could not overtake the general, who, by words and acts, animated the Americans. For three hours the battle raged. Like an ocean-tide the warriors surged backwards and forwards, winning and losing victory alternately. When it was too late, Gates sent out the New York regiments of Livingston and Van Cortlandt and the whole brigade of General Learned. Had Gates complied with Arnold's wishes, the capture of Burgoyne's army might have been easily accomplished. Night closed the contest, and both parties slept on their arms until morning. But for Arnold and Morgan, no doubt Burgoyne would have been marching triumphantly on Albany before noon that day. So jealous was Gates because the army praised those gallant leaders, that he omitted their names in his official report. The number of Americans killed and wounded in this action was about three hundred; of the British about six hundred.

Bemis's Heights, SECOND BATTLE OF. Burgoyne found his broken army utterly dispirited on the morning after the first battle, on Sept. 19, 1777, and he withdrew to a point two miles from the American lines. Arnold urged Gates to attack him at dawn, but that officer would not consent. Burgoyne was hoping to receive good news from Sir Henry Clinton, who was preparing to ascend the Hudson with a strong force. So he intrenched his camp, put his troops in better spirits by a cheerful harangue, and resolved to wait for Clinton. The next morning he was himself cheered by a message from Clinton, who promised to make a diversion in his favor immediately; also by a despatch from Howe, announcing a victory over Washington on the Brandywine. (See *Brandywine, Battle of.*) Burgoyne gave the glad tidings to his army, and wrote to Clinton that he could sustain his position until Oct. 12. But his condition rapidly grew worse. The American army hourly increased in numbers, and the militia were swarming on his flanks and rear. His foraging-parties could get very little food for the starving horses, the militia so annoyed them. In his hospitals were eight hundred sick and wounded men, and his effective soldiers were fed on diminished rations. His Indian allies deserted him, while, through the exertions of Schuyler, Oneida warriors joined the forces of Gates. Lincoln, with two thousand men, also joined him on the 22d; still Gates remained inactive. His officers were impatient, and Arnold plainly told him that the army was clamorous for action, and the militia were threatening to go home. He told him that he had reason to think that if they had "improved the 20th of September it might have ruined the enemy. That is past," he said; "let me entreat you to improve the present time." Gates was offended, and, treating the brave Arnold with silent contempt, sat still. A long time Burgoyne waited for further tidings from Clinton. On Oct. 4, he called a council of officers. It was decided to fight their way through the American lines, and, on the morning of Oct. 7, 1777, the whole army moved. Towards the American left wing Burgoyne pressed with fifteen hundred picked men, eight brass cannons, and two howitzers, leaving the main army on the heights in command of Brigadiers Specht and Hamilton, and the redoubts near the river with Brigadier-general Gall. Phillips, Fraser, and Riedesel were with Burgoyne. Canadian rangers, loyalists, and Indians were sent to hang on the American rear, while Burgoyne should attack their front. This movement was discerned before the British were ready for battle. The drums of the American advanced guard beat to arms. The alarm ran all along the lines. Gates had ten thousand troops—enough to have crushed the weakened foe if properly handled. He inquired the cause of the disturbance, and then permitted Colonel Morgan to "begin the game." Morgan soon gained a good position on the British right, while General Poor, with his New Hampshire brigade, followed by General Ten Broeck, with New-Yorkers, advanced against their left. Meanwhile, the Canadian rangers and their companions had gained the American rear, and attacked their pickets. They were soon joined by grenadiers. The Americans were driven back to their lines, when a sharp fight ensued. By this time the whole British line was in battle order, the grenadiers under Major Acland, with artillery under Major Williams, forming the left; the centre composed of British and grenadiers under Phillips and Riedesel, and the right of infantry under Earl Balcarras. General Fraser, with five hundred picked men, was in advance of the British right ready to fall upon the left flank of the Americans when the action should begin on the front. It was now between three and four o'clock in the afternoon. As Burgoyne was about to advance, he was astonished by the thunder of cannon on his left, and the crack of rifles on his right. Poor had pressed up the thick-wooded slope on which Majors Acland and Williams were posted, unobserved, until he was near the batteries, which were captured after a desperate struggle, in which the leader of the British grenadiers was severely wounded, and Major Williams, of the artillery, was made prisoner. Five times one of the cannons was taken and retaken. When the British fell back, and the gun remained with the Americans, Colonel Cilley leaped upon it, waved his sword over his head, dedicated the piece to the "American cause," and, turning it upon the foe, he opened its destructive energies upon them with their own ammunition. Sir Francis Clarke, Burgoyne's chief aid, who was sent to secure the cannons, was mortally wounded, made a prisoner, and sent to Gates's tent. The whole eight cannons and the possession of the field remained with the Americans. Meanwhile Colonel Morgan had assailed Fraser's flanking corps so furiously that they were driven back to their lines. There Morgan fell upon the British right so fiercely that it was thrown into confusion. A panic prevailed. It was followed by an onslaught in front by Dearborn, with fresh troops, when the British broke and fled in terror. Balcarras soon rallied them, while the centre, composed chiefly of Germans, though convulsed, stood firm. Now Arnold came upon the scene. Gates, offended by what he called Arnold's "impertinence," had deprived him of all command, and he was an impatient spectator of the battle. When he could no longer restrain himself, he sprang upon his charger and started on full gallop for the field of action, pursued by a subaltern to call him back. He dashed into the vortex of danger, where the pursuer dared not follow. He was received with cheers by his old troops, and he led them against the British centre. With the desperation of a madman he rushed into the thickest of the fight. When, at the head of his men, he dashed into the firm German lines, they broke and fled in dismay. The battle was now general. Arnold and Morgan were the ruling spirits on the American side. Fraser was the soul that directed the most potent energies of the British. One of Morgan's riflemen singled him out by his brilliant uniform, and shot him through the body, wounding him mortally. Then a panic ran along the British line. At the sight of three thousand fresh New York militia, under General Ten Broeck, approaching, the wavering line gave way, and the troops retreated to their intrenchments, leaving their artillery behind. Up to their intrenchments, the Americans, with Arnold at their head, eagerly pressed, in the face of a terrible storm of grapeshot and bullets. The works were assailed with small arms. Balcarras defended them bravely until he could resist no longer. The voice of Arnold was heard above the din of battle, and his form was seen, in' the midst of the smoke, dashing from point to point. With the troops first of Generals Paterson and Glover, and then of Learned, he assailed the enemy's right, which was defended by Canadians and loyalists. The English gave way, leaving the Germans exposed. Then Arnold ordered up the troops of Livingston and Wesson, with Morgan's riflemen, to make a general assault, while Colonel Brooks, with his Massachusetts regiment, accompanied by Arnold, attacked the troops commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Breyman. Arnold rushed into the sally-port on his powerful black horse, and spread such terror among the Germans that they fled, giving a parting volley of bullets, one of which gave Arnold a severe wound in the same leg that was badly hurt at Quebec. At that moment he was overtaken by the subaltern, who had been sent by Gates to recall him, "lest he should do some rash thing." He had done it. He had achieved a victory for which Gates received the honor. The Germans had thrown down their weapons. Breyman was mortally wounded. The fight ended at twilight, and before the dawn, Burgoyne, who had resolved to retreat, removed his whole army a mile or two north of his intrenchments. In this remarkable battle—won by an officer who had been deprived of his command—the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, one hundred and fifty men; that of the British, including prisoners, was about seven hundred. Arnold was the only American commanding officer who received a wound. It is said that Gates did not leave his tent all that day, not having recovered from a debauch in



PLAN OF BATTLES ON BEMIS'S HEIGHTS.

which he had indulged the night before. (See *Surrender of Burgoyne.*)

Benedict, Lewis, was born in Albany, N. Y., Sept. 2, 1817; killed in the battle of Pleasant Hill, La., April 9, 1864. He was a graduate of Williams College; was admitted to the bar in 1841; was surrogate of Albany County in 1848, and member of Assembly in 1861. He entered the military service as lieutenant-colonel of volunteers in 1861; served in the campaign on the Peninsula in 1862; was captured, and confined in Libby and Salisbury prisons several months, and when exchanged was sent to the Department of the Gulf, where he was distinguished for his wisdom and bravery. He served as brigadier-general in the Red River campaign, in which he lost his life. (See *Pleasant Hill*, *Battle of.*)

Benezet, Anthony, was born in France, Jan. 31, 1713; died in Philadelphia, May 3, 1784. He emigrated to Philadelphia in 1731, and taught school there nearly all his life. He became a member of the Society of Friends; and his life was conspicuous for acts of benevolence. He wrote much against war and African slavery, and bequeathed his estate, on the death of his wife, to the African school in Philadelphia.

Benham, Henry W., was born at Cheshire, Conn., in 1816, and graduated at West Point, first in his class, in 1837, entering the engineer corps. He served under General Taylor in the war with Mexico, and was wounded in the battle of Buena Vista (which see). Early in the Civil War he was active in Western Virginia, and afterwards on the South Carolina coast. He assisted in the capture of Fort Pulaski; and in 1863–64 he commanded an engineer brigade in the Army of the Potomac. He was breveted brigadier-general for services in the campaigns ending with the surrender of Lee, and major-general (March, 1865) for "meritorious services in the rebellion."

Benjamin, Judah Peter, was born in St. Domingo, of Jewish parents, in 1812, and in 1816 his family settled in Savannah, Ga. Judah entered Yale College, but left it, in 1827, without graduating, and became a lawyer in New Orleans. He taught school for a while, married one of his pupils, and became a leader of his profession in Louisiana. From 1853 to 1861, he was United States Senator. Mr. Benjamin was regarded, for several years, as one of the leaders of the Southern wing of the Democratic party; and, when the question of secession divided the people, he withdrew from the Senate, and, with his coadjutor, John Slidell, he promoted the great insurrection. He became Attorney-general of the Southern Confederacy, acting Secretary of War, and Secretary of State. After the war he went to London, where he has since practised his profession with great success.

JUDAH PETER BENJAMIN.

Bennett, James Gordon, founder of the *New York Herald*, was born in Banffshire, Scotland, in 1795; died in New York, June 1, 1872. Intending to enter upon the ministry in the Roman Catholic Church, he studied theology in Aberdeen some time, but, abandoning the intention, he came to British America, arriving at Halifax, N. S., in 1819, where he taught school. He made his way to Boston, where he became a proof-reader, and in 1822 he went to New York, and thence to Charleston, where he made translations from the Spanish for the *Charleston Courier*. Returning to New York, he became proprietor (1825) of the *New York* (Sunday) *Courier*, but did not succeed. After various editorial and journalistic adventures in New York and Pennsylvania, Mr. Bennett, in May, 1835, began the publication of the *New York Herald*. His method was a "new departure" in journalism. The *Herald* obtained an immense circulation and advertising patronage. The profits of the establishment, at the time of Mr. Bennett's death, were estimated at from $500,000 to $700,000 a year. He died in the Roman Catholic faith, and bequeathed the *Herald* to his only son, James Gordon Bennett, Jr.

Bennington, Battle near (1777). Falling short of provisions, Burgoyne sent out an expedition from his camp on the Hudson River to procure cattle, horses to mount Riedesel's dragoons, to "try the affections of the country," and to complete a corps of loyalists. Colonel Baume led the expedition, which consisted of eight hundred men, comprising German dragoons and British marksmen, a body of Canadians and Indians, some loyalists as guides, and two pieces of artillery. They penetrated the country eastward of the Hudson towards Bennington, Vt., where the Americans had gathered a considerable quantity of supplies. At that time (August, 1777), General Stark, disgusted because he had not been made a Continental brigadier, had resigned his colonelcy, taken the leadership of the New Hampshire militia, with the stipulation that he was to have an independent command, and was at Bennington with part of a brigade. He had lately refused to obey a command of General Lincoln to join the main army opposing Burgoyne. It was a fortunate circumstance, for he did better service when Baume approached and began to cast up intrenchments (Aug. 14, 1777) in the township of Hoosick, N. Y., within about five miles of Bennington. Informed of that approach, Stark had sent expresses for Warner's shattered regiment, and for militia, and he soon gathered many fugitives from the disaster at Hubbardton. (See *Battle at Hubbardton.*) The 15th was rainy. Baume had sent back to Burgoyne for reinforcements, and Stark was waiting for the arrival of more expected troops from Berkshire. Warner joined Stark on the morning of the 15th—he and his men drenched during a night march in the rain. The 16th dawned bright and hot, and Stark proceeded to execute a plan of attack on Baume's intrenched position by dividing his force, and making a simultaneous attack at different points. The frightened Indians with Baume dashed through the encircling lines of the Americans, and fled to the shelter of the woods. After a severe contest of two hours' duration, the ammunition of the Germans failed, and they attempted to break through the line of besiegers with bayonets and sabres. In that attempt Baume was slain and his veterans were made prisoners. At that moment Lieutenant-colonel Breyman appeared with the jaded reinforcements which Burgoyne had sent, and Stark was joined by some fresh troops furnished by Warner. The battle was instantly renewed. The cannons which had been taken from the Germans were immediately turned upon Breyman's men. A fierce battle continued until sunset, when Breyman retreated, leaving all his artillery, and nearly all of his wounded, behind. The Germans lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, nearly one thousand men. Over seven hundred were prisoners. The Americans lost less than one hundred.

Benson, EGBERT, LL.D., was born in New York city, June 21, 1746; died at Jamaica, L. I., Aug. 24, 1833. He graduated at King's (now Columbia) College in 1765; took an active part in political events preliminary to the war for independence; was a member of the Committee of Safety, and, in 1777, was appointed the first attorney-general of the State of New York. He was also a member of the first State Legislature; and was one of the three commissioners appointed to superintend the embarkation of the Tories for Nova Scotia from New York in June, 1783. He was a member of the Continental Congress from 1784 to 1789, and of the new Congress from 1789 to 1793, also from 1813 to 1815. From 1789 to 1802, he was a regent of the New York University, judge of the Supreme Court of New York (1794-1801), and of the United States Circuit Court. He was the first president of the New York Historical Society. Judge Benson was the author of a *Vindication of the Captors of Major André*, and a *Memoir on Dutch Names of Places.*

Benton, THOMAS HART, statesman, was born near Hillsboro', N. C., March 14, 1782; died in Washington, April 10, 1858. Before finishing his studies at Chapel Hill University, North Carolina, he removed to Tennessee, studied law, and obtained great eminence in his profession. In the Legislature of that state he procured the enactment of a law giving to slaves the benefit of a jury trial. He had been on intimate terms with General Jackson at Nashville (1813), when a quarrel ensued, and in a personal encounter in that town with deadly weapons both parties gave and received severe wounds. He was colonel of a Tennessee regiment from December, 1812, to April, 1813, and lieutenant-colonel of regulars from 1813 to 1815. Removing to St. Louis in 1813, he established the *Missouri Inquirer* there, and practised his profession. He took an active part in favoring the admission of Missouri as a state of the Union, and was one of its first representatives in the United States Senate, which position he held thirty consecutive years, where he was ever the peculiar exponent and guardian of "The West." He was an early and untiring advocate of a railway from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean. He warmly opposed the repeal of the Missouri Compromise (which see) in 1854. His free-labor sentiments caused his defeat as a candidate for the Senate by the ultra-slavery men of his party in 1850, and in 1852 he was elected to the House of Representatives. By a combination of his old opponents with the American party (which see), he was defeated in 1854, and failed of an election for governor in 1856. He had then begun to devote himself to literary pursuits; and he completed his *Thirty Years' View* of the United States Senate in 1854. He prepared an *Abridgment of the Debates of Congress*, from 1789 to 1856, in sixteen volumes 8vo. They contain a complete political history of the country during that period, so far as the National Legislature is concerned.

THOMAS HART BENTON.

Benton's Prophecy. Not long before his death, in 1857, Senator Benton said to Senator Wilson, "So long as the people of the North shall be content to attend to commerce and manufactures, and accept the policy and rule of the disunionists, they will condescend to remain in the Union; but should the Northern people attempt to exercise their just influence in the nation, they will attempt to seize the government or disrupt the Union; but," he said, with great emphasis, "God and their own crimes will put them in the hands of the people!" Benton was a senator from a slave-labor state, and knew the plans of the disunionists, for they had long endeavored to enlist him in their schemes.

Bentonville, BATTLE OF. After the defeat of Hardee at Averasborough (which see), Sherman believed he would meet with no more serious opposition in his march to Goldsborough. He issued orders accordingly. This sense of security proved almost fatal to Sherman's army, for at that moment, Johnston, who had come down from Smithfield (N. C.), on a rapid but stealthy march, under cover of night, was hovering near in full force. He found the Nationals in a favorable position for him to attack them. General J. C. Davis's corps was encamped (March 18, 1865) on the Goldsborough road, at a point where it was crossed by one from Clinton to Smithfield. Two divisions of Williams's were encamped ten or twelve miles in the rear of this, in charge of Slocum's wagon-trains. The remainder of the forces were scattered to the south and east, in fancied security. On the morning of the 16th, Sherman left Slocum, nearest the Confederates, to join Howard's troops, which were scattered and moving on over the wretched, muddy road. On March 19, Sherman, while on his way to Howard, heard cannonading on his left wing, but did not think there was anything serious in it. It proved, however, to be a complete surprise. The Confederates, in overwhelming numbers, were found pressing Slocum. A very severe battle ensued, in a densely wooded swamp, dark and wet and dismal. In this encounter, General J. C. Davis conducted much of the battle with great skill and courage, continually cheering his men with assurances of victory. Johnston had assured *his* men that he was confident of victory, and the troops on both sides fought desperately. Davis had formed General Fearing's brigade to the left and hurled them upon the flank of the Confederates. The latter were staggered and paralyzed by this unexpected and stunning blow from a force hitherto unseen by them, for Fearing's troops were in reserve. They reeled and fell back in amazement, and the attack was not renewed on that part of the field for more than an hour afterwards. The army was saved. The young general (Fearing) was disabled by a bullet, and hundreds of his brigade, dead and wounded, strewed the field of conflict. Davis re-formed the disordered left and centre of his line in open fields half a mile in the rear of the old line. The artillery was moved to a commanding knoll, and Kilpatrick massed his cavalry on the left. Meanwhile an attack upon Morgan's division of the Fourteenth Corps had been very severe and unceasing. The National forces received six distinct assaults by the combined troops of Hardee, Hoke, and Cheatham, under the immediate command of General Johnston, without yielding an inch of ground, and all the while doing much execution on the Confederate ranks, especially with the artillery. With darkness this conflict, known as the battle of Bentonville, ended. "Soldiers of that command," writes Brevet Brigadier-general McClurg, to the writer, "will tell you they never saw anything like the fighting at Bentonville." It was one of the most notable battles of the Civil War. The main forces of the Union and of its enemies were then concentrating at one point for a desperate last struggle — Sherman and Johnston in North Carolina, and Grant and Lee in Virginia. Had Johnston won at that time the consequence probably would have been the loss of the whole of Sherman's army and the quick and fatal dispersion or capture of Grant's before Petersburg and Richmond. On the night after the battle reinforcements came to the left of the Nationals. The Confederates prepared for another onset, but when Johnston heard of the actual connection of three National armies in the vicinity of Goldsborough (which see), he perceived that all chance for success against Sherman had vanished. There had been hard fighting all day (March 20, 1865), and that night, after having his only line of retreat severely menaced by a flank movement under General Mower, Johnston withdrew and went towards Smithfield in such haste that he left his pickets, wounded in hospitals, and dead behind. The aggregate loss of the Nationals near Bentonville was 1648. The loss of the Confederates was never reported. The Nationals captured 1625 of their men, and buried 267 of their dead.

Berkeley, ADMIRAL, CIRCULAR OF (1807). Berkeley, in command of the British North American naval station, issued a circular (June 1, 1807) at Halifax, addressed to all commanders on his station, reciting that many seamen, subjects of his Britannic Majesty, and serving in vessels of the royal fleet (naming them), had deserted those vessels, enlisted on board the American frigate *Chesapeake*, and had openly paraded the streets of New York, in sight of their officers, under American colors, and protected by the magistrates of the town and the recruiting officer, who refused to give them up on demand of the commanders of the ships to which they belonged, or on that of the British consul. The commanders to whom this circular was addressed were directed, in case of meeting the *Chesapeake* at sea, without the limits of the United States, to show this order and to search the vessel for deserters. It was done, and four deserters were seized and carried to Halifax. (See *Chesapeake and Leopard.*)

Berkeley, GEORGE, Bishop of Cloyne, was born in Kilkenny County, Ireland, March 12, 1684; died at Oxford, Jan. 14, 1753. Educated at Trinity College, Dublin, he became a Fellow there, and at an early age wrote on scientific subjects. Between 1710 and 1713, his two famous works appeared, in which he denies the existence of matter, and argues that it is not without the mind, but within it, and that that which is called matter is only an impression produced by divine power on the mind by the invariable laws of nature. On a tour in France he visited the French philosopher Malebranche, who became so excited by a discussion with Berkeley on the non-existence of matter, that, being ill at the time, he died a few days afterwards. Miss Vanhomrigh (Swift's "Vanessa") bequeathed to Berkeley $20,000; and in 1728 his income was increased $5500 a year by being made Dean of Derry. Berkeley conceived a plan for establishing a college in the Bermudas for the instruction of pastors for the colonial churches and missionaries for the Indians. He resigned his offices to become rector of the projected college at a salary of $500 a year. The House of Commons authorized the appropriation of a portion of the money to be obtained from the sale of lands in St. Kitt's (St. Christopher's), which had been ceded to England for the establishment of the institution. With these assurances Berkeley went to Newport, R. I. (1729), bought a farm and built a house, intending to invest the college funds, when received, in American lands, and then to make arrangements for a supply of pupils. He had just married, and brought his bride with him. The scheme for the college failed for lack of government cooperation after the death of the king, who favored it. In 1734 he was made Bishop of Cloyne, which place he held for almost twenty years. He gave to Yale College his estate in Rhode Island, known as "White Hall," and also eight hundred and eighty volumes for its library. Wishing to be near his son, who was in college at Oxford, he removed thither in 1752, where he died. Pope ascribed to him "every virtue under the sun." It was in view of the establishment of the college that he wrote his famous lines "On the Prospect of Planting Arts and Learning in America," in which occurs this oft-quoted line,

"Westward the course of empire takes its way."

Berkeley, Sir John, was born in 1607, and was in the military service of Charles I. when the king knighted him at Berwick on the Tweed. In the civil war that afterwards ensued, he bore a conspicuous part, and he remained in exile with the royal family many years. In 1653 Berkeley was placed at the head of the Duke of York's establishment; and two years before the Restoration (1660), of that of the Prince of Wales, who, when crowned king (Charles II.), raised Berkeley to the peerage as Baron Berkeley of Stratton, in the county of Somerset. On the Restoration he became one of the privy council, and late in 1669 he was appointed Lord-lieutenant of Ireland. He was then one of the proprietors of New Jersey (see *New Jersey*), and was not above suspicion of engaging in the corrupt practice of selling offices. Samuel Pepys, who was Secretary of the Admiralty (1664), speaks of him in his *Diary* as "the most hot, fiery man in his discourse, without any cause," he ever saw. Lord Berkeley was appointed Ambassador Extraordinary to the Court of Versailles in 1675, and died Aug. 28, 1678.

Berkeley, Sir William, was born near London; died at Twickenham, England, July 13, 1677. He was brother of Lord John Berkeley, one of the early English proprietors of New Jersey. Appointed governor of Virginia, he arrived there in February, 1642. Berkeley was a fine specimen of a young English courtier. He was then thirty-two years of age, well educated at Oxford, handsome in person, polished by foreign travel, and possessing exquisite taste in dress. He was one of the most accomplished cavaliers of the day. He adopted some salutary measures in Virginia which made him popular; and at his mansion at "Green Spring," not far from Jamestown, he dispensed generous hospitality for many years. Berkeley was a stanch but not a bigoted royalist at first; and during the civil war in England he managed public affairs in Virginia with so much prudence that a greater proportion of the colonists were in sympathy with him. In religious matters there was soon perceived the spirit of persecution in the character of the governor. The Puritans were then not only tolerated in Virginia, but had been invited to settle there. The civil war drew a line of clear demarcation between churchmen and non-conformists. A large majority of the people of Virginia were attached to the Church of England; so was the governor. In England the Puritans were identified with the republicans, and Berkeley thought it to be his duty to suppress them in his colony as enemies to royalty. So he first decreed that no Puritan minister should preach except in conformity to the rules of the Church of England; and, finally, all non-conformists were banished from Virginia. In the war with the Indians in 1644, in which Opechancanough led the savages, the governor behaved with promptness and efficiency, and soon crushed the invaders. (See *Opechancanough*.) Then the colonists had peace and prosperity for some years. In 1648 they numbered twenty thousand. "The cottages were filled with children, as the ports with ships and emigrants." The people were loyal to the king; and when the latter lost his head, and royalty was abolished in England, they opened wide their arms to receive the cavaliers (many of them of the gentry, nobility, and clergy of the realm) who fled in horror from the wrath of republicans. They brought refinement in manners and intellectual culture to Virginia, and strengthened the loyalty of the colonists. When the king was slain they recognized his exiled son as their sovereign, and Berkeley proclaimed him King of Virginia. Sir William administered the government under a commission sent by Charles from his place of exile (Breda, in Flanders). Virginia was the last country belonging to England that submitted to the government of the republicans on the downfall of monarchy. This persistent attachment to the Stuarts offended the republican Parliament, and they sent Sir George Ayscue with a strong fleet, early in the spring of 1652, to reduce the Virginians to submission. The fleet bore commissioners authorized to use harsh or conciliatory measures — to make a compromise, or to declare the freedom of the slaves of the royalists, put arms in their hands, and make war. The commissioners were met with firmness by Berkeley. Astonished by the boldness of the governor and his adherents, they deemed it more prudent to compromise than to attempt coercion. The result was, the political freedom of the colonists was guaranteed. Berkeley regarding those whom the commissioners represented as usurpers, he would make no stipulations with them for himself, and he withdrew from the governorship and lived in retirement on his plantation at Green Spring until the restoration of monarchy in England in 1660, when the loyalty of the Virginians was not forgotten by the new monarch. (See *Old Dominion.*) The people elected Richard Bennett governor; and he was succeeded by two others—Edward Diggs (1655) and Samuel Matthews (1656), the latter appointed by Oliver Cromwell. At his death (1660) the people elected Berkeley, but he refused to serve excepting under a royal commission, and he went to England to congratulate Charles II. on his restoration to the throne. Charles gave Berkeley a commission, and he returned to Virginia to execute his master's will with vigor. He enforced various oppressive laws, for he was less tolerant than when he was younger and politically weaker, and, with the cavaliers around him, he hated everything that marked the character of the Puritans. These cavaliers despised the "common people" of New England, and opposed the ideas of popular education. Berkeley wrote to his government in 1665, "I thank God there are no free schools nor printing in Virginia, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years; for learning has brought heresy and disobedience and sects into the world, and printing hath divulged them, and libels against the best government; God keep us from both!" Oppression of the people finally produced civil war in 1676, the events of which soured Berkeley, who had then grown old (see *Bacon's Rebellion*); and after it was over, and he was firmly seated in power, he treated the principal abettors of the insurrection with harshness and cruelty. His king had proclaimed Bacon (the leader of the insurrection) a traitor, and sent an armament under Sir John Berry to assist in crushing the rebellion. This was the first time royal troops were sent to America to suppress the aspirations of the people for freedom. The act was repeated one hundred years afterwards without success. (See *Independence, War for.*) Feeling strong, Berkeley pursued the adherents of Bacon with malignant severity until twenty-two of them were hanged. The first martyr was Thomas Hanford, a gallant young native of Virginia. Standing before the governor, he boldly avowed his republicanism; and when sentenced to be hanged, he said, "I ask no favor but that I may be shot like a soldier, and not hanged like a dog." At the gallows he said, "Take notice that I die a loyal subject and a lover of my country." Edmund Cheeseman, when arraigned before the governor, was asked why he engaged in the wicked rebellion, and before he could answer his young wife stepped forward and said, "My provocations made my husband join in the cause for which Bacon contended; but for me, he had never done what he has done. Since what is done," she said, as she knelt before the governor, with her bowed head covered with her hands, "was done by my means, I am most guilty; let me bear the punishment; let me be hanged; let my husband be pardoned." The governor cried out angrily, "Away with you!" and brutally added a coarse insinuation against her chastity. The poor young wife swooned, and her husband was led to the gallows. When the brave Drummond was brought before the governor, Berkeley, with wicked satire, made a low bow and said, "You are very welcome; I am more glad to see you than any man in Virginia; you shall be hanged in half an hour." Drummond replied, with dignity, "I expect no mercy from you. I have followed the lead of my conscience, and done what I might to free my country from oppression." He was condemned at one o'clock and hanged at four; and his brave wife, Sarah, was denounced as a "traitor" and banished, with her children, to the wilderness, there to subsist on the bounty of friends. (See *Bacon's Rebellion.*) When these things were brought to the notice of the profligate monarch, even *he* was disgusted with Berkeley's cruelties, and said, "The old fool has taken more lives in that naked country than I have taken for the murder of my father;" and Berkeley was ordered to desist. But he continued to fine and imprison the followers of Bacon until he was recalled in the spring of 1677, and went to England with the returning fleet of Sir John Berry. The colonists fired great guns and lighted bonfires in token of their joy at his departure. In England his cruelties were severely censured, and he died of grief and mortified pride before he had a chance to stand before his king.

Berlin Decree. (See *Orders and Decrees.*)

Bermuda Hundred, OPERATIONS NEAR (1864). General Butler had intrenched a greater portion of the Army of the James at Bermuda Hundred, at the junction of the James and Appomattox rivers, early in May, 1864, to co-operate with the Army of the Potomac, approaching from the north. His chief care at first was to prevent reinforcements being sent to Lee from Petersburg and the South. For this purpose Butler proceeded to destroy the railway between Petersburg and Richmond, and so to cut off direct communication between the Confederate capital and the South. When it was known that General Gillmore had withdrawn his troops from before Charleston to join Butler, Beauregard was ordered to hasten northward to confront the Army of the James. He had arrived at Petersburg, and was hourly reinforced. Some of these troops he massed in front of Butler, under General D. H. Hill; and finally, on the morning of May 16, under cover of a dense fog, they attempted to turn Butler's right flank. A sharp conflict ensued between about four thousand Nationals and three thousand Confederates, which resulted in the retirement of Butler's forces within their intrenchments. For several days afterwards there was much skirmishing in front of Butler's lines, when he received orders to send nearly two thirds of his effective force to the north side of the James to assist the Army of the Potomac, then contending with Lee's Army of Northern Virginia. Butler complied with the requisition, which deprived him of all power to make any further offensive movements. "The necessities of the Army of the Potomac," he said, "have bottled me up at Bermuda Hundred." This expression was afterwards used to his disadvantage.

Bermudas, FIRST ENGLISH IN THE. Henry May, an English mariner, returning from a voyage to the West Indies in a French ship, was wrecked (Dec. 17, 1593) on one of the islands. He and his companions in distress remained there five months, when they rigged a small vessel of eighteen tons from the material of the ship, put in thirteen live turtles for provisions, sailed to Newfoundland, and thence returned to England. These islands were named in honor of Juan Bermudez, a Spaniard who was wrecked there in 1522. May was the first Englishman who set foot upon them. (See *Somers's Isles.*)

Bernard, FRANCIS, was born in Lincoln County, England, in 1714; died in London, June 16, 1769. He was educated at Oxford, where he graduated in 1736. The law was his chosen profession. In 1758 he was appointed governor of New Jersey; and in 1760 he was transferred to the chief magistracy of Massachusetts, where he was a most obedient servant of the crown and ministry in the support of measures obnoxious to the colonists. After a stormy administration of nearly nine years Bernard was recalled, when he was created a baronet, chiefly because of his recommendation to transfer the right of selecting the governor's council from the Colonial Legislature to the crown. Bernard was a friend of learning, and gave a part of his library to Harvard College. He had become so thoroughly unpopular that when he left Boston the bells were rung, cannon were fired, and "Liberty-tree" was hung with flags, in token of the joy of the people.

Berry, HIRAM GEORGE, was born at Thomaston, Me., Aug. 27, 1824; killed in battle at Chancellorsville, Va., May 3, 1863. He was first a carpenter, then a navigator, and finally became a state legislator and mayor of Rockland, Me. He was colonel of Maine volunteers in the battle of Bull's Run; became brigadier-general in May, 1862; and was active in the Army of the Potomac throughout the campaign on the Peninsula in 1862 and until the battle of Chancellorsville in 1863, where he perished. His brigade was especially distinguished in the battle of Fredericksburg, in December, 1862. In March, 1863, he was made Major-general of Volunteers, and commanded a division in the Third Corps at Chancellorsville when he fell. (See *Chancellorsville.*)

Beyond the Penobscot. (See *Castine, Capture of.*) In the country beyond the Penobscot, which the British held in 1814, the inhabitants, forty thousand strong, rather enjoyed the change; for, while few of their privileges were abridged, they were relieved from drafts for military service, alarms, and taxes. They had access to good markets, and enjoyed freedom of trade. The national government was anxious for the reconquest of that territory, which had one hundred miles of sea-coast full of harbors and inlets easily accessible to British ships, and where naval stores abounded. It offered, if Massachusetts would undertake to furnish, feed, and pay a corps of five thousand men, to undertake the reconquest. But Governor Strong declined the offer; for he saw in the proposed movement, without the aid of a strong naval force, another evidence of the military folly of the administration. He feared the now comfortable inhabitants would, in case of such an attempt, meet the fiery fate of the Niagara frontiersmen. (See *Niagara Frontier, Desolation of.*)

Bible, FIRST EDITIONS OF THE, PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES. A German edition of the Bible, in quarto, was printed at Germantown, near Philadelphia, in 1743, by Christopher Sauer. In 1782 Robert Aitkin, printer and bookseller in Philadelphia, published the first American edition of the Bible in English, also in quarto form; and in 1791 Isaiah Thomas printed the Bible in English, in folio form, at Worcester, Mass. This was the first in that form issued from the press in the United States. The same year Isaac Collins printed the English version, in quarto form, at Trenton, N. J.

Bible Society, THE AMERICAN. The first Bible Society in the United States was formed in Philadelphia in 1802. When, in 1816, the American Bible Society was organized, there were between fifty and sixty societies in the Union. Delegates from these met in New York in May, 1816, and founded the "American Bible Society." Elias Boudinot (which see) was chosen president, and thirty-six managers were appointed, all of whom were laymen of seven different denominations. The avowed object of the society was to "encourage a wider circulation of the Holy Scriptures without note or comment." In the first year of its existence it issued 6410 copies of the Scriptures. It has since issued, in one year, 1,900,000 copies. It has printed the Bible in twenty-seven new translations, and printed and published the entire Scriptures in raised letters for the use of the blind. In 1836 the Baptists seceded from the American Bible Society, and founded the "American and Foreign Bible Society," conducted entirely by that denomination. In 1870 it had published the Scriptures in forty different languages and circulated over 4,000,000 copies in foreign lands. A secession from this Baptist Bible Society occurred in 1850, when the "American Bible Union" was formed.

Biddle, CLEMENT, was born in Philadelphia, May 10, 1740; died there July 14, 1814. He was descended from one of the early Quaker settlers in Western New Jersey, and when the war for independence broke out he assisted in raising a company of soldiers in Philadelphia. He was deputy quartermaster-general of Pennsylvania militia in 1776, and commissary of forage under General Greene. On the organization of the national government, he was appointed United States marshal for Pennsylvania.

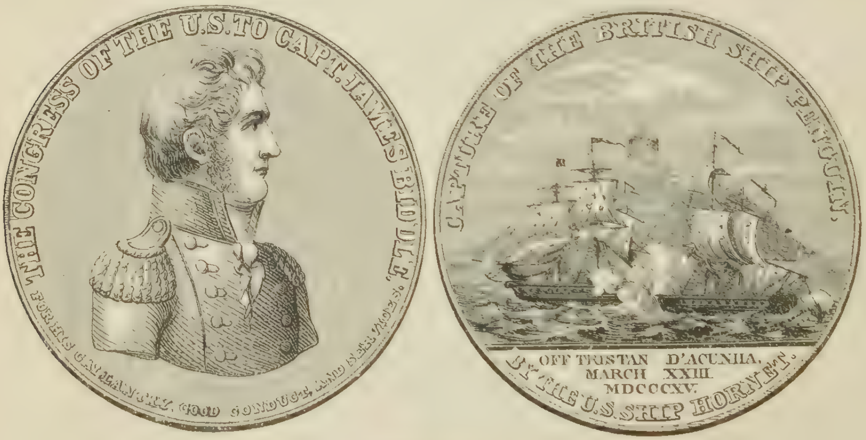
Biddle, JAMES, naval commander, was born in Philadelphia, Feb. 29, 1783; died there Oct. 1, 1848. He was educated at the University of Pennsylvania (which see), and entered the navy, as midshipman, Feb. 12, 1800. He was wrecked in the frigate *Philadelphia* (which see), off Tripoli, in October, 1803, and was a prisoner nineteen months. As first lieutenant of the *Wasp*, he led the boarders in the action with the *Frolic* (see *Wasp and Frolic*), Oct. 18, 1812. Captured by the *Poictiers*, he was exchanged in March, 1813; and was made master commander in charge of a flotilla of gunboats in the Delaware River soon afterwards. In command of the *Hornet* he captured the *Penguin* (see *Hornet and Penguin*), March 23, 1813. For this victory Congress voted him a gold medal, and other honors were bestowed upon him. Made captain in February, 1815, he held important commands in different parts of the world. While in command of a squadron in the Mediterranean (1830–32), he was given a commission to negotiate a commercial treaty with the Turkish government. In 1845 he performed diplomatic service in China, and visited Japan.

JAMES BIDDLE.

Biddle, Nicholas, naval commander, was born in Philadelphia, Sept. 10, 1750; killed March 7, 1778. He made a voyage to Quebec before he was fourteen years of age. In a voyage to the West Indies he was cast away on an uninhabited island, where he remained two months. He entered the British navy in 1770. While a midshipman, he absconded, and became a sailor before the mast in *The Carcass*, in the exploring expedition of Captain Phipps in which Horatio Nelson served. Returning to Philadelphia after the commencement of the Revolution, he was appointed to the command of the brig *Andrea Doria*, under Commodore Hopkins. In 1776 he captured two transports from Scotland, with four hundred Highland troops bound for America. In February, 1777, he sailed from Philadelphia in the frigate *Randolph*, and soon carried four valuable prizes into Charleston. Then he cruised in the West India waters with a small squadron; and in an action with a British 64-gun ship, in March, 1778, Biddle was wounded. A few minutes afterwards the *Randolph* was blown up; and of the entire crew, consisting of three hundred and fifteen men, only four escaped to tell the dreadful tale.

NICHOLAS BIDDLE.

Bienville, Jean Baptist Le Moyne, brother


THE CONGRESS OF THE U.S. TO CAPT. JAMES BIDDLE,
FOR HIS GALLANTRY, GOOD CONDUCT, AND SERVICES.
CAPTURE OF THE BRITISH SHIP PENGUIN,
BY THE U.S. SHIP HORNET.
OFF TRISTAN D'ACUNHA,
MARCH XXIII.
MDCCCXV.

BIDDLE'S MEDAL.

of Le Moyne Iberville, who founded a French settlement at Biloxi, near the mouth of the Mississippi, in 1698. (See *Louisiana.*) He was born in Montreal, Feb. 23, 1680; died in France in 1768. For several years he was in the French naval service with Iberville, and accompanied him, with his brother Sauville, to Louisiana. In 1699 Bienville explored the country around Biloxi. Sauville was appointed governor of Louisiana in 1699, and the next year Bienville constructed a fort fifty-four miles above the mouth of the river. Sauville died in 1701, when Bienville took charge of the colony, transferring the seat of government to Mobile. In 1704 he was joined by his brother Chateaugay, who brought seventeen settlers from France. Soon afterwards a ship brought twenty young women as wives for settlers at Mobile. Iberville soon afterwards died, and Bienville, charged with misconduct, was dismissed from office in 1707. His successor dying on his way from France, Bienville retained the office. Having tried unsuccessfully to cultivate the land by Indian labor, Bienville proposed to the government to exchange Indians for negroes in the West Indies, at the rate of three Indians for one negro. Bienville remained at the head of the colony until 1713, when Codillac arrived, as governor, with a commission for the former as lieutenant-governor. Quarrels between them ensued. Codillac was superseded in 1717 by Epinay, and Bienville received the decoration of the Cross of St. Louis. In 1718 he founded the city of New Orleans; and war breaking out between France and Spain, he seized Pensacola and put his brother, Chateaugay, in command there. He was summoned to France in 1724 to answer charges, where he remained until 1733, when he was sent back to Louisiana as governor, with the rank of lieutenant-general. Having made unsuccessful expeditions against the Chickasaws (which see), he was superseded in 1743, and returned to France.

Big Bethel, BATTLE AT. When General Butler arrived at his headquarters at Fortress Monroe (May, 1861), he first established Camp Hamilton, near the fort, as a rendezvous for troops gathering there. There were first gathered Phelps's Vermont regiment, and another from Troy, N. Y.; and soon afterwards they were joined by a well-disciplined regiment of Zouaves, under Colonel Abraham Durýee, of New York city. Durýee was assigned to the command of the camp as acting brigadier-general. Butler conceived a plan of taking possession of the country between Suffolk and Petersburg and Norfolk, and so threaten the Weldon Railroad, the great highway between Virginia and the Carolinas. But, lacking troops, he contented himself with taking possession of and fortifying the important strategic point of Newport-Newce. He sent (May 27, 1861) Colonel Phelps thither in a steamer with a detachment to fortify that promontory. He was accompanied by Lieutenant John Trout Greble, an accomplished young graduate of West Point, whom he appointed master of ordnance, to superintend the construction of fortifications there which commanded the ship-channel of the James River and the mouth of the Nansemond. The forced inaction of the National troops at Fortress Monroe, and the threatening aspect of affairs at Newport-Newce, made the armed insurgents under Colonel J. B. Magruder bold, active, and vigilant. Their principal rendezvous was at Yorktown (see *Surrender of Cornwallis*), on the York River, which they were fortifying. They pushed down the Peninsula to impress slaves into their service, and to force Union men into their ranks. At Big and Little Bethel (two churches on the road between Yorktown and Hampton) they made fortified outposts. It was evident that Magruder was preparing to seize Newport-Newce and Hampton, and confine Butler to Fortress Monroe. The latter determined on a countervailing movement by an attack on these outposts. General E. W. Pearce, of Massachusetts, was placed in command of an expedition for that purpose, composed of Durýee's Zouaves and the Troy troops at Camp Hamilton, Vermont and Massachusetts troops, some German New York troops, under Colonel Bendix, and two 6-pounders (field-pieces), under Lieutenant Greble, from Newport-Newce. The latter had under him eleven regular artillerymen. The troops from the two points of departure were to be joined, in the night, near Little Bethel. The soldiers wore on their left arms a white rag or handkerchief, so that they might recognize each other in the dark. Their watchword was "Boston." Lieutenant-colonel Washburne led the column from Newport-Newce, followed by Bendix with his Germans. Durýee pushed forward, followed by Colonel Townsend with the Troy troops. The latter and Bendix approached each other in the gloom, near Little Bethel, the appointed place of junction. Bendix and his men, ignorant of the order to wear a white badge, were without it, and the two columns mistook each other for enemies. The Germans opened fire on Townsend's column. After a short skirmish, in which two men were killed and several wounded, the mistake was discovered. Durýee and Washburne, hearing the firing, hastened their march, and soon joined the confused regiments. The insurgents had been warned of the approaching troops by the firing, and Brigadier-general Pearce, in chief command, sent back for reinforcements, as a surprise was then out of the question. The insurgents at Little Bethel fell back to Big Bethel, four or five miles distant, and all of them at the latter place were on the alert. There were about eighteen hundred insurgents behind works, with several pieces of cannon in battery. The Nationals, about two thousand five hundred strong, attacked them between nine and ten o'clock on the morning of June 10, 1861. Troops under Captains Kilpatrick, Bartlett, and Winslow (all of which were under Lieutenant-colonel G. K. Warren, of the Zouaves) were thrown out on each side of the road, while Lieutenant Greble, with his two little field-pieces, kept the road. The troops on each side of the road were finally driven to the shelter of the woods by a storm of shot and shell; but Greble continued advancing, and poured a rapid and effective storm of grape and canister shot from his battery. He held his position while the rest of the army was preparing for a general assault. At about noon a charge was sounded, with instructions to dash across a morass, flank the works of the insurgents, and drive out the occupants at the point of the bayonet. The Nationals were nearly successful, when a portion of them were driven back by a murderous fire from the insurgents. This and other adverse circumstances caused Pearce to order a retreat. All of Greble's men had been disabled but five, and he could only work one gun. He was just limbering them up, when a shot from the insurgents struck a glancing blow on his head, and he fell dead. Major Theodore Winthrop, one of General Butler's aids, was also instantly killed by a bullet from a North Carolina drummer-boy. Young Greble's body was taken to Philadelphia, where it lay in state in Independence Hall, and was buried by a public funeral under the direction of the councils of the corporation. Lieutenant Greble was the first officer of the regular army of the United States who fell in the Civil War. The result of the expedition to Big Bethel was national exasperation and mortification. The Unionists lost sixteen killed, thirty-four wounded, and five missing. The loss of the insurgents was trifling.

Big Black River, BATTLE AT (1864). From Champion Hills (which see) the Confederates were pursued, and bivouacked that night on the hill overlooking Edwards's Station and the fertile plain between it and the Big Black River. The pursuit was renewed in the morning (May 17, 1863), but the Confederates were soon found well posted on both sides of the river, near the railway bridge, and were strongly fortified. Behind their defences on the eastern side of the river were several brigades; and above the bridge Pemberton had constructed a passage-way for troops, composed of the hulks of steamboats. General Carr's division led the Nationals, and first engaged in battle; and very soon there was a fierce struggle between the two armies in the thick forest for about three hours, when General Lawler, commanding Carr's extreme right, gave an order for his brigade, composed of Iowa and Wisconsin troops, to charge. They sprang forward with cheers, and drove the Confederates to their intrenchments, but suffered fearfully from an enfilading fire from a curtain of the insurgents' breastworks, which prostrated one hundred and fifty of their number. The assailants waded a shallow bayou, and charged on the works before the Confederates had time to reload. Meanwhile, many of those within fled across the river, and communicated their own panic to the troops there. They expected the Nationals would immediately cross the stream; so they burned both bridges—cutting off the retreat of their comrades, who were yet fighting. They fled pell-mell towards the defences around Vicksburg. The assailed garrison, about fifteen hundred strong, was captured, with seventeen guns, several thousand small-arms, and a large quantity of stores. They lost, in killed and wounded, two hundred and sixty-two men. General Osterhaus of the Nationals was wounded, and the command of his troops devolved upon Brigadier-general A. L. Lee. Sharpshooters in the works on the high banks across the river covered the retreat of the Confederates, and for hours kept the Nationals from constructing floating bridges. Grant's pontoon train was with Sherman, who had been making his way from Jackson to another point (above) on the Big Black River. The Confederates at the bridge fled to Vicksburg. A floating bridge was constructed, and at the same time (May 18, 1863) the three corps crossed the river, and began the siege of Vicksburg (which see).

THE PASSAGE OF THE BIG BLACK RIVER.

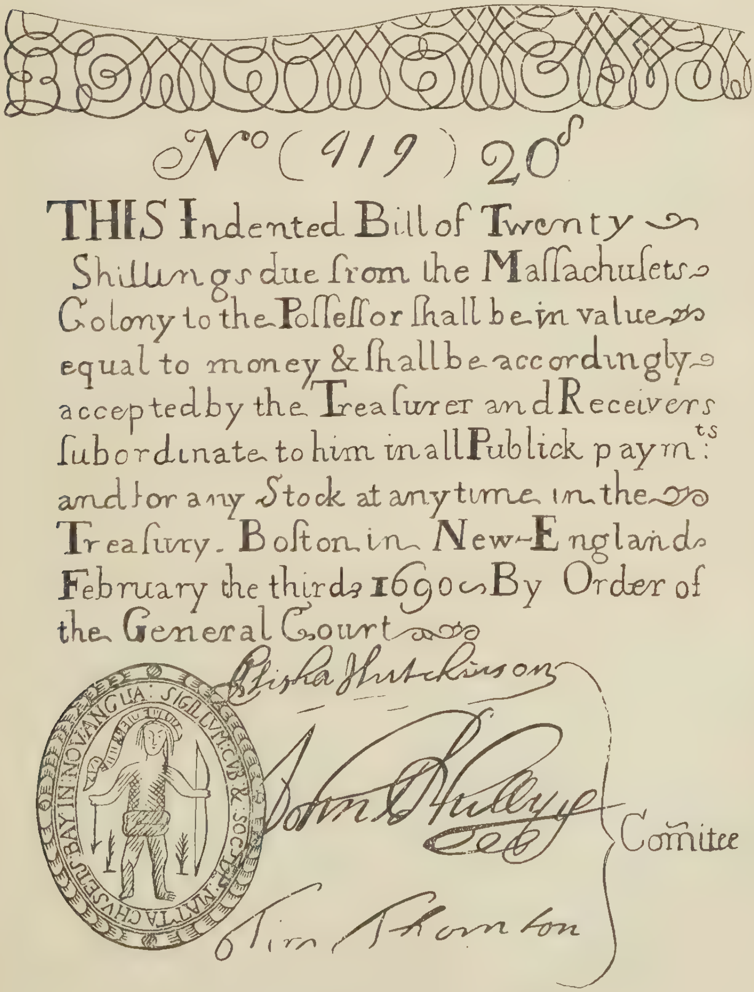
Big Blue Lick, BATTLE AT (1782). Parties of Indians and Tories, from north of the Ohio, continued to harass the settlements in Kentucky. A large body of these, headed by Simon Girty, a cruel white miscreant, entered these settlements in August, 1782. They were pursued by about one hundred and eighty men under Colonels Todd, Trigg, and Boone, who rashly attacked them (Aug. 19) at the Big Blue Lick, where the road from Maysville to Lexington crosses the Licking River in Nicholas County. One of the most sanguinary battles ever fought in Kentucky then and there occurred. The Kentuckians lost sixty-seven men, killed, wounded, and prisoners; and, after a severe struggle, the rest escaped. The slaughter in the river was great, the ford being crowded with white people and Indians, all fighting in horrid confusion. The fugitives were keenly pursued for twenty miles. This was the last incursion south of the Ohio by any large body of barbarians.

Bigelow, ERASTUS BRIGHAM, inventor, was born at West Boyleston, Mass., April, 1814. His father was a cotton manufacturer; and this son, before he was eighteen years of age, had invented a hand-loom for weaving suspender webbing. In 1838 he obtained a patent for an automatic loom for weaving knotted counterpanes, but soon made great improvements. In 1839 he entered into a contract with a Lowell manufacturing company to construct a power-loom for weaving two-ply ingrain carpets (that were before woven exclusively by the hand-loom, which could produce only eight yards a day). The new power-loom first produced ten or twelve yards a day. Its capacity has since been doubled by improvements. Mr. Bigelow died Dec. 6, 1879.

Bigelow, TIMOTHY, was born at Worcester, Mass., Aug. 12, 1739; died there, March 31, 1790. He was a blacksmith and a zealous patriot; member of the Provincial Congress; led minute-men to Cambridge; and accompanied Arnold in his notable expedition to Quebec in 1775, where he was made a prisoner. As colonel, he assisted in the capture of Burgoyne, and was active in some of the stirring scenes of the war afterwards. Colonel Bigelow was in charge of the Springfield Arsenal after the war, and was one of the original grantees of Montpelier, Vt.

Bill of Rights. (See *Colonial Policy of William III.*)

Bills of Credit, FIRST, IN AMERICA. The first bills of credit, or paper-money, issued in the English American colonies were put forth by Massachusetts, in 1690, to pay the troops who went on an expedition against Quebec, under Sir William Phipps. The expedition was unsuccessful. The men had suffered from sickness; had not gained expected plunder; and when they arrived at Boston (Dec., 1690), disgusted and out of temper, the treasury of the colony had become exhausted, and there was no money to pay them. They threatened a riot. The General Court resolved to issue bills of credit, or treasury notes, varying from five shillings to five pounds, receivable in payment of taxes, and redeemable out of any money in the treasury. The total amount of this paper currency issued was a little more than $133,000; but long before that limit was reached the bills depreciated one half. The General Court revived their credit in 1691, by making them a legal tender in all payments. The first issue was in February, 1691, though



No (919) 20s

THIS Indented Bill of Twenty Shillings due from the Maſſachuſets Colony to the Poſſeſſor ſhall be in value equal to money & ſhall be accordingly accepted by the Treaſurer and Receivers ſubordinate to him in all Publick paymts and for any Stock at any time in the Treaſury. Boſton in New-England February the third 1690 By Order of the General Court

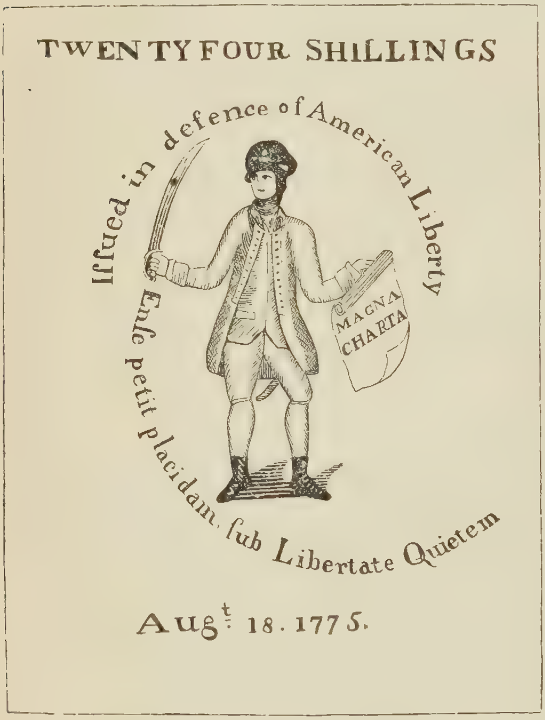
Elisha Hutchinson
John Phillips
Tim Thornton
Comitee

FAC-SIMILE OF THE FIRST AMERICAN PAPER MONEY.

the bills were dated 1690—the year, according to the calendar then in use, not beginning until March. (See *Old and New Style.*)

Bills of Credit, First, in Virginia. In 1755, the Virginia Assembly voted $100,000 towards the support of the colonial service in the impending French and Indian War. In anticipation of the taxes imposed to meet this amount, the Assembly authorized the issue of treasury notes — the first paper-money put forth in Virginia.

Bills of Credit, in Massachusetts. When an expedition for the conquest of Canada was determined on in 1711, the credit of the English treasury, exhausted by costly wars, was so low at Boston that nobody would purchase bills upon it without an endorsement, which Massachusetts furnished in the form of bills of credit to the amount of about $200,000, advanced to the merchants who supplied the fleet with provisions. The province issued paper-money to the amount of about $50,000 to meet its share of the expenses of the proposed expedition. After the affair at Lexington and Concord, the patriots of Massachusetts made vigorous preparations for war. On May 5, 1775, the Provincial Congress formally renounced allegiance to the British power, and prepared for the payment of an army to resist all encroachments upon their liberties. They also authorized (in August) the issue of bills of credit, or paper-money, in the form of treasury notes, to the amount of $375,000, making them a legal tender, the back of which is shown in the engraving. The literal translation of the words is, "He seeks by the sword calm repose under the auspices of freedom."


TWENTY FOUR SHILLINGS
Issued in defence of American Liberty
MAGNA CHARTA
Ense petit placidam sub Libertate Quietem
Augt 18. 1775.

REVERSE OF A MASSACHUSETTS TREASURY NOTE.

Bills of Credit, Indian. During the war in 1763 (see *Pontiac's War*), Pontiac established a commissary department with a careful head; and during the siege of Detroit (1763–64) he issued promissory notes, or bills of credit, to purchase food for his warriors. These bills were written upon birch bark, and signed with his totem—the figure of an otter; and so highly was that chief esteemed by the French inhabitants for his integrity that these bills were received by them without hesitation. Unlike our Continental bills of credit, these Indian notes were all redeemed.

Bird's Point, opposite Cairo (which see), was early fortified by the National troops. It was on the west side of the Mississippi River, a few feet higher than Cairo, so that a battery upon it would completely command the latter-named place. The Confederates were anxious to secure this point, and to that end General Pillow, who was collecting Confederate troops in western Tennessee, worked with great energy. When Governor Jackson, of Missouri, raised the standard of revolt at Jefferson City, with Sterling Price as military commander, General Lyon, in command of the department, moved more vigorously in the work already begun in the fortification of Bird's Point. His attention had been called to the importance of the spot by Captain Benham of the engineers, who constructed the works. They were made so strong that they might defy any force the insurgents might bring against them. With these opposite points so fortified, the Nationals controlled a great portion of the navigation of the Mississippi River.

Birge, Henry W., was born at Norwich, Conn., and was one of Governor Buckingham's aids when the Civil War began. He entered the service in June, 1861, as major, and early in 1862 was made colonel. For services on the Lower Mississippi he was made brigadier-general, Sept. 19, 1863. He was in the Red River campaign and in Sheridan's campaign in the Shenandoah Valley in 1864. In June, 1865, he was appointed to command the military district of Savannah.

Birney, James G., an earnest advocate of anti-slavery views, was born at Danville, Ky., Feb. 4, 1792; died at Englewood, N. J., Nov. 24, 1857. He graduated at the College of New Jersey (Princeton) in 1812; studied law with A. J. Dallas, of Philadelphia; and began its practice in Kentucky in 1814. He was a member of the State Legislature at the age of twenty-two; became a planter in Alabama; served in the Alabama Legislature; and practised law in Huntsville. Removing to Kentucky in 1834, he emancipated his slaves, and proposed to print there an anti-slavery paper. He could not find a printer to undertake it; so he went to Ohio and established one, at great personal risk, the opposition to "abolitionists" then being very vehement everywhere. About 1836 he was in New York as Secretary of the American Anti-Slavery Society, and tried to build up a political party upon that sole issue. He went to England in 1840, and took part in the anti-slavery movements there. In 1844 he was the candidate of the "Liberty Party" (which see) for the Presidency of the Republic, the result of which was not only his own defeat, but that of Henry Clay, the candidate of the Whig party for the same office. Mr. Birney was the father of the meritorious general David Bell Birney, who did excellent service for the Union in the Civil War, and died in Philadelphia, Oct. 8, 1864.

Black Cockade, The. Ever since Minister Adet's proclamation the Democrats, or friends of the French, had worn the tri-colored cockade. (See *Cockade Proclamation.*) When, in the spring of 1798, President Adams took strong ground against France, a decided war spirit was aroused throughout the country; addresses poured in on the President; and everywhere were seen evidences of a reflex of opinion which sustained the President. In Philadelphia, an "Address to the President," signed by five thousand citizens, was presented to Adams; and this was followed by an address by the young men of the city, who went in a body to deliver it, many of them wearing black cockades—the same which were worn in the American army during the Revolution. This was done in the way of defiance to the tri-colored cockades. From this circumstance was derived the term, so familiar to politicians three fourths of a century ago, of "Black Cockade Federalists." It became, in time, a term of reproach, and the wearers were exposed to personal attacks.

Black Hawk (Ma-ka-tae-mish-kia-kiah) was born at Kaskaskia, Ill., in 1767. He was a Potawatomie by birth, but became a noted chief of the Sacs and Foxes. He was accounted a brave when he was fifteen years of age, and soon afterwards led expeditions of war-parties against the Osage Indians in Missouri and the Cherokees in Georgia. He became head chief of the Sacs when he was twenty-one years old (1788). Inflamed by Tecumtha and presents from the British agents, he joined the British in the war of 1812–15, with the commission of brigadier-general, leading about five hundred warriors. He again reappears in history in hostilities against the white people on the northwestern frontier settlements in 1832. (See *Black Hawk War.*) He opposed the removal of the Sacs and Foxes to lands west of the Mississippi after they had ceded those east of that stream; and this was the origin of the war. He did not long survive that conflict. He died at his camp on the River Des Moines, Oct. 3, 1838.

Black Hawk War, The. In 1832 eight of a party of Chippewas, on a visit to Fort Snelling, on the west bank of the Upper Mississippi, were killed or wounded by a party of Sioux. Four of the latter were afterwards captured by the commander of the garrison at Fort Snelling and delivered up to the Chippewas, who immediately shot them. The chief of the Sioux (Red Bird) resolved to be revenged, and he and some companions killed several white people. General Atkinson, in command in the northwest, finally captured Red Bird and a party of Winnebagoes. Red Bird died in prison soon afterwards, when Black Hawk, a fiery chief of the Sacs and Foxes and an ally of the Sioux, having been released from confinement, at once began hostilities against the white people on the frontier. General Gaines marched to the village of the Sacs, when they humbly sued for peace. At the same time Black Hawk and a band of followers were murdering the Menomonees, who were friendly to the white inhabitants. Black Hawk crossed the Mississippi, and General Atkinson took the field against him; but in July the cholera broke out among the troops, and whole companies were almost destroyed. In one instance only nine survived out of a corps of 208. Atkinson was reinforced, and, with a command greatly superior to that of Black Hawk, pressed him so closely that the latter sent the women and children of his band down the Mississippi in canoes and prepared for a final struggle. A severe fight occurred (Aug. 1, 1832) on Bad Axe River, in which twenty-three Indians were killed without loss to the troops. The contest was between four hundred Indians and some United States troops on board the steamboat *Warrior,* which had been sent up the river. After the fight the *Warrior* returned to Prairie du Chien. The contest was renewed the next morning between Black Hawk and troops led by General Atkinson, when the Indians were defeated and dispersed, with a considerable loss in killed and wounded, and thirty-six of their women and children made prisoners. There were eight of the troops killed and seventy-seven wounded. Black Hawk was pursued over the Wisconsin River, and at a strong position the fugitive chief made a stand with about three hundred men. After a severe battle for three hours, he fled, and barely escaped, with the loss of one hundred and fifty of his bravest warriors and his second in command. The chief himself was finally captured by a party of friendly Winnebagoes and given up to General Steele at Prairie du Chien. Treaties were then made with the hostile tribes by which the United States acquired valuable lands on favorable terms. Black Hawk, his two sons, and six principal chiefs were retained as hostages. The chief and his sons were taken to Washington to visit the President; and then they were shown some of the principal cities of the North and East to impress them with the greatness of the American people. The hostages, after confinement in Fortress Monroe, were liberated at Fort Armstrong, Rock Island, Ill., in August, 1833. Black Hawk being deposed, Keokuk was made chief of the Sacs and Foxes, when the former settled on the banks of the Mississippi, where he died in 1838.

Black Republican was the name applied in derision to the Republican party formed in 1856, because of their friendship for the black bondsmen in the Southern States and their efforts for the restriction of the slave system of labor. For several years it was used as a term of reproach.

Black Rock, SURPRISE OF (1813). On the 11th of July, 1813, Lieutenant-colonel Cecil Bisshopp, with a motley party of regulars, Canadians, and Indians, about four hundred in number, crossed the Niagara River and landed a little below Black Rock (which was a naval station, two miles below Buffalo), just before daylight. His object was to surprise and capture the garrison, and especially the large quantity of stores collected there by the Americans; also the ship-yard. These were defended by only about two hundred militia and a dozen men in a block-house. There were some infantry and dragoon recruits from the South on their way to Fort George, besides a little more than one hundred Indians under the young Cornplanter, who had been educated at Philadelphia, and had gone back to his blanket and feather head-dress. The former were under the command of General Peter B. Porter, then at his home near Black Rock. Bisshopp surprised the camp at Black Rock, when the militia fled to Buffalo, leaving their artillery behind. Porter narrowly escaped capture in his own house. He hastened towards Buffalo, rallied a part of the militia, and, with fifty volunteer citizens, proceeded to attack the invaders. At the same time forty Indians rose from an ambush in a ravine and rushed upon the invaders with the appalling war-whoop. The frightened British, after a very brief contest, fled in confusion to their boats, and, with their commander, hastily departed for the Canada shore, followed by volleys from American muskets. In the flight Bisshopp was mortally wounded. He was a gallant young man, only thirty years of age. He was taken to his quarters at Lundy's Lane, where he died five days after he received his wound.

BISSHOPP'S MONUMENT.

Over his remains, in a small cemetery on the south side of Lundy's Lane, more than thirty years afterwards, the sister of the young soldier erected a handsome monument.

Black Warrior, AFFAIR OF THE. There had been, for some time, causes for irritation between the Spanish authorities of Cuba and the United States, on account of invasions of the territory of the former from that of the latter. Under cover of a shallow pretence, the steamship *Black Warrior*, belonging to citizens of the United States, was seized (Feb. 28, 1854) at Havana, by order of the Spanish authorities in Cuba, and the vessel and cargo were declared confiscated. This flagrant outrage aroused a bitter feeling against those authorities; and a motion was made in the House of Representatives to suspend the neutrality laws and compel those officials to act more justly. A better measure was adopted. A special messenger was sent to Madrid, with instructions to the American minister there, Mr. Soulé, to demand from the Spanish government immediate redress in the form of indemnification to the owners of the vessel in the amount of $300,000. The Spanish government justified the outrage, and this justification, operating with other causes for irritation, led to the famous consultation of American ministers in Europe known as the "Ostend Conference." (See *Ostend Manifesto*.) Meanwhile the perpetrators of the outrage became alarmed, and the Captain-general of Cuba, with pretended generosity, offered to give up the vessel and cargo on the payment, by the owners, of a fine of $6000. They complied, but under protest. The governments of the United States and Spain finally made an amicable settlement.

Blackburn's Ford, BATTLE AT (1861). Preliminary to the severe conflict at Bull's Run (July 21, 1861) was a sharp fight on the same stream, at Blackburn's Ford. This ford was guarded by a Confederate force under General James Longstreet. Some National troops under General D. Tyler—a part of McDowell's advancing army (see *Bull's Run*)—went out towards this ford on a reconnoissance on the 18th. The troops consisted of Richardson's brigade, a squadron of cavalry, and Ayres's battery. Sherman's brigade was held in reserve. He found the Confederates there in strong force, partly concealed by woods. Hoping to draw their fire and discover their exact position, a 20-pound cannon of Ayres's battery fired a shot at random among them. A battery in view only responded with grape-shot. Richardson sent forward the Second Michigan regiment as skirmishers, who were soon engaged in a hot contest on low ground. The Third Michigan, First Massachusetts, and Twelfth New York pushed forward, and were soon fighting severely. Cavalry and two howitzers were fiercely assailed by musketry and a concealed battery, when the Nationals, greatly outnumbered, recoiled and withdrew behind Ayres's battery on a hill. Just then Sherman came up with his brigade, when Ayres's battery again opened fire, and for an hour an artillery duel was kept up, the Confederates responding, gun for gun. Satisfied that he could not flank the Confederates, McDowell ordered the whole body to fall back to Centreville. The Confederates called this the "Battle of Bull's Run," and that which the Nationals designate by that name they called the "Battle of Manassas." The loss of the combatants at Blackburn's Ford was nearly equal—that of the Nationals seventy-three, and of the Confederates seventy.

Blackstock's, BATTLE AT (1780). General Sumter had collected a small force near Charlotte, N. C., and with these returned to South Carolina. (See *Fishing Creek.*) For many weeks he annoyed the British and Tories very much. Cornwallis, who called him the "Carolina Gamecock," tried hard to catch him. Tarleton, Wemyss, and others were sent out for the purpose. On the night of Nov. 12, 1780, Major Wemyss, at the head of a British detachment, fell upon him near the Broad River, but was repulsed. Eight days afterwards he was encamped at Blackstock's plantation, on the Tyger River, in Union District, where he was joined by some Georgians under Colonels Clarke and Twiggs. There he was attacked by Tarleton, when a severe battle ensued (Nov. 20). The British were repulsed with a loss in killed and wounded of about three hundred, while the Americans lost only three killed and five wounded. General Sumter was among the latter, and was detained from the field several months.

Blackstone in Rhode Island. Governor Winthrop found on the Shawmut (the peninsula of Boston) a solitary settler there named Blackstone. Soon afterwards he received a grant of fifty acres of land from the new town of Boston planted there, which he sold, and then went into the wilderness with some cattle. He had left England because he could not endure the "lords bishops," and he liked the "lords brethren" no better. Blackstone seated himself on the upper waters of the Pawtucket River, where Roger Williams found him when, on his banishment from Massachusetts, he went into the Narraganset country. Blackstone did not sympathize with Williams, and always acknowledged his allegiance to Massachusetts. He was the first white settler in Rhode Island, but did nothing towards founding the colony.

Blackwater, BATTLE AT THE. Late in 1861 the department of Missouri was enlarged, and General Henry W. Halleck was placed in command of it. General Price had been there rapidly gathering Confederate forces in Missouri; and General John Pope was placed in command of a considerable body of troops to oppose him. Pope acted with great vigor and skill. He made a short, sharp, and decisive campaign. Detachments from his camp struck telling blows here and there. One was inflicted by General Jefferson C. Davis on the Blackwater, near Milford, which much disheartened the Secessionists of that state. Davis found the insurgents in a wooded bottom opposite his own forces. He carried a well-guarded bridge by storm, and fell upon the Confederates with such vigor that they retreated in confusion, and were so closely pursued that they surrendered, in number about 1300, cavalry and infantry. The spoils of victory were 800 horses and mules, 1000 stand of arms, and over 70 wagons loaded with tents, baggage, ammunition, and supplies of every kind. In a brief space of time the power of the insurgents in that quarter was paralyzed, and Halleck complimented Pope on his "brilliant campaign."

Bladensburg, BATTLE AT (1814). General Winder had continually warned the President and his cabinet of the danger to the national capital from a contemplated invasion by the British. The obstinate and opinionated Secretary of War (Armstrong) would not listen; but when Admiral Cochrane appeared in Chesapeake Bay with a powerful land and naval force, the alarmed secretary gave Winder a *carte blanche*, almost, to do as he pleased in defending the capital. Commodore Joshua Barney was in command of a flotilla in the bay, composed of an armed schooner and thirteen barges. These were driven into the Patuxent River, up which the flotilla was taken to a point beyond the reach of the British vessels, and where it might assist in the defence of either Washington or Baltimore, whichever city the British might attack. To destroy this flotilla, more than five thousand regulars, marines, and negroes were landed at Benedict, with three cannons; and the British commander, General Robert Ross, boasted that he would wipe out Barney's fleet, and dine in Washington the next Sunday. The boast being known, great exertions were made for the defence of the capital. General Winder, relieved from restraint, called upon the veteran general Samuel Smith (see *Fort Mifflin*) of Baltimore, to bring out his division of militia, and General Van Ness, of Washington, was requested to station two brigades of the militia of the District of Columbia at Alexandria. Winder also called for volunteers from all the militia districts of Maryland. General Smith promptly responded, but the call for volunteers was not very effectual. Meanwhile the British, who had pursued Barney up the Patuxent in barges, were disappointed. Seeing no chance for escape, the Commodore blew up his flotilla at Pig Point (Aug. 22, 1814), and with his men hastened to join Winder at his headquarters. When General Ross arrived, perceiving Barney's flotilla to be a smoking ruin, he passed on to Upper Marlborough, where a road led directly to Washington city, leaving Admiral Cockburn (see *Amphibious Warfare*) in charge of the British flotilla of barges. To oppose this formidable force, Winder had less than three thousand effective men, most of them undisciplined; and he prudently retreated towards Washington, followed by Ross, who had been joined by Cockburn and his sailors ready for plunder. That night (Aug. 23) the British encamped within ten miles of the capital. At the latter place there was great excitement, and there were sleepless vigils kept by soldiers and civilians. Uncertain whether Washington city or Fort Washington was the intended destination of the invaders, Winder left a force near Bladensburg (four miles from the capital), and with other troops closely watched the highways leading in other directions. The anxious President and his cabinet were awake that night, and at dawn the next morning (Aug. 24), while Winder was in consultation with them at his headquarters, a courier came in hot haste to tell them that the British were marching on Bladensburg. Winder sent troops immediately to reinforce those already there, and soon followed in person. The overwhelming number of the invaders put his little army in great peril. He was compelled to fight or surrender; he chose to fight, and at a little past noon a severe contest began. The troops under General Winder, including those from Baltimore (about 2200) and detachments at various points watching the movements of the British, with the men of Barney's flotilla, were about 7000 strong, of whom 900 were enlisted men. But many of these were at distant points of observation. The cavalry did not exceed 400. The little army had twenty-six pieces of cannon, of which twenty were only six-pounders. With these troops and weapons Winder might have driven back the invaders, had he been untrammelled by the Secretary of War and the rest of the seemingly bewildered cabinet. As the British descended the hills and pressed towards the bridge at Bladensburg, they commenced hurling rockets at the exposed Americans. They were repulsed at first by the American artillery, but, being continually reinforced, they pushed across the stream (east branch of the Potomac) in the face of a deadly fire. A terrible conflict ensued, when another shower of rockets made the regiments of militia break and flee in the wildest disorder. Winder tried in vain to rally them. Another corps held its position gallantly for a while, when it, too, fled in disorder, covered by riflemen. The first and second lines of the Americans were now dispersed. The British still pressed on and encountered Commodore Barney and his gallant flotilla-men. After a desperate struggle, in which the Commodore was severely wounded, Winder ordered a general retreat. Barney was too badly hurt to be removed, and was taken prisoner. He was immediately paroled. The great body of the Americans who were not dispersed retreated towards Montgomery Court-house, Maryland, leaving the battle-field in full possession of the British. The Americans lost 26 killed and 50 wounded. The British loss was more than 500 killed and wounded, among them several officers of rank and distinction. The battle lasted about four hours. The principal troops engaged were militia and volunteers of the District of Columbia; militia from Baltimore, under the command of General Stansbury; various detachments of Maryland militia; a regiment of Virginia militia, under Colonel George Minor, 600 strong, with 100 cavalry. The regular army contributed 300 men; Barney's flotilla 400. There were 120 marines from the Washington navy-yard, with two eighteen-pound and three twelve-pound cannons. There were also various companies of volunteer cavalry from the District, Maryland, and Virginia, 300 in number, under Lieutenant-colonel Tilghman and Majors O. H. Williams and C. Sterett. There was also a squadron of United States dragoons, commanded by Major Laval.

THE BRIDGE AT BLADENSBURG IN 1861.

Blair, JOHN, jurist, was born at Williamsburg, Va., in 1732; died there in August, 1800. He was educated at the College of William and Mary (which see); studied law at the Temple, London; soon rose to the first rank as a lawyer; was a member of the House of Burgesses so early as 1765, and was one of the dissolved Virginia Assembly who met at the Raleigh Tavern, in the summer of 1774, and drafted the Virginia non-importation agreement. He was one of the committee who, in June, 1776, drew up the plan for the Virginia State government, and in 1777 was elected a judge of the Court of Appeals; then chief-justice, and, in 1780, a judge of the High Court of Chancery. He was one of the framers of the National Constitution; and, in 1789, Washington appointed him a judge of the United States Supreme Court. He resigned his seat on the bench of that court in 1796.

Blakeley, JOHNSTON, Captain, United States Navy, was born at Seaford, Down, Ireland, October, 1771; was lost at sea in 1814. He was graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1800, and entered the navy, as midshipman, Feb. 5, 1800. He was made lieutenant in 1807, master-commander in 1813, and captain in 1814. He commanded the brig *Enterprise* in protecting the American coast-trade. In August, 1814, he was appointed to the command of the *Wasp*, which captured the *Reindeer*. (See *Wasp and Reindeer*.) For this exploit Congress voted him a gold medal. Capturing the brig *Atlanta* on Sept. 21, that vessel was sent to Savannah, and brought the last intelligence of the *Wasp.* It is supposed she foundered in a gale, and no tidings were ever heard of her afterwards.

JOHNSTON BLAKELEY.

Blakely, BATTLE OF. Ever since Steele's arrival from Pensacola (see *Mobile, Capture of*), Blakely had been held in a state of siege. By the fall of Spanish Fort (which see), water communication between Blakely and Mobile had been cut off. It was defended by abatis, chevaux-de-frise, and terra-torpedoes, and had a ditch in the rear of these. In front of these Canby formed a strong line of battle, Hawkins's negro troops being on the right, the divisions of Veatch and Andrews in the centre, and Garrard's division on the left. On Sunday afternoon, April 8, when the assault commenced, a heavy thunderstorm was gathering. There was a fierce struggle with obstacles in front of the fort. They were finally cleared, and while the colored troops climbed the face of the works, other soldiers turned their right, entered the fort, and captured the commander (General Thomas) and 1000 men. Instantly loud cheers announced the victory, and several National flags appeared on the parapets. At the same time the whole National line participated in the assault. Great guns were making fearful lanes through their ranks. Tempests of grape and canister from the armament of the fort made dreadful havoc. At length the colored brigade were ordered to carry the works. They sprang forward with a shout, "Remember Fort Pillow!" They went over the Confederate embankments scattering everything before them. The victory for the Nationals was complete. The struggle had been brief but very severe. The Nationals lost about 1000 men; the Confederates 500. The spoils were nearly 40 pieces of artillery, 4000 small-arms, 16 battle-flags, and a vast quantity of ammunition.

Bland, RICHARD, statesman, born in Virginia, 1708; died at Williamsburg, Va., Oct. 28, 1776. Educated at the College of William and Mary, he became a fine classical scholar, and was an oracle touching the rights of the colonies. He was a member of the House of Burgesses from 1745 until his death—a period of thirty-one years; and he was one of the most active of its patriotic members. In 1774 he was a delegate in the Continental Congress, but declined to serve the next year. In 1766 he published one of the ablest tracts of the time, entitled *An Inquiry into the Rights of the British Colonies.*

Bland, THEODORIC, statesman and soldier, was born in Prince George's County, Va., in 1742; died in New York, June 1, 1790. He was, by his maternal side, fourth in descent from Pocahontas (which see), his mother being Jane Rolfe. John Randolph was his nephew. He received the degree of M.D. at Edinburgh, returned home in 1764, and practised medicine. Bland led volunteers in opposing Governor Dunmore, and published some bitter letters against that officer over the signature of "Cassius." He became captain of the first troop of Virginia cavalry, and joined the main Continental army as lieutenant-colonel in 1777. Brave, vigilant, and judicious, he was intrusted with the command of Burgoyne's captive troops at Albemarle Barracks in Virginia; and was member of the Continental Congress in 1780–83. In the Legislature and in the Convention of his state he opposed the adoption of the National Constitution; but represented Virginia in the first congress held under it, dying while in attendance there in New York. Colonel Bland was a poet as well as a soldier and patriot. The *Bland Papers*, containing many valuable memorials of the Revolution, were edited and published by Charles Campbell in 1840–43.

Blenker, LEWIS, was born at Worms, Hesse-Darmstadt, in 1812; died in New Jersey, Oct. 31, 1863. He was one of the Bavarian Legion, raised to accompany King Otho to Greece. In 1848–49, he became a leader of the revolutionists, and finally fled to Switzerland. Ordered to leave that country (September, 1849), he came to the United States. At the beginning of the Civil War he raised a regiment, and, early in July, 1861, was put at the head of a brigade, chiefly of Germans. In the Army of the Potomac he commanded a division for a while, which was sent to Western Virginia, and participated in the battle of Cross Keys (which see).

Blennerhassett, HERMAN, born in Hampshire, England, in 1767; died in the island of Guernsey in 1831. He was of Irish descent; was educated at the University of Dublin; studied law and practised there; and in 1796 married the beautiful Adelaide Agnew, daughter of General Agnew, who was killed in the battle at Germantown, 1777. (See *Agnew.*) Being a republican in principle, he became involved in the political troubles in Ireland in 1798, when he sold his estates in England, and came to America with an ample fortune. He purchased an island in the Ohio River, nearly opposite Marietta, built an elegant mansion, furnished it luxuriously, and there he and his accomplished wife were living in happiness and contentment, surrounded by books, philosophical apparatus, pictures, and other means for intellectual culture, when Aaron Burr entered that paradise, and tempted and ruined its dwellers. (See *Burr's Mysterious Expedition.*) A mob of militia-men laid the island waste, in a degree, and Blennerhassett and his wife became fugitives in 1807. He was prosecuted as an accomplice of Burr, but was discharged. Then he became a cotton-planter near Port Gibson, in Mississippi, but finally lost his fortune, and, in 1819, went to Montreal, and there began the practice of law. In 1822, he and his wife went to the West Indies. Thence they returned to England, where Blennerhassett died, at the age of sixty-one years. His widow came back to America to seek, from Congress, remuneration for their losses; but, while the matter was pending, she, also, died (1842), in poverty, in the city of New York, and was buried by the Sisters of Charity.

BLENNERHASSETT'S ISLAND RESIDENCE.

Blind, The, in our country, receive a full share of public sympathy. In 1870 there were about twenty thousand blind persons in the United States. The first public asylum for the blind established in our country was the Perkins Institute and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind, founded in 1829, and opened in 1832, with the late Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe at its head. Similar ones were founded in New York and Philadelphia at about the same time. In 1876 there were twenty-seven institutions in the United States for the instruction of the blind, with an aggregate of about two thousand pupils.

Block Island, Events at. In 1636, John Oldham (which see) was trading in a vessel of his own along the shores of Connecticut, and near Block Island (so named from Adrian Block, the Dutch navigator, who discovered it) he was attacked by Indians of that island, and he and his crew were murdered. Filled with the barbarians, who did not know how to manage rudder or sail, the vessel was found drifting by John Gallop, a Massachusetts fisherman, who had only a man and two boys with him. They gallantly attacked the Indians, killed or drove them into the sea, and recaptured the vessel — the first naval fight on the New England coast. They found the dead body of Oldham on the deck, yet bleeding. The Block Island Indians were allies of the Pequods, and were protected by the latter. The murder of Oldham was a signal for war. In August, five small vessels, carrying about one hundred men, under John Endicott, sailed from Boston to punish the Block Island savages. His orders from the magistrates were to kill all the men, but to spare the women and children. There were four captains in the company, because the Indians in fighting usually divided into small squads, and it was necessary to attack them in like detachments. One of these captains was the famous John Underhill. (See *Pequod War.*) Endicott's party landed in a heavy surf, and in the face of a shower of arrows, but only one Englishman was wounded. The Indians fled into the interior of the island. Everything—dwellings, crops, and the simple furniture of the Indians—was destroyed. The island was completely desolated. Endicott could not find the Indians to kill them, but he left them in a condition to starve to death. Endicott attacked the Pequods at the mouth of the Pequod River (now the Thames), but was unsuccessful; then, coasting along the shores of the Narraganset country, he burned the wigwams, destroyed the crops, and so aroused the fiercest indignation among the native inhabitants.

Blockade, Actual and Proclaimed. In May, 1813, the British proclaimed a formal blockade of New York, the Delaware, Chesapeake Bay, Charleston, Savannah, and the mouth of the Mississippi. On June 11, the *United States*, *Macedonian*, and *Hornet*, under the command of Decatur, blockaded in the harbor of New York, attempted to get to sea through the East River and Long Island Sound, but off the Connecticut shore they were intercepted by a British squadron and driven into the harbor of New London. The militia were called out to protect these vessels, and the neighborhood was kept in constant alarm. The British blockading squadron, commanded by Sir Thomas Hardy, consisted of the flag-ship *Ramillies*, of the *Orpheus*, *Valiant*, *Acasta*, and smaller vessels. The commander-in-chief had won the respect of the inhabitants along the coast because of his honorable treatment of them. The blockade of New London harbor continued twenty months, or during the remainder of the war. In the spring of 1814, all hopes of their being able to escape having faded, the *United States* and *Macedonian* were dismantled, and laid up just below Norwich, while the *Hornet*, after remaining in the Thames about a year, slipped out of the harbor and escaped to New York.

Blockade of the Potomac. By batteries on the Virginia shore a blockade of the Potomac River against the passage of vessels with supplies for the troops at Washington was kept up for some time. In September, 1861, General McClellan, in command of the rapidly increasing Army of the Potomac, was ordered to co-operate with the naval force on the river in removing the blockade, but he failed to do so; and it was kept up until the Confederates voluntarily abandoned their position in front of Washington in 1862.

Blockade of the Potomac Removed. The insurgents planted cannons on the Virginia shores of the Potomac River, at various points, to interrupt the navigation. One of these redoubts was at Matthias Point — a bold promontory in King George's County, Va. — and commanded the river a short time. The Point was heavily wooded. Captain Ward, with his flag-ship *Freeborn*, of the Potomac flotilla, was below this point when he heard of the insurgents being busy in erecting a battery there. He procured from Commodore Rowan, of the *Pawnee*, then lying off Aquia Creek (which see), two companies of marines, in charge of Lieutenant Chaplin. Ward had determined to land there, denude the Point of trees, and leave no shelter for the insurgents. On the morning of June 27, 1861, Chaplin and the marines, under cover of a fire from the vessels, landed, and soon encountered the pickets of the insurgents. Captain Ward accompanied Chaplin. A body of about four hundred insurgents were seen approaching, when Ward hastened back to the *Freeborn*, and the marines took to their boats. They returned, but were called off because the number of the insurgents was overwhelming. A spirited skirmish ensued between the insurgents on shore and the Nationals on their vessels. While Captain Ward was managing one of his cannons, he was mortally wounded in the abdomen by a well-aimed Minié bullet from the shore. He lived only forty-five minutes, the bullet having passed through the intestines and the liver. His was the only life lost on the Union side on that occasion. Captain Ward was the first naval officer killed during the war. His body was conveyed to the navy-yard at Brooklyn, where, on the *North Carolina*, it lay in state, and was then taken to Hartford, where imposing funeral ceremonies were performed in the Roman Catholic cathedral.

Blockade-Runners. The British government professed to be neutral when the Civil War in the United States broke out, but the Confederates were permitted to have privateer vessels built and supplied in Great Britain, while swift-sailing British merchant steam-vessels, built for the purpose, were permitted to carry on an extensive trade with the insurgents by running the blockade of Southern ports. These vessels carried arms, ammunition, and other supplies to the insurgents, and received in exchange cotton and tobacco. Enormous profits were made for the owners of these vessels when a successful voyage was accomplished; but so many of them were captured by the blockading fleets, destroyed or wrecked, that it is believed their losses were greater in amount than their gains. The number of blockade-runners captured or destroyed during the war by the national navy was 1504. The gross proceeds of the property captured and condemned as lawful prize, before the first of November following the close of the war, amounted to nearly $22,000,000. This sum was subsequently increased by new decisions. The value of the vessels captured and destroyed (1149 captured and 355 destroyed) was not less than $7,000,000, making a total loss, chiefly to British owners, of at least $30,000,000. Besides, in consequence of the remissness in duty of the British government in permitting piratical vessels to be built and furnished in the realm for the Confederates, that government was compelled to pay, in the form of damages to American property on the seas, $15,500,000 in gold. (See *Tribunal of Arbitration.*)

A BLOCKADE-RUNNER.

Blockading Squadrons on the New England Coast. From the spring of 1813 until the close of the war, British blockading squadrons were hovering along the whole American coast; and these, with embargo acts (which see), double-barred its seaports against commerce, and threatened its sea-coast cities and villages with destruction. The year 1814 was a peculiarly trying one for New England. The blockade of New London, begun in 1813, was kept up strictly until the close of the war. Early in June, 1814, British blockading vessels began depredations on the coast of Massachusetts, under an order issued by Admiral Cochrane to "destroy the seaport towns and devastate the country." At Wareham, on Buzzard's Bay, they destroyed vessels and other property valued at $40,000. In the same month fifty armed men in five large barges entered the Saco River, Maine, and destroyed property to the amount of about $20,000. New Bedford, and Fair Haven opposite, were threatened by British cruisers. Eastport and Castine, in Maine, were captured by the British. In July (1814) Sir Thomas M. Hardy sailed from Halifax with a considerable land and naval force, to execute the order of Cochrane. The country from Passamaquoddy Bay to the Penobscot River speedily passed under British rule, and remained so until the close of the war. After capturing Eastport Hardy sailed westward, and threatened Portsmouth and other places. An attack on Boston was confidently expected. It was almost defenceless, and offered a rich prize for plunder. There ships were built for the war; but when real danger appeared, the inhabitants were aroused to intense action in preparing defences. All classes of citizens might be seen with implements of labor working daily in casting up fortifications on Noddle's Island (now East Boston). Informed of these preparations and the enthusiasm of the people, Hardy passed by and took a position off the coast of Connecticut, where he proceeded, with reluctance, to execute Cochrane's cruel order. He bombarded Stonington, but was repulsed. (See *Stonington, Bombardment of.*) His squadron lay off the mouth of the Thames (Conn.) when the news of peace came. (See *New London.*)

Bloody Marsh, BATTLE OF. (See *Georgia, Invasion of.*)

Bloomfield, JOSEPH, was born at Woodbridge, N. J.; died at Burlington, N. J., Oct. 3, 1823. He was a law student when the war for independence broke out, when he was made a captain, and entered the service of the patriots, serving until the end of the war. Then he had attained the rank of major. After the war he was attorney-general of New Jersey; governor in 1801–12; brigadier-general during the war of 1812–15; member of Congress 1817–21; and was always esteemed a sound legislator and a judicious leader.

Blooming Gap, SKIRMISH AT (1862). General F. W. Lander was sent, early in January, 1862, to protect the Baltimore and Ohio Railway. He had a wily and energetic opponent in "Stonewall Jackson," who was endeavoring to gain what the Confederates had lost in Western Virginia, and to hold possession of the Shenandoah Valley. With about four thousand men Lander struck Jackson at Blooming Gap (Feb. 14), captured seventeen of his commissioned officers, nearly sixty of his rank and file, and compelled him to retire.

Blount, WILLIAM, was born in North Carolina in 1744; died at Knoxville, Tenn., March 21, 1800. He was a delegate to the Continental Congress in 1782–83, 1786, and 1787; and was a member of the convention that framed the National Constitution. In 1790 he was appointed governor of the territory south of the Ohio. (See *Northwestern Territory.*) He was president of the convention that formed the State of Tennessee in 1796, and was chosen the first United States Senator from the new state. Blount was impeached in 1797 by the House of Representatives, charged with having intrigued, while territorial governor, to transfer New Orleans and neighboring districts (then belonging to Spain) to Great Britain by means of a joint expedition of Englishmen and Creek and Cherokee Indians. He was expelled from the Senate, and the process was discontinued in the House. His popularity in Tennessee was increased by these proceedings, and he became, by the voice of the people, a state senator and president of that body.

Blue Hen, a cant or popular name for the State of Delaware. Captain Caldwell, of the First Delaware regiment in the Revolution, was a brave and very popular officer, and noted for his fondness for cock-fighting. When officers were sent to his state to get recruits for the regiment, it was a common remark that they had gone for more of Captain Caldwell's game-cocks. The captain insisted that no cock could be truly game unless the mother was a blue hen; and the expression "Blue Hen's Chickens" was substituted for game-cocks, and finally applied to the whole Delaware line.

Blue Laws, the name given to the first collection of laws framed for the government of the Connecticut colony. They were published, in collected form, in 1650, and issued in blue-paper covers. From this fact they derived the name of Blue Laws. They contained rigid enactments against every social vice, as well as for social regulations, and revealed the sternness of the Puritan character and morals. Copies of these laws found their way to England, where they first received the name of "Blue Laws." After the restoration of Charles II. the word *blue* was applied to rigid moralists of every kind, especially to the Presbyterians. Butler, in *Hudibras*, says:

> "For his religion it was writ,
> To match his learning and his wit,
> 'Twas Presbyterian true *blue.*"

To ridicule the Puritans of New England, a series of ridiculous enactments, falsely purporting to be a selection from the Blue Laws, were promulgated, and gained general belief.

Blue Lights. The *Macedonian* and *Hornet* were blockaded in New London harbor. Decatur was anxious to run the blockade, and might have accomplished it but for the mischievous, if not treasonable, conduct of a section of the ultra-Federalists known as the "Peace Party" (which see). He had fixed on Sunday evening, Dec. 12, 1813, for making an attempt to run the blockade. The night was very dark, the wind was favorable, and the tide served at a convenient hour. When all things were in readiness and he was about to weigh anchor, word came from the "row-guard" of the blockaded vessels that signal-lights were burning on both sides of the river, near its mouth. The lights were *blue*, and placed in position by treasonable men to warn the British blockaders of Decatur's final movements. There were "Peace-men" in almost every place in New England, who did all they could to embarrass their government in its prosecution of the war. So betrayed, Decatur gave up the design, and tried every means to discover the betrayers, but without success. The Federalists denied the fact, but the blue signal-lights had been seen by too many to make the denial of any effect. In a letter to the Secretary of the Navy, Decatur wrote: "Notwithstanding these signals have been repeated, and have been seen by at least twenty persons in this squadron, there are men in New London who have the hardihood to affect to disbelieve it and the effrontery to deny it." The whole Federal party, traditionally opposed to the war, were often compelled to bear the odium of the bad conduct of the Peace faction. They had to do so in this case and for more than a generation; and long after that organization was dissolved members of that party were stigmatized with the epithet of "Blue Light Federalists."

Blue Springs, Battle at. While Burnside's forces in East Tennessee were concentrating at Knoxville (see *Knoxville, Siege of*) they had many encounters with the Confederates. One of these occurred at Blue Springs, not far from Bull's Gap. There the Confederates had gathered in considerable force. A brigade of National cavalry, supported by a small force of infantry, was then at Bull's Gap. The cavalry pressed forward to Blue Springs, where the Confederates were commanded by General S. Jones. After a desultory fight for about twenty-four hours (Oct. 10 and 11, 1863) the Confederates broke and fled, leaving their dead on the field. They were pursued and struck from time to time by General Shackleford and his cavalry, and driven out of the state. The pursuers penetrated Virginia ten miles beyond Bristol. In the battle of Blue Springs the Nationals lost about one hundred men in killed and wounded. The Confederate loss was a little greater.

Board of Trade and Plantations. This commission was first suggested by Charles Davenant, son of the eminent Sir William Davenant, and an English author of note. He proposed, in an essay, that the care of the American colonies should be made "the province of a select number of lords and gentlemen of reputation both for parts and fortunes;" and suggested that it would be in their power "to put things into a form and order of government that should always preserve these countries in obedience to the crown and dependence upon the kingdom." At the same time, he advocated the keeping of the conditions of their charters sacred and inviolate. A standing council of commerce had been established, but in 1673 it was dropped. From that time until 1696 all disputes and regulations relating to commerce and the colonies were usually referred to a committee of the privy council. The Board of Trade and Plantations was established by King William III. in that year. It consisted of a first lord commissioner, who was a peer of the realm, and seven other commissioners, with a salary of $5000 each. The members of the board were styled the "Lord Commissioners for Trade and Plantations." With this board the governors of the English-American colonies held continual correspondence concerning their respective governments; and to this board they transmitted the journals of their councils and assemblies, the accounts of the collectors of customs and naval officers, and similar articles of official intelligence. On the death of Queen Anne, in 1714, George, Elector of Hanover, ascended the English throne. The new ministry reduced the powerful Board of Trade to a subordinate position—a mere committee for reference and report, and a dependent upon the Secretary of State for the colonies. In March, 1749, Horace Walpole, at the instigation of the Board of Trade and Plantations, reported a bill to overrule all charters, and to make the orders of the king, or under his authority, the supreme law in America. This seemed to be consistent with the high claim of legislative authority for Parliament. Onslow, Speaker of the House of Commons, believed the Parliament had power to tax America, but not to delegate it. He ordered the objections to the measure to be spread at length on the journals of the House, and the Board of Trade dropped the matter.

Board of War. On the 13th of June, 1776, the Congress appointed John Adams, Roger Sherman, Benjamin Harrison, James Wilson, and John Rutledge commissioners constituting a "Board of War and Ordnance," and appointed Richard Peters their secretary. This was the germ of the War Department of our government. It had a general supervision of all military affairs; kept exact records of all transactions, with the names of officers and soldiers; and had charge of all prisoners of war and of all correspondence on the subject of the army. The secretary and clerks were required to take an oath of secrecy before entering upon their duties. The salary of the secretary was fixed at $800 a year; of the clerks, $266.66. A seal was adopted. Owing to the extent of the field of war, subordinate boards were authorized in 1778. In November, 1777, a new board was organized, consisting of three persons not members of Congress, to sit in the place where that body should be in session, each member to be paid a salary of $4000 a year. In 1778 another organization of the board occurred. It then consisted of two members of Congress and three who were not members, any three to constitute a quorum. Then the salary of the secretary of the board was increased to $2000. On the new organization of the government in 1781 (see *Articles of Confederation*), the Congress resolved to create a Secretary of War, and General Lincoln

SEAL OF THE BOARD OF WAR.

was chosen. His salary was $5000 a year. He held the office until the close of the war. After that military affairs were managed by a board of war until the organization of the government under the National Constitution, when they were placed under the supreme control of a Secretary of War.

Bobadilla, Francisco, a Spanish magistrate, was sent to Santo Domingo by Queen Isabella in 1500 to ascertain the condition of the Spanish colony there, so many complaints of the administration of Columbus having reached her. Coveting the place of Columbus, Bobadilla made many unjust charges against him. He arrested the illustrious man and sent him to Spain in chains. But the sovereigns, satisfied that he was innocent, reinstated Columbus, recalled Bobadilla, and sent Ovando to take his place. (See *Ovando.*) On his return homeward, Bobadilla was lost at sea in a furious tempest with many others of the enemies of Columbus, together with the immense wealth which they were carrying away with them.

Bogardus, Everardus, was the first clergyman in New Netherland. He and Adam Roelandson, school-master, came from Holland with Governor Van Twiller in 1633. He was a bold, outspoken man, and did not shrink from giving "a piece of his mind" to men in authority. Provoked by what he considered maladministration of public affairs, he wrote a letter to Governor Van Twiller, in which he called him "a child of the devil," and threatened to give him "such a shake from the pulpit" the next Sunday as would "make him shudder." About the year 1638 Bogardus married Annetje, widow of Roeloff Jansen, to whose husband Van Twiller had granted sixty-two acres of land on Manhattan Island, now in possession of Trinity Church, New York. This is the estate which the "heirs of Annetje Jansen Bogardus" have been seeking to recover. Being charged before the Classis of Amsterdam with conduct unbecoming a clergyman, Bogardus was about to go thither to defend himself on the arrival of Kieft, but the governor and council determined to retain him for the "good of souls." A daughter of Mr. Bogardus by his first wife was married in 1642; and it was on that occasion that Governor Kieft procured generous subscriptions for building a new church. At the wedding feast, "after the fourth or fifth round of drinking," he made a liberal subscription himself to the church fund, and requested the other guests to do the same. All the company, with "light heads and glad hearts," vied with each other in "subscribing richly;" and some of them, after they returned home, "well repented it," but were not excused. John and Richard Ogden, of Stamford, Conn., were employed to build the church, in which Bogardus officiated about four years. When Kieft, in 1643, was about to make war on the Indians (see *Kieft*), Bogardus, who had been invited to the council, warned him in warm words against his rashness. Two years later he shared with the people in disgust of the governor; and he boldly denounced him, as he had Van Twiller, from the pulpit, charging him with drunkenness and rapacity, and said, "What are the great men of the country but vessels of wrath and fountains of woe and trouble? They think of nothing but to plunder the property of others, to dismiss, to banish, to transport to Holland." Kieft and some of the provincial officers absented themselves from church to avoid further clerical lashings. Kieft encouraged unruly fellows to keep up a noise around the church during the preaching. On one occasion a drum was beaten, a cannon was fired several times during the service, and the communicants were insulted. The plucky dominie denounced the authorities more fiercely than ever, and the governor brought the contumacious clergyman to trial. The excitement ran high, but mutual friends finally brought about a cessation of hostilities, if not peace. There were then two other clergymen in the province —Samuel Megapolensis and Francis Doughty— the latter preaching to the English residents there. The conduct of Bogardus had become a subject of remark in the Classis of Amsterdam, and after the arrival of Stuyvesant (1647) he resigned, and sailed for Holland in the same vessel with Kieft. He, too, was drowned when the vessel was wrecked. (See *Kieft.*)

Boggs, Charles Stewart, was born at New Brunswick, N. J., Jan. 28, 1811; entered the navy in 1826; served on stations in the Mediterranean, West Indies, the coast of Africa, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean. He was made lieutenant in 1837; was promoted to the rank of commander in 1855; and in 1858 was appointed light-house inspector on the Pacific coast. Placed in command of the gunboat *Varuna*, when the Civil War broke out, he was with Admiral Farragut in the desperate fight on the Mississippi, near Forts Jackson and St. Philip. (See *New Orleans, Capture of.*) In that contest his conduct was admirable for bravery and fortitude. He has since been in command of various vessels on American and European stations. Captain Boggs was commissioned rear-admiral in the United States Navy in July, 1870.

Bogus Proclamation, The. Early in the campaign of 1864, a proclamation, bearing the names of the President of the United States and of the Secretary of State, appeared in the *New York World* and *New York Journal of Commerce* (newspapers opposed to the administration), in which defeats and disasters to the National armies were narrated, a day of fasting and prayer recommended, and a call made for five hundred thousand more troops to suppress the great insurrection. This proclamation was calculated to cause great depression among all loyal people, discourage enlistments, and give encouragement to the insurgents. The government regarded it as the work of an enemy of the Republic. The two newspapers that published the proclamation were promptly suppressed by military power, and the author of the proclamation, when discovered, was sent, a state prisoner, to Fort Lafayette. The author was Joseph Howard, one of the editorial staff of the *Brooklyn Eagle*, an opposition newspaper. Howard declared that it was intended only as a joke—a burlesque of the method of conducting the war. The government regarded it as a serious misdemeanor, and acted accordingly.

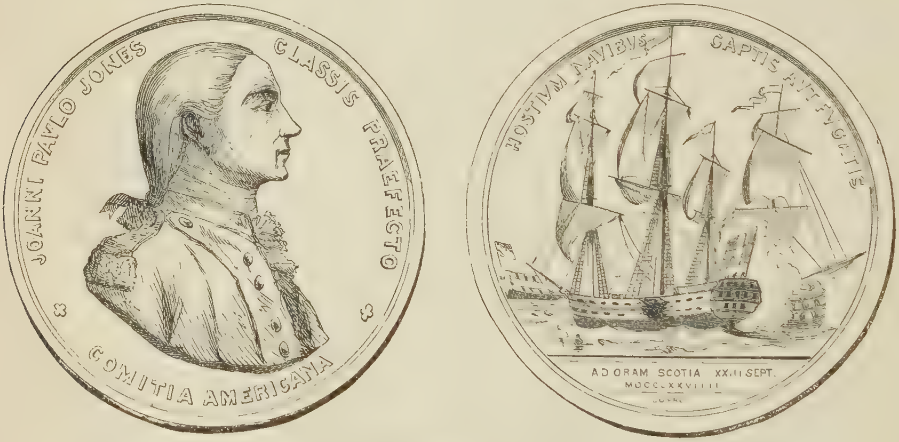
Boldness of the Colonial Press. When, early in January, 1766, the speech of the king at the opening of Parliament was published in the *Boston Gazette*, its editors (Edes and Gill) said to the monarch, "Great Sir, retreat, or you are ruined." A Philadelphia newspaper said: "None in this day of liberty will say that duty binds us to yield obedience to any man, or body of men, forming part of the British Constitution, when they exceed the limits prescribed by that Constitution. The Stamp Act is unconstitutional, and no more obligatory than a decree of the Divan of Turkey." Defiant essays upon the rights of the colonies were issued in pamphlet form, and the newspapers teemed with squibs and epigrams aimed at the authority of Parliament and even of the crown.

Bollan, WILLIAM, an English lawyer, came to America about 1740, settled in Boston, and died in England in 1776. He married a daughter of Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, and was appointed Collector of Customs at Salem and Marblehead. In 1745 he was sent to England to solicit the reimbursement of more than $800,000 advanced by Massachusetts for the expedition against Cape Breton. He was successful; and was agent for Massachusetts in 1762, but was dismissed. Being in England in 1769, he obtained copies of thirty-three letters written by Governor Bernard and General Gage, calumniating the colonists, and sent them to Boston. For this act he was denounced in Parliament. He strongly recommended the British government to pursue conciliatory measures towards the colonists in 1775; and in various ways, in person and in writing, he showed his warm friendship for the Americans. Mr. Bollan wrote several political pamphlets relating to American affairs; and in 1774 he presented, as colonial agent, a petition to the king in council.

Bonaparte and Peace. While war with France seemed inevitable, and was actually occurring on the ocean, a change in the government of that country occurred, which averted from the United States the calamity of war. For a long time the quarrels of political factions had distracted France. The Directory (which see) had become very unpopular, and the excitable people were ripe for another revolution. Napoleon Bonaparte was then at the head of an army in the East. His brothers informed him of the state of affairs at home, and he suddenly appeared in Paris with a few followers, where he was hailed as the good genius of the republic. With his brother Lucien, then President of the Council of Five Hundred, and the Abbé Sieyès, one of the Directory, and of great influence in the Council of the Ancients, he conspired for the overthrow of the government and the establishment of a new one. Sieyès induced the Council of the Ancients to place Bonaparte in command of the military of Paris, Nov. 9, 1799. Then Sieyès and two other members of the Directory resigned, leaving France without an executive authority, and Bonaparte with its strong arm — the military — firmly in his grasp. The Council of the Ancients, deceived by a trick, assembled at St. Cloud the next day. Bonaparte appeared before them to justify his conduct. Perceiving their enmity, he threatened them with arrest by the military if they should decide against him. Meanwhile Lucien had read the letters of resignation of the three Directors to the Council of Five Hundred. A scene of terrible excitement occurred. There were shouts of "No Cromwell! no dictator! the constitution forever!" Bonaparte entered that chamber with four grenadiers, and attempted to speak, but was interrupted by cries and execrations. The members seemed about to offer personal violence to the bold soldier, when a body of troops rushed in and bore him off. A motion was made for his outlawry, which Lucien refused to put, and left the chair. He went out and addressed the soldiers. At the conclusion of his speech, Murat entered with a body of armed men, and ordered the Council to disperse. The members replied with defiant shouts and execrations. The drums were ordered to be beaten; the soldiers levelled their muskets, when all but about fifty of the Council escaped by the windows. These, with the Ancients, passed a decree making Sieyès, Bonaparte, and Ducros Provisional Consuls. In December, Bonaparte was made First Consul, or supreme ruler, for life. New American envoys had just reached Paris at this crisis, and very soon Bonaparte concluded an amicable settlement of all difficulties between the two nations. Peace was established; the envoys returned home; and the Provisional Army of the United States which had been organized was disbanded.

Bonhomme Richard and Serapis, ACTION BETWEEN. During the spring and summer of 1779, American cruisers were very active, both in American and European waters. At the middle of August, John Paul Jones was sent out from the French port of L'Orient, with five vessels, to the coast of Scotland. His flag-ship was the *Bonhomme Richard*. As he was about to strike some armed British vessels in the harbor of Leith, a storm arose, which drove him into the North Sea. When it ceased, he cruised along the Scottish coast, capturing many prizes, and producing great alarm. Late in September, while Jones's squadron lay a few leagues north of the mouth of the Humber, he discovered the Baltic fleet of forty merchantmen (convoyed by the *Serapis*, a forty-four-gun ship, and the *Countess of Scarborough*, of twenty-two guns), stretching out from Flamborough Head. Jones signalled for a chase, and all but the *Alliance*, Captain

Landais, obeyed. While the opposing warships were manœuvring for advantage, night fell upon the scene. At seven o'clock in the evening (Sept. 23, 1779), one of the most desperate of recorded sea-fights began. The *Bonhomme Richard* and *Serapis*, Captain Pearson, came so close to each other that their spars and rigging became entangled, and Jones attempted to board his antagonist. A short contest with pike, pistol, and cutlass ensued, and Jones was repulsed. The vessels separated, and were soon placed broadside to broadside, so close that the muzzles of their guns touched each other. Both vessels were dreadfully shattered; and, at one time, the *Serapis* was on fire in a dozen places. Just as the moon rose, at half-past nine o'clock, the *Richard*, too, caught fire. A terrific hand-to-hand fight now ensued. Jones's ship, terribly damaged, could not float much longer. The flames were creeping up the rigging of the *Serapis*, and, by their light, Jones saw that his double-headed shot had cut the mainmast of the *Serapis* almost in two. He hurled another, and the tall mast fell. Pearson saw his great peril, hauled down his flag, and surrendered. As he handed his sword to Jones, he said, in a surly tone, "It is painful to deliver up my sword to a man who has fought with a rope around his neck!" (Jones had been declared a pirate by the British government.) The king knighted Pearson. "Well," observed Jones, when informed of this, "he deserves it; and if I fall on him again, I'll make a lord of him." The battle ceased, after raging three hours. The vessels were disengaged, and the *Richard* soon went to the bottom of the North Sea. For this victory Congress gave Jones the thanks of the nation and a gold medal.

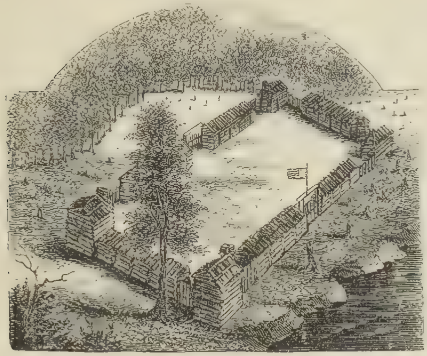

JOANNI PAVLO JONES CLASSIS PRAEFECTO
COMITIA AMERICANA
HOSTIVM NAVIBVS CAPTIS AVT FVGATIS
AD ORAM SCOTIA XXIII SEPT.
MDCCLXXVIIII

GOLD MEDAL PRESENTED TO PAUL JONES.

Boone, Daniel, an American pioneer and explorer, was born in Bucks County, Pa., Feb. 11, 1735; died at Charette, Mo., Sept. 26, 1820. From his youth he was a famous hunter, and, while yet a minor, he emigrated, with his father, to North Carolina, where he married. In May, 1759, Boone and five others went to explore the forests of Kentucky. There he was captured by some Indians, but escaped, and returned home in 1771. In 1773 he led a party of settlers to the wilds he had explored; and in 1774 he conducted a party of surveyors to the Falls of the Ohio (now Louisville). He had taken his family with the other families to Kentucky in 1773, where they were in perpetual danger from the barbarians of the forest. He had several fights with the Indians; and in 1775 he built a fort on the Kentucky River on the present site of Boonesborough. In 1777 several attacks were made on this fort by the Indians. They were repulsed, but in February, 1778, Boone was captured by them, and taken to Chillicothe, beyond the Ohio, and thence to Detroit. Adopted as a son in an Indian family, he became a favorite, but managed to escape in June following, and returned to his fort and kindred. In August, about four hundred and fifty Indians attacked his fort, which he bravely defended with about fifty men. At different times two of his sons were killed by

DANIEL BOONE.

the Indians. Boone accompanied General Clarke on his expedition against the Indians on the Scioto, in Ohio, in 1782, soon after a battle at the Blue Licks. Having lost his lands in Kentucky in consequence of a defective title, he went to the Missouri country in 1795, and settled on the Osage Woman River, where he continued the occupations of hunter and trapper. Again he was deprived of a large tract of land in Missouri, obtained under the Spanish authority, by the title being declared invalid. Boone's remains, with those of his wife, rest in the beautiful public cemetery near Frankfort, Ky., on the banks of the Kentucky River.



BOONE'S FORT.

Booth, John Wilkes, was born in Harford County, Md., in 1839; died in Virginia, April 26, 1865. He became a dramatic performer in 1856; and when the Civil War broke out he was a zealous, and even violent, secessionist. He became morbidly sensitive on the subject of "Southern independence;" and seems to have been the bold instrument and co-operator of less courageous conspirators for the overthrow of the Republic. On the night of April 14, 1865, he shot President Lincoln in a theatre at Washington, was pursued, and was killed in Virginia in the process of his arrest. (See *Lincoln's Assassination.*)

Booth, Junius Brutus, a great tragedian, was born in London, May 1, 1796; died on the Mississippi River while on a passage towards Cincinnati from New Orleans, Dec. 1, 1852. He was a lineal descendant of John Wilkes (which see). He joined a company of strolling players in England, rose rapidly in that profession, and soon competed successfully with Edmund Kean in tragedy. He came to the United States in 1821, and from that time until near the close of his life he was a popular actor everywhere. His irregular habits shortened his life. His son Edwin has risen to the highest position as an actor in tragedy.

Border State Convention. At the suggestion of Virginia, a Border State Convention was held at Frankfort, Ky., on March 27, 1861. The Unionists in Kentucky had elected nine of their representatives and the Secessionists one. The convention was a failure. No delegates from Virginia appeared, and only five besides those from Kentucky. The venerable John J. Crittenden presided. Four of the five outside of Kentucky were from Missouri, and one from Tennessee. The "wrongs of the South" and the "sectionalism of the North" were spoken of as the principal cause of the trouble at hand. It condemned rebellion, but did not ask the loyal people to put it down. Its chief panacea for existing evils was, in substance, the Crittenden Compromise (which see); and the convention regarded the national protection and fostering of the slave system as "essential to the best hopes of our country."

Borgne, Lake, Naval Battle on. The revelations made by Lafitte caused everybody to be vigilant at New Orleans. (See *Lafitte and the Baratarians.*) Early in December, 1812, Commodore D. T. Patterson, in command of the naval station there, was warned, by a letter from Pensacola, of a powerful British land and naval armament in the Gulf. He immediately sent Lieutenant Thomas Ap Catesby Jones with five gunboats, a tender, and a despatch-boat, to watch for their enemy. Jones sent Lieutenant McKeever with two gunboats to the entrance of Mobile Bay for intelligence. McKeever discovered the British fleet on Dec. 10, and hastened back with the news. In the afternoon of the same day the fleet appeared near the entrance to Lake Borgne, and Jones hastened with his flotilla towards Pass Christian, where he anchored, and waited the approach of the invaders to dispute their passage into the lake. He was discovered by the astonished Britons on the 13th, when Admiral Cochrane, in command of the fleet, gave orders for a change in the plan of operations against New Orleans. It would not do to attempt to land troops while the waters of the lake were patrolled by American gunboats. A flotilla of about sixty barges was prepared, the most of them carrying a carronade in the bow, and an ample number of armed volunteers from the fleet were sent, under the command of Captain Lockyer, to capture or destroy the American vessels. Perceiving his danger, Jones, in obedience to orders, proceeded with his flotilla towards the Rigolets, between Lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain. Calm and currents prevented his passing a channel, and he anchored at two in the morning of the 14th. Jones's flagship was a little schooner of eighty tons. The total number of men in his squadron was 182, and of guns 23. At daylight the British barges, containing 1200 men, bore down upon Jones's little squadron. They had six oars on each side, and formed in a long, straight line. Jones reserved his fire until the invaders were within close rifle range. Then McKeever hurled a 32-pound ball over the water and a shower of grapeshot, which broke the British line and made great confusion. But the invaders pushed forward, and at half-past eleven o'clock the engagement became general and desperate. At one time Jones's schooner was attacked by fifteen barges. The British captured the tender *Alligator* early in the contest; and finally, by the force of overwhelming numbers, they gained a victory, which gave them undisputed command of Lake Borgne. The triumph cost them about 300 men killed and wounded. The Americans lost 6 men killed and 35 wounded. Among the latter were Lieutenants Jones, McKeever, Parker, and Speddon. The British commander, Lockyer, was severely wounded; so, also, was Lieutenant Pratt, the officer who, under the direction of Admiral Cockburn, set fire to the public buildings in Washington city. Several of the British barges were shattered and sunk. The lighter transports, filled with troops, immediately entered Lake Borgne. Ship after ship got aground, until at length the troops were all placed in small boats and conveyed about thirty miles to Pea Island, at the mouth of the Pearl River, where General Keane organized his forces for future action. (See *Louisiana, Invasion of.*)

Boscawen, Edward, a British admiral, son of Viscount Falmouth, was born in England, Aug. 14, 1711; died, Jan. 10, 1761. He was made a captain in the Royal Navy in March, 1737. Distinguished at Porto Bello and Carthagena, he was promoted to the command of a sixty-gun ship in 1744, in which he took the *Media*. He signalized himself under Anson in the battle off Cape Finisterre in 1747, and against the French in the Indies as rear-admiral the next year. He made himself master of Madras, and returned to England in 1751. Admiral of the Blue, he commanded an expedition against Louisburg, Cape Breton, in 1758, with General Amherst. In 1759 he defeated the French fleet in the Mediterranean — capturing two thousand prisoners. For these services he was made General of the Marines and Member of the Privy Council (which see). Parliament also granted him a pension of $15,000 a year.

Boston and Illicit Trade. From the beginning of the war of 1812–15 there was a mischievous peace faction (which see), composed largely of selfish and unpatriotic politicians, and confined almost exclusively to New England, whose commercial interests had been ruined by the war. Boston was their headquarters. Embargo acts had closed all American ports against the legal admission of goods from abroad, and these could only be obtained through contraband or illicit trade. Such a trade was carried on extensively at Boston, where the magistrates were not zealous in the enforcement of laws restricting commerce. Smuggling was so prevalent that it became almost respectable. That distinguished citizen of Boston, Harrison Gray Otis, charged the administration at Washington and the war with the authorship of that "monstrous depreciation of morals" and "execrable course of smuggling and fraud," and said that a class of citizens, "encouraged by the just odium against the war, sneer at the restraints of conscience, laugh at perjury, mock at legal restraints, and acquire ill-gotten wealth at the expense of public morals and the more sober, conscientious part of the community." Foreign goods, shut out from other seaports, found their way into Boston. Into that port many valuable British prizes were taken; and from these sources and from extensive smuggling that city became so plethoric with foreign goods that the merchants of other cities of the Union looked to Boston for their regular supplies. Boston became the financial centre of the Republic, and held that position during a greater part of the war.

Boston Boys, Temper of. The boys of Boston were in the habit of building mounds of snow on the "Common" in winter. The British soldiers, who, under General Gage, took possession of Boston in 1768, battered down these snow structures merely to annoy the boys. This had been repeated several times, when a meeting of the larger boys was held, and a representation was sent to General Gage to remonstrate. "We come, sir," said the tallest boy, "to demand satisfaction." "What!" exclaimed Gage, "have your fathers been teaching you rebellion and sent you here to exhibit it?" "Nobody sent us here, sir," said the boy, while his eyes flashed with indignation. "We have never insulted nor injured your soldiers, but they have trodden down our snow-hills and broken the ice in our skating-grounds. We complained, and they, calling us young rebels, told us to help ourselves if we could. We told the captain of this, and he laughed at us. Yesterday our works were destroyed for the third time, and we will bear it no longer." Gage admired the spirit of the boys, promised them redress, and, turning to an officer, he said, "The very children here draw in a love of liberty with the air they breathe."

Boston First Incorporated a City. In 1822 Boston was first incorporated a city, and John Phillips was elected the first mayor. It then contained about fifty thousand inhabitants. The first of May was appointed by the charter the beginning of its municipal year, and the ceremonies of inducting the mayor and other officers into their official places were attended at Faneuil Hall. After an introductory prayer by Rev. Dr. Baldwin, senior minister of the city, Chief-justice Parker administered the oaths of allegiance and office to the mayor-elect, who administered similar oaths to other officers. The chairman of the selectmen then arose, and, after an address to the mayor, delivered to him the city charter, contained in a superb silver case, with the ancient act incorporating the town nearly two hundred years before. Boston is now (1876) the seventh city in the Union in population.

Boston, First Settlement of. On a peninsula on the south side of the mouth of the Charles River (which the natives called Shawmut, but which the English named Tri-mountain, because of its three hills) lived William Blackstone, a supposed Episcopal minister, who went there from Plymouth about 1623. (See *Blackstone.*) He went over to Charlestown to pay his respects to Governor Winthrop, and informed him that upon Shawmut was a spring of excellent water. He invited Winthrop to come over. The governor, with others, crossed the river, and finding the situation there delightful, began a settlement by the erection of a few small cottages. At a court held at Charlestown in September, 1630, it was ordered that Tri-mountain should be called Boston. This name was given in honor of Rev. John Cotton, vicar of St. Botolph's Church at Boston, in Lincolnshire, England, from which place many of the settlers came. The governor, with most of his assistants, removed their families to Boston, and it soon became the capital of New England.

Boston Instructs its Representatives. As soon as intelligence of the introduction of the Stamp Act into Parliament reached Boston, a town-meeting was called (May, 1764), and the representatives of that municipality were instructed to stand by the chartered rights of the colonists; to oppose every encroachment upon them; to oppose all taxation then in contemplation; and concluded by saying, "As his Majesty's other Northern American colonies are embarked with us in this most important bottom, we further desire you to use your best endeavors that their weight may be added to that of this province, and that, by the united applications of all who are aggrieved, all may happily obtain redress."

Boston Massacre, FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE. On the 5th of March each year the "Boston massacre" was commemorated by a public meeting and an oration. In 1775 the orator was young Dr. Joseph Warren. Gage regarded the commemoration, and especially the subject of the oration, as an affront to himself and his officers, for it was on the baleful effects of standing armies in times of peace. The offence was heightened because it was delivered to the town in a town-meeting, contrary to an act of Parliament which Gage was there to enforce. Among the crowd that overflowed the South Meeting-house were about forty British officers of the army and navy. Samuel Adams presided, and, with studied courtesy, placed these officers near the orator, some of them on the platform. Warren drew a vivid picture of the horrid scenes on the night of the massacre. He inveighed against the attempt of Parliament to tax the Americans without their consent. He alluded to the "malice of the Port Bill." He declared that the sending of troops to Boston had been, in one respect, beneficial to the colony; for their discipline showed the youth of America how to use arms effectively. "Charles the Invincible," he said, "taught Peter the Great the art of war; the battle of Pultowa convinced Charles of the proficiency Peter had made." The whole oration was a stinging commentary on the errand of the British troops in Boston. When, at the conclusion, a motion was made for the appointment of an orator for the ensuing year, the British officers began to hiss. The audience became greatly excited and threatened vengeance for the insult, but at the command of Adams order was soon restored. The army was maddened, and officers and soldiers thirsted for revenge. They really seemed to try to provoke the people into some act that would give them a pretext for slaughter.

Boston Massacre, THE (1770). The British troops in Boston were a continual source of irritation. Daily occurrences exasperated the people against the soldiers. The words "tyrant" and "rebel" frequently passed between them. Finally an occurrence apparently trifling in itself led to riot and bloodshed in the streets of Boston. A rope-maker quarrelled with a soldier and struck him. Out of this grew a fight between several soldiers and rope-makers, when the latter were beaten; and the event aroused the more excitable portion of the citizens. A few evenings afterwards (March 5, 1770) about seven hundred of them assembled in the streets for the avowed purpose of attacking the troops. Near the Custom-house a sentinel was assaulted with missiles, when Captain Preston, commander of the guard, went to his rescue with eight men. The mob attacked these soldiers with stones, pieces of ice, and other missiles, daring them to fire. One of the soldiers who received a blow fired, and his companions, mistaking an order, fired also. Three of the populace were killed and five were dangerously wounded. The leader of the mob (who was killed) was a powerful mulatto or Indian named Crispus Attucks. The mob instantly retreated, when all the bells of the city rang out an alarm, and in less than an hour several thousands of exasperated citizens were in the streets. A terrible scene of bloodshed might have ensued had not Governor Hutchinson assured the people that justice should be vindicated in the morning. They retired, but were firmly resolved not to endure military despotism any longer. The governor was called upon at an early hour to fulfil his promise. The people demanded the instant removal of the troops from Boston and the trial of Captain Preston and his men for murder. Their demands were complied with. The troops were removed to Castle William (March 12), and Preston, ably defended by John Adams and Josiah Quincy, two of the popular leaders in Boston, was tried and acquitted, with six of his men, by a Boston jury. This loyalty to justice and truth, in the midst of unreasoning public excitement, gave the friends of the Americans in England a powerful argument in favor of being just towards the colonists.

Boston Neck Fortified (1774). Alarmed by warlike preparations everywhere, General Gage began to fortify Boston Neck, for the purpose of defence only, as he declared. The Neck was a narrow isthmus that connected the peninsula of Shawmut, on which Boston stood, with the mainland at Roxbury. He also removed the seat of government from Salem back to Boston. The work of fortifying went slowly on, for British gold could not buy the labor of Boston carpenters, though suffering from the dreadful depression, and workmen had to be procured elsewhere. Workmen and timber shipped at New York for Boston for carrying on the fortifications were detained by the "Sons of Liberty" in the latter city. Finally the fortifications were completed, and became the source of great irritation among the people. They stretched entirely across the isthmus, and intercourse between the town and country was narrowed to a passage guarded by a military sentinel. The fortifications consisted of a line of works of timber and earth, with port-holes for cannon, a strongly built sally-port in the centre, and pickets extending into the water at each end.

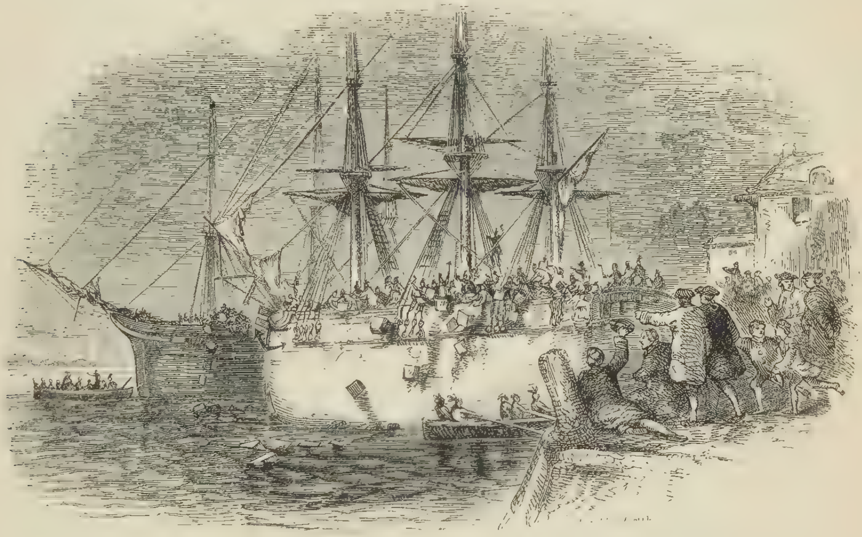
VIEW OF THE LINES ON BOSTON NECK.

Boston Port Bill. When intelligence reached London of the destruction of tea in Boston harbor there was almost universal indignation, and the friends of the Americans were abashed. Ministerial anger rose to a high pitch, and Lord North introduced into Parliament (March 14, 1774) a bill providing for the shutting-up of the port of Boston and removing the seat of government to Salem. The measure was popular. Even Barré and Conway gave it their approval, and the Bostonians removed their portraits from Faneuil Hall. Violent language was used in Parliament against the people of Boston. "They ought to have their town knocked about their ears and destroyed," said a member, and concluded his tirade of abuse by quoting the factious cry of the Romans, "Delenda est Carthago." Burke denounced the bill as unjust, as it would punish the innocent for the sins of the guilty. The bill was passed by an almost unanimous vote, and became a law March 31, 1774.

Boston Port Bill IN BOSTON. The king believed that the torture which the closing of the port of Boston (see *Boston Port Bill*) would inflict upon the inhabitants of that town would make them speedily cry for mercy and procure unconditional obedience. Not so. When the act was received at Boston, its committee of correspondence invited eight of the neighboring towns to a conference "on the critical state of public affairs." At three o'clock on the afternoon of May 12, 1774, the committees of Dorchester, Roxbury, Brookline, Newtown, Cambridge, Charlestown, Lynn, and Lexington joined them in Faneuil Hall. Samuel Adams was chosen chairman. They denounced the Boston Port Act as cruel and unjust, by accusing, trying, and condemning the town of Boston without a hearing, contrary to natural right as well as the laws of civilized nations. The delegates from the eight towns were told that if Boston should pay for the tea (see *Boston Tea Party*), the port would not be closed; but their neighbors held such a measure to be uncalled for under the circumstances, and the humiliating offer not worthy to be thought of. They nobly promised to join "their suffering brethren in every measure of relief."

Boston Report and Address ON SALARIES OF CROWN OFFICERS. In July, 1772, the General Assembly of Massachusetts expressed their dissatisfaction at the new regulation, by which the governor was to receive his salary from the crown. They regarded it as an infraction of their charter, declaring that it provided for the support of all the civil officers of the colonial government by the colony itself, independent of the crown. The governor opposed them. The inhabitants of Boston took up the matter in town meeting. They appointed a committee who were instructed to inquire whether the regulation complained of had actually taken place. The governor chose not to tell them. They then requested him to allow the General Court to meet at the time to which it was adjourned. The governor refused. At another town meeting (Nov. 2, 1772) a large committee of the most respectable citizens was chosen to state the rights of the colonists, and of those of Massachusetts in particular; to communicate the same to the several towns in the province; and to request each town to communicate to the committee their sentiments on the subject. This was the origin of the Massachusetts Committee of Correspondence (which see). The towns heartily approved the report and address.

Boston Tea Party, a popular name given to an occurrence in Boston Harbor in December, 1773. To compel Great Britain to be just towards her American colonies, in the matter of enforced taxation in the form of duties upon articles imported into the colonies, imposed by English navigation laws, the merchants of the latter entered into agreements not to import anything from Great Britain while such oppressive laws existed. The consequence was, British manufacturers and shipping-merchants felt the loss of the American trade severely. The Parliament had declared their *right* to tax the colonists without their consent; the latter took the position that "taxation without representation is tyranny," and resisted. The quarrel had grown hotter and hotter. Some of the duties were removed under pressure; but several articles, among them tea, were still burdened by duties in 1773. The English East India Company felt the loss of their American customers for tea, of which they had the monopoly, most severely, and offered to pay the government, as an export duty, more than the threepence a pound exacted in America, if they might deliver it there free of duty. The government considered itself in honor bound to enforce its laws, just or unjust, instead of conciliating the Americans by compliance. It allowed the East India Company to take their tea to America on their own account free of export duty. As this arrangement would enable the Americans to procure their tea as cheaply as if it were duty free, the ministry supposed they would submit. But there was a *principle* which the colonists would not yield. However small the tax, if levied *without their consent*, they *regarded it as oppressive.* They refused to allow any cargo of tea even to be landed in some of their ports. Vessels were sent immediately back with their cargoes untouched. Two ships laden with tea were moored at a wharf in Boston, and the royal governor and his friends attempted to have their cargoes landed in defiance of the popular will. An immense indignation meeting of the citizens was held in the Old South Meeting-house (see p. 10); and, at twilight, on a cold moonlit evening, on the 16th of December, 1773, about sixty men, disguised as Indians, rushed, by preconcert, to the wharf, boarded the vessels, tore open the hatches, and cast three hundred and forty chests of tea into the waters of the harbor. The citizens of Boston offered to pay for the tea. The government punished them by closing their port the next year against all commerce and navigation. (See *Boston Port Bill.*)


CASTING TEA OVERBOARD IN BOSTON HARBOR.

Bostonians, SLANDERS AGAINST. After the destruction of the tea in Boston harbor, the most extravagant stories were told in England and believed about the barbarism and perfect unruliness of the people of that town. Ministers actually made the king believe that they had a regular committee for tarring and feathering crown officers and their friends in the colony. The press was employed to rouse the indignation of the people against the Americans, until their zeal for the maintenance of England's supremacy in the colonies became a passion. The merchants and manufacturers were made to believe that their command of the American market depended on the enforcement of the claim of parliamentary authority in all things whatsoever. For a moment Americans seemed hardly to have a friend in England; and it was under this cloud that the Boston Port Bill (which see) became a law, and was eagerly signed by the king—the act that dissevered the realm.

Botetourt (NORBORNE BERKELEY), BARON, Governor of Virginia, was born in Gloucestershire, England, about 1717; died at Williamsburg, Va., Oct. 15, 1770. But little is known of his career in his earlier life. He was colonel of the Gloucestershire militia, and was summoned to Parliament as Baron Botetourt (the title having been in abeyance since 1406) in April, 1764. He succeeded Sir Jeffrey Amherst as governor-in-chief of Virginia, and arrived there in November, 1768. Having been instructed to assume great dignity, he appeared in the streets of Williamsburg in a coach, with guards and other insignia of vice-regal pomp; and entered upon his duties with a determination to enforce submission to parliamentary authority. With a generous mind he perceived the righteousness of colonial indignation because of the taxation schemes of the ministry, and he forwarded to England remonstrances of the representatives of the people, with his own opinion against the wisdom and justice of parliamentary measures. In interfering with the wishes of the people, he obeyed instructions rather than the promptings of his own will. A malarial fever which attacked him was so aggravated by chagrin because of the aspect of political affairs that he died at his post. The colony erected his statue in front of the Capitol in 1774, for he was generally beloved by the people. In 1797 it was removed to the front of William and Mary College, of which he was a benefactor; and thence it was taken to the enclosure of the Asylum for the Insane in Williamsburg during the late Civil War.

Boudinot, ELIAS, LL.D., of Huguenot descent, was born in Philadelphia, May 2, 1740; died at Burlington, N. J., Oct. 24, 1821. He began the practice of law in New Jersey, and was an early advocate of freedom for the American colonies. Congress appointed him commissary-general of prisoners, in 1777; and during the same year he was elected a member of that body. He became its president in 1782, and as such he signed the ratification of the treaty of peace. Mr. Boudinot resumed the practice of law in 1789. In 1796 Washington appointed him superintendent of the mint, which position he held until 1805, when he resigned all public employments, and retired to Burlington. On becoming trustee of the college at Princeton in 1805, he endowed it with a valuable cabinet of natural history. Mr. Boudinot took great interest in foreign missions, and became a member of the board of commissioners in 1812; and in 1816 he was chosen the first president of the American Bible Society (which see), to both of which and to benevolent institutions he made munificent donations. Dr. Boudinot was the author of *The Age of Revelation; Second Advent of the Messiah;* and *Star in the West, or an Attempt to Discover the Long-lost Tribes of Israel.*

Boundaries, The, between Connecticut and New Netherland settled. On Sept. 19, 1650, Peter Stuyvesant, Governor of New Netherland, arrived at Hartford, and demanded of the commissioner of the Connecticut colony a full surrender of the lands on the Connecticut River. After a consultation for several days, it was agreed to leave the matter to arbitrators. The commissioner chose Simon Bradstreet, of Massachusetts, and Thomas Prince, of Plymouth; Stuyvesant chose Thomas Willett and George Baxter, both Englishmen. It was agreed that on Long Island a line should be drawn from the westernmost part of Oyster Bay straight to the sea; the easterly part to belong to the English, the remainder to the Dutch. On the mainland a line should begin at the west side of Greenwich Bay, about four miles from Stamford, and run northerly twenty miles; and beyond that distance, as it should be agreed by the two governments of the Dutch and New Haven, provided that line should not come within ten miles of Hudson's River. It was also agreed that the Dutch should not build a house within six miles of the dividing line.

Boundary, The, between New Netherlands and Maryland. In 1659 a deputation arrived at New Amsterdam from Maryland to present the claim of Lord Baltimore to the whole territory of the "South River," or Delaware, to forty degrees north latitude. The Dutch resorted to negotiation instead of a hopeless open resistance by arms, though the courageous Stuyvesant was disposed to do so. After much discussion the Baltimore patent was shown to the commissioners, in which was a clause limiting the proprietor's grant to lands hitherto uncultivated and inhabited only by Indians. The Dutch commissioners rested their case on this clause. They argued that the South River (Delaware) region was distinctly excluded from Lord Baltimore's patent by its own terms, inasmuch as when the grant was made that country had been purchased of the Indians by the Dutch some time before. The argument was unanswerable. Here the controversy about jurisdiction ceased, but the matter was never adjusted between the Dutch and English.

Boundary, The, between New York and Connecticut was long a subject of dispute, and has not been definitely settled with exactness. On the surrender of New Netherland to the English (1664) and the change of its name to New York, the commissioners to whom the conquest of the Dutch province and the settlement of troubles in New England had been intrusted, proceeded to define the boundary between the two colonies. It was decided that the boundary should be twenty miles east of the Hudson River and run parallel to it. It was determined that the line should run N.N.W. from tide-water on the Mamaroneck to the southern limits of Massachusetts; but it was found that this line would cross the Hudson in the Highlands and not run parallel with it—certainly not twenty miles east of it. The commissioners reversed their decision, and the controversy was renewed. In 1683 another boundary commission was appointed. It was finally agreed to allow New York the whole of Long Island and all the islands in the Sound to within a few rods of the Connecticut shore, and Connecticut to extend her boundaries west along the Sound to a point within about fifteen miles of the Hudson, the strip extending an average of about eight miles north of the Sound; New York to receive a compensation in the north by the surrender of a narrow tract of 61,440 acres, called "The Oblong," by Connecticut. The lines were established in 1731; but the exact line remaining a subject of dispute, commissioners were appointed in 1856 to fix it, but they failed to agree. (See *New York.*)

Boundary, The, between Pennsylvania and Maryland. In 1733 the proprietary of Maryland agreed with the heirs of Penn that the boundary-line between their respective provinces and Delaware should be as follows: For the southern boundary of Delaware, a line commencing at Cape Henlopen, to be drawn due west from Delaware Bay to the Chesapeake. The west boundary of Delaware was to be a tangent drawn from the middle point of this line to a circle of twelve miles radius around New Castle. A due west line, continued northward to a parallel of latitude fifteen miles south of Philadelphia, was to be the southern boundary of Pennsylvania. On his arrival in Maryland, the proprietary, on the plea of misrepresentation, refused to be bound by this agreement. He petioned the king to be confirmed in possession of the whole peninsula between the Chesapeake and Delaware Bays. The boundary was finally determined (see *Mason and Dixon's Line*) substantially in accordance with the original agreement.

Boundary, The, between the provinces of New York and Massachusetts was a subject of long dispute. It was finally settled in 1773 by commissioners respectively appointed by Governors Tryon of New York and Hutchinson of Massachusetts. These magistrates attended the convention held for the purpose at Hartford in May, 1773, and, with the commissioners, signed the agreement.

Boundbrook, ACTION AT. A considerable force under General Lincoln, detached to guard the upper valley of the Raritan River, in New Jersey, was stationed at Boundbrook in April, 1777. It was not far from a British post at New Brunswick. Owing to the negligence of a militia guard, Lincoln came near being surprised by a detachment under Cornwallis, which marched out of New Brunswick (April 13) and fell suddenly upon the Americans. The latter, after a sharp action, escaped with the loss of twenty men, two pieces of artillery, and some baggage.

Bouquet, HENRY, was born at Ralle, Switzerland, in 1719; died at Pensacola, Fla., in February, 1766. In 1748 he was lieutenant-colonel of the Swiss Guard in the service of Holland; and he entered the English service with the same rank in 1756. In 1762 he was made colonel, and in 1765 brigadier-general. Bouquet was active in Western Pennsylvania in connection with operations against Fort Duquesne (which see); also in relieving Fort Pitt in 1763. (See *Pontiac's War.*) In 1764 he subdued the Ohio Indians, and compelled the Shawnoese and Delawares to make peace. (See *Bouquet's Expedition.*) Dr. William Smith, of Philadelphia, wrote a history of this expedition, and published it in 1765, with plates and a map.

Bouquet River, BURGOYNE AT. Burgoyne, on his way up Lake Champlain, landed some of his troops, encamped (June 21, 1777) at the falls of the Bouquet River (now Willsborough, Essex Co., N. Y.), and there gave a war-feast to about four hundred Indians (Algonquins, Iroquois, and Ottawas), who were accompanied by Roman Catholic priests. They had come to join the British army in the campaign. Burgoyne made a speech to them, in which he tried to soften their savagism and restrain their ferocious thirst for blood. At the same time he exhorted them to fight valiantly for the king. These Indians promised much, but performed little.

Bouquet's Expedition. During Pontiac's War (which see), Fort Pitt (now Pittsburgh, Penn.) was in imminent danger, and Colonel Bouquet was sent to its relief. He arrived at Fort Bedford, in Western Pennsylvania, on July 25, 1763, in the neighborhood of which eighteen persons had been made prisoners or scalped by the Indians. The barbarians were then besieging Fort Pitt. So soon as they heard of the approach of Bouquet, they raised the siege with the intention of meeting and attacking him. Uncertain of their strength and motives, Bouquet left Fort Bedford and went to Fort Ligonier, where he left his wagons and stores, and pushed on towards Fort Pitt, with the troops in light marching order, and 340 pack-horses carrying flour. On Aug. 5 his advanced guard was attacked near Bushy Run by Indians in ambuscade, who were driven some distance by the troops. The barbarians returned to the attack, and a general action ensued, the Indians being continually repulsed and then returning to the fight. They were finally driven from their posts with fixed bayonets and dispersed. They rallied, and the next morning surrounded Bouquet's camp. After a severe conflict, they were again dispersed. In these engagements the English lost fifty killed and sixty wounded. Colonel Bouquet reached Fort Pitt four days afterwards, and the campaign was closed.

Bowditch, NATHANIEL, LL.D., F.R.S., mathematician and astronomer, was born at Salem, Mass., March 26, 1773; died in Boston March 16, 1838. With meagre education, he learned the business of a ship-chandler, and then spent nine years on the sea, attaining the rank of master. With great native talent and equal industry, he became one of the greatest men of science of his time. While he was yet on the sea he published (1800) his *Practical Navigator*. He made the first entire translation into English of La Place's *Mécanique Céleste*, and published it, in four volumes, in 1829, with most valuable commentaries, in which were recorded the more recent discoveries in astronomy. It was estimated that there were at that time only two or three persons in America, and not more than twelve in Great Britain, who were able to read the original work critically. La Place added much to his work many years after it was published. Bowditch translated this supplement; and it has been published, as a fifth volume, under the editorial care of Professor Benjamin Pierce, with an elaborate commentary. Bowditch had acquired a knowledge of various languages, and drew his great store of knowledge from many sources. He became a member of the principal scientific societies in Europe.

NATHANIEL BOWDITCH.

Bowdoin, JAMES, was Governor of Massachusetts at the time of Shays's Insurrection (which see). He was a descendant of Pierre Bowdoin, a Huguenot who fled to America from persecution in France. He was born in Boston, Aug. 8, 1727; died Nov. 6, 1790. He graduated at Harvard in 1745, and became a member of the General Court, a senator of Massachusetts, and a councillor. He espoused the cause of the colonists, was President of the Massachusetts Council in 1775, and was chosen president of the convention that framed the state constitution. He succeeded Hancock as governor of the state. By vigorous measures he soon suppressed the rebellion led by Daniel Shays. His son James, born Sept. 22, 1752, and died Oct. 11, 1811, also graduated at Harvard (1771), and afterwards spent a year at Oxford. He was minister to Spain from 1805 to 1808; and while in Paris he purchased an extensive library, philosophical apparatus, and a collection of paintings, which, with a fine cabinet of minerals, he left at his death to Bowdoin College, Maine, so named in honor of his father. He had before made a donation to the college of one thousand acres of land and more than $5000 in money. By his will he also gave the college six thousand acres of land and the reversion of the Island of Naushon, one of the Elizabeth Islands (which see), in Buzzard's Bay, where he died.

Bowyer, Fort, Attack upon (1814). At the entrance to Mobile Bay, thirty miles from the village of Mobile, was Fort Bowyer (now Fort Morgan), occupying the extremity of a narrow cape on the eastern side of that entrance, and commanding the channel between it and Fort Dauphin opposite. It was a small work, in semicircular form towards the channel, without bomb-proofs, and mounting only twenty guns, nearly all of them 12-pounders. It was the chief defence of Mobile; and in it Jackson, on his return from Pensacola, placed Major William Lawrence and 130 men. On Sept. 12, 1814, a British squadron appeared off Mobile Point with land troops, and very soon Lieutenant-colonel Nichols appeared in rear of the fort with a few marines and 600 Indians. The squadron consisted of the *Hermes*, 22 guns; *Sophia*, 18; *Caron*, 20; and *Anaconda*, 18—the whole under Captain Percy, the commander of a squadron of nine vessels which Jackson drove from Pensacola Bay. (See *Pensacola*, 1814.) By a skilful use of his twenty cannon, Lawrence dispersed parties who tried to cast up intrenchments and sound the channel. Early in the afternoon of the 15th the British began an attack on land and water. The garrison adopted as the signal for the day "Don't give up the fort." A fierce and general battle ensued, and continued until half-past five o'clock, when the flag of the *Hermes* was shot away. Lawrence ceased firing to ascertain whether she had surrendered. This humane act was answered by a broadside from another vessel. A raking fire soon disabled the *Hermes*. At length the flagstaff of the fort was shot away, when the ships redoubled their fire. Supposing the fort had surrendered, the British leader on land assailed it with his Indians. He was soon undeceived. They were driven back by a terrible storm of grape-shot, and fled in terror. The battered ships withdrew, all but the *Hermes*. She was set on fire by her friends, and at midnight her magazine exploded. The British, who had brought to bear upon Fort Bowyer 92 pieces of artillery, and arrayed over 1300 men against a garrison of 130, were repulsed with a loss of 232 men, of whom 162 were killed. The loss of the Americans was four men killed and four wounded.

Bowyer, Fort, Surrender of. When the British left the vicinity of New Orleans (Jan. 19, 1815) they proceeded to attack Fort Bowyer, yet commanded by Major Lawrence. They besieged it nearly two days, when the commander was compelled, by a superior force, to surrender it. The British were about to attack defenceless Mobile, when news of peace caused the arrest of further attempt at conquest.

Boyd, John Parker, was born at Newburyport, Mass., Dec. 21, 1768; died in Boston Oct. 4, 1830. He entered the military service of the United States in 1786, but soon afterwards went to the East Indies and entered the Mahratta service, in which he rose to the rank of commander, and at one time led ten thousand men. He first raised three battalions of five hundred men each, with a few English officers, whom, as well as his men, he hired, at a certain amount a month, to any of the Indian princes who needed their services. Their equipment, including guns and elephants, was at his own expense. He was at one time in the pay of Holkar, in the Peishawa's service, and afterwards in that of Neham Ali Khan. Arriving at Madras in July, 1789, he was given, by the ruler, the command of ten thousand men. When demands for his services almost ceased, he sold out and went to Paris. In 1808 he returned to the United States, and re-entered the army as colonel of the Fourth Infantry on Oct. 7 of that year. In that capacity he was distinguished in the battle at Tippecanoe (which see), Nov. 7, 1811. Boyd was commissioned brigadier-general Aug. 26, 1812. He was in command of fifteen hundred men in the expedition down the St. Lawrence in 1813; and fought bravely at Chrysler's Field, in Canada, Nov. 11, 1813. (See *Chrysler's Field*.) He led his brigade in the capture of Fort George, Upper Canada. General Boyd was Naval Officer at the port of Boston in 1830.

JOHN PARKER BOYD.

Boydton Plank-road, Battle of (1864). Since the possession of the Weldon road (which see) by the Nationals, the Boydton plank-road had become the chief channel of communication for Lee in that quarter, and he had extended his intrenchments along its line to the vicinity of Hatcher's Run. The corps of Warren and Parke were sent to assail the extreme right of these intrenchments, while Hancock's corps and Gregg's cavalry, well towards its left, should swing around to the west side of Hatcher's Run, sweep across the Boydton road, and seize the Southside Railway. The Boydton road was a few miles west of the Weldon Railway. The movement began on the morning of Oct. 27, 1864, and at nine o'clock the Confederate line was struck, but it was not broken. Warren's corps made its way to the west of Hatcher's Run to gain the Confederate rear. Crawford's division got entangled and broken in an almost impassable swamp. An attempt of a part of Howard's corps to form a junction with Crawford's troops was defeated by the tangled swamp. These movements had been eagerly watched by the Confederates. Heth was sent by Hill to strike Hancock. It was done at four o'clock, P.M. The blow first fell upon Pierce's brigade, and it gave way, leaving two guns behind. The Confederates were pursuing, when they, in turn, were struck by the Nationals, driven back, and the two guns recaptured. Full one thousand Confederates were made prisoners. Others, in their flight, rushed into Crawford's lines, and two hundred of them were made prisoners. Meanwhile Hancock had been sorely pressed on his left and rear by five brigades under Wade Hampton. Gregg fought them, and with infantry supports maintained his ground until dark. In these encounters Hancock lost about fifteen hundred men, and the Confederates about an equal number. Hancock withdrew at midnight, and the whole National force retired behind their intrenchments at Petersburg. The movement was intended to favor Butler's operations on the north side of the James River. (See *Fort Harrison.*)

Braceti, or Brazito, BATTLE OF (1846). Colonel Alexander W. Doniphan, in command of one thousand mounted volunteers from Missouri, was detached from General Kearney's command for independent service. In November, 1846, he marched towards Chihuáhua, Mexico, after forcing the Navajo Indians to make a treaty of peace. His object was to join the forces under General Wool. At Braceti, or Brazito, in the valley of the Rio del Norte, not far from El Paso, he was attacked, in his camp, by a large Mexican force (Dec. 22) under General Ponce de Leon, who sent a black flag, bearing the device of a skull and cross-bones, to the American commander, with the message, "We will neither take nor give quarter." Doniphan was surprised, and his men had not time to saddle their horses before the foe — infantry, cavalry, and artillery—assailed them. Doniphan hastily drew up his men in front of his camp. The Mexicans fired three rounds in quick succession, and the Missourians all fell upon their faces. The Mexicans, supposing them all to be slain, rushed forward to plunder the dead, when the Americans suddenly arose, poured deadly volleys from their rifles, killed about two hundred of the foe, seized their cannon, and dispersed the whole body of the assailants.

Braddock, DEATH OF. Competent testimony seems to prove that General Braddock, who was mortally wounded in the battle of the Monongahela (July 9, 1755) was shot by Thomas Faucett, one of the provincial soldiers. His plea in extenuation of the crime was self-preservation. Braddock, who had spurned the advice of Washington about the method of fighting Indians, had issued a positive order that none of the English should protect themselves behind trees, as the French and Indians did. Faucett's brother had taken such a position, and when Braddock perceived it, he struck him to the earth with his sword. Thomas, on seeing his brother fall, shot Braddock in the back, and then the provincials, fighting as they pleased, were saved from utter destruction.

Braddock, GENERAL EDWARD, born in Perthshire, Scotland; died July 13, 1755. Entered the army as ensign in the Coldstream Guards. He served in the wars in Flanders, received a commission as brigadier-general in 1746, and major-general in March, 1754. He arrived in Virginia in February, 1755; conducted an expedition against Fort Duquesne, and was mortally wounded in battle (it is believed by one of his own men) in July. (See *Braddock's Defeat.*) General Braddock was haughty and egotistical, and his private character was not good, he being known as a gambler and spendthrift.

GENERAL EDWARD BRADDOCK.

Braddock's Defeat. General Edward Braddock, in command of an expedition against Fort Duquesne, commenced his march from

Will's Creek (Cumberland, Md.), June 10, 1755, with about two thousand men, regulars and provincials. Anxious to reach his destination before Fort Duquesne should receive reinforcements, he made forced marches with twelve hundred men, leaving Colonel Dunbar, his second in command, to follow with the remainder and the wagon-train. On the morning of July 9 the little army forded the Monongahela River, and advanced in solid platoons along the southern shores of that stream. Washington saw the perilous arrangement of the troops after the fashion of European tactics, and he ventured to advise Braddock to disperse his army in open order and employ the Indian mode of fighting in the forests. The haughty general angrily replied, "What! a provincial colonel teach a British general how to fight!" The army moved on, recrossed the river to the north side, and was marching in fancied security at about noon, when they were suddenly assailed by volleys of bullets and clouds of arrows on their front and flanks. They had fallen into an ambush, against which Washington had vainly warned Braddock. The assailants were French regulars, Canadians, and Indians, less than one thousand in number, under De Beaujeu, who had been sent from Fort Duquesne by Contrecœur (see *Fort Duquesne*), and who fell at the first onslaught. The suddenness of the attack and the horrid war-whoop of the Indians, which the British regulars had never heard before, disconcerted them, and they fell into great confusion. Braddock, seeing the peril, took the front of the fight, and by voice and example encouraged his men. For more than two hours the battle raged fearfully. Of eighty-six English officers sixty-three were killed or wounded; so, also, were one half the private soldiers. All of Braddock's aids were disabled excepting Washington, who, alone unhurt, distributed the general's orders. Braddock had five horses shot under him, and finally he, too, fell, mortally wounded. (See *Braddock, Death of.*) The provincials fought bravely, and nearly all were killed. The remnant of the regulars broke and fled when Braddock fell. Washington, who was left in chief command, perceiving the day was lost, rallied the few provincial troops, and, carrying with him his dying general, gallantly covered the retreat. The enemy did not pursue. The British left their cannons and their dead on the battle-field. Three days after the battle, Braddock died, and was buried in the forest more than fifty miles from Cumberland. Washington, surrounded by sorrowing officers, read the funeral service of the Church of England by torch-light at his grave. (See *French and Indian War.*)

Bradford, William, first printer in Pennsylvania and New York, was born at Leicester, England, in 1659; died in New York, May 23, 1752. A Friend, or Quaker, he came to America with Penn's early colonists in 1682, and landed near the spot where Philadelphia was afterwards built. He had learned the printer's trade in London, and, in 1686, he printed an almanac in Philadelphia. Mixed up in a political and social dispute in Pennsylvania, and suffering thereby, he removed to New York in 1693, and in that year printed the laws of that colony. He began the first newspaper in New York, Oct. 16, 1725—the *New York Gazette*. He was printer to the government of New York more than fifty years, and for thirty years the only one in the province.

Bradford, William, Governor of Plymouth Colony, was a passenger in the *Mayflower*. He was born at Austerfield, Yorkshire, England, in March, 1588; died at Plymouth, New England, May 9, 1657. At the early age of seventeen years he made an attempt to leave England with dissenters, for Holland (see *Pilgrim Fathers*), and suffered imprisonment. He finally joined his dissenting brethren at Amsterdam, learned the art of silk-dyeing, and, coming into the possession of a considerable estate at the age of twenty-one years, he engaged successfully in commerce. One of Mr. Robinson's congregation at Leyden, he accompanied the "Pilgrims" to America, and was one of the foremost in selecting a site for the colony. Before the "Pilgrims" landed, his wife fell into the sea from the *Mayflower*, and was drowned. He succeeded John Carver (April 5, 1621) as Governor of Plymouth Colony. He cultivated friendly relations with the Indians; and he was annually rechosen governor as long as he lived, excepting in five years. He wrote a history of Plymouth colony from 1620 to 1647, which was published by the Massachusetts Historical Society in 1856.

Bradstreet, John, was born in 1711; died in New York city, Sept. 25, 1774. He was lieutenant-colonel of Pepperell's regiment in the expedition against Louisburg in 1745; and in September, the same year, he was made a captain of a regular regiment. The following year he was appointed Lieutenant-governor of St. Johns, Newfoundland — a sinecure place. Braddock ordered him to accompany Shirley to Oswego, in 1755, as his adjutant; and in 1756 he was charged with conveying supplies to Oswego. In 1757 he was appointed captain of a company in the regiment of Royal Americans; and late in the same year he was promoted to lieutenant-colonel of the same regiment, and deputy quartermaster-general, with the rank of colonel. He was quartermaster-general of Abercrombie's forces, with the rank of colonel, in the expedition against Ticonderoga in July, 1758; and in August he led an expedition which captured Fort Frontenac. Bradstreet was with Amherst in his expedition against Ticonderoga and Crown Point in 1759. In May, 1762, he was commissioned a major-general, and in 1764 he commanded an expedition against the western Indians.

Bradstreet, Simon, Governor of Massachusetts, was born in Lincolnshire, England, in March, 1603; died at Salem, Mass., March 27, 1697. After studying one year in college, young Bradstreet became steward to the Countess of Warwick. He married Anne, a daughter of Thomas Dudley, and was persuaded to engage in the settlement of Massachusetts. Invested with the office of judge, he arrived at Salem in the summer of 1630. The next year he was among the founders of Cambridge, and was one of the first settlers at Andover. Very active, he was almost continually in public life, and lived at Salem, Ipswich, and Boston. He was Secretary, Agent, and Commissioner of the United Colonies of New England (see *New England Confederacy*); and in 1662 he was despatched to congratulate Charles II. on his restoration. He was assistant (see *Court of Assistants*) from 1630 to 1679, and deputy-governor from 1673 to 1679. From that time till 1686 (when the charter was annulled) he was governor. When, in 1689, Andros was imprisoned, he was restored to the office, which he held until the arrival of Governor Phipps, in 1692, with the new charter. His wife, Anne Bradstreet, was a poetess of considerable merit. Her poems were published in London in 1650, and a second edition was published in Boston in 1678.

Bradstreet's Expedition. Pontiac's War had filled the settlements on the western frontiers with dire alarm, and they sent piteous calls for help. In July, 1764, a little army of eleven hundred men, composed chiefly of provincial battalions from New Jersey, New York, and Connecticut, led by the gallant John Bradstreet (see *Fort Frontenac*), reached Fort Niagara on its way farther westward. Bradstreet found a large concourse of Indians there, of various nations, ready to renew friendship with the English, and expecting presents. The Senecas, to placate the English, brought in prisoners, and ratified a treaty of peace. On his march along the southern shores of Lake Erie, Bradstreet was met by dusky deputations from the Ohio country, who desired to have the chain of friendship brightened; and he made a treaty with the nations dwelling between Lake Erie and the Ohio. He was welcomed at Detroit with expressions of great respect and satisfaction; and from that post he sent a detachment to take possession of Mackinaw (which see). On Sept. 7, the Ottawas and Chippewas met Bradstreet in council, and, cashiering their old chiefs, the young warriors made a covenant of friendship with the English, as brothers, and asked for peace in the name of their wives and children. Pontiac did not appear, but was included in the treaty of peace then made. By that treaty the Indian country became a part of the royal domain; its tribes were bound to render aid to the English troops; and, in return, were promised English protection. (See *Pacification of the Indians in the West.*)

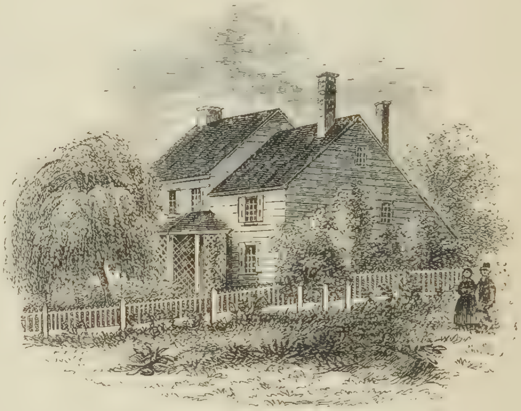
Bragg, Braxton, was born in Warren County, N. C., about 1815; died at Galveston, Tex., Sept. 27, 1876. He graduated at West Point Military Academy in 1837; entered the artillery; and served in the Seminole War and in the war with Mexico, receiving for good conduct in the latter several brevets and promotions. The last brevet was that of lieutenant-colonel, for Buena Vista, Feb. 23, 1847. He was made major in 1855; resigned the next year, and lived (an extensive planter) in Louisiana until the breaking out of the Civil War, when (March, 1861) he was made a brigadier-general in the Confederate army. Made major-general in February, 1862, he took an important part in the battle of Shiloh (which see) in April. He was made general in place of A. S. Johnston, killed; and in May succeeded Beauregard in command. Early in the fall he invaded Kentucky, but was driven out with much plunder. (See *Perryville.*) He fought Rosecrans with great spirit at Murfreesborough (December, 1862); was driven into Georgia in the summer of 1863; defeated Rosecrans at Chickamauga (which see) in September; and was defeated by Grant at Missionaries' Ridge late in November. A few weeks later he was relieved of command, but led a small force from North Carolina to Georgia in 1864. He lost favor with the Confederate leader.

Bragg's (CONFEDERATE) **Army Expelled from Tennessee.** The armies of Rosecrans and Bragg confronted each other for several months in Tennessee after the battle of Stone's River (which see). Rosecrans remained on the scene of the battle; Bragg was below the Duck River. Finally the Army of the Cumberland, in three divisions, commanded respectively by Generals Thomas, McCook, and Crittenden, began its march (June 23, 1863) from Murfreesborough to Chattanooga. General Burnside, in Kentucky, was ordered to move through the mountains into East Tennessee to co-operate with Rosecrans. At that time Bragg's left wing, under General (Bishop) Polk, lay at Shelbyville, behind formidable intrenchments about five miles in length, cast up by legally emancipated slaves drawn from Northern Georgia and Alabama. General Hardee, with 12,000 men, was at War Trace, on the railway between Murfreesborough and Chattanooga, and holding the front of rugged hills, behind which was a strongly intrenched camp at Tullahoma. Bragg had about 40,000 men, and Rosecrans 60,000. By skilful movements he manœuvred Bragg out of his strong position. The latter was pressed back to Tullahoma. Rosecrans meanwhile had seized mountain passes on Bragg's front and seriously menaced his flank. Perceiving this, Bragg turned and fled without giving a blow, the Nationals pressing hard upon his rear. Having the advantage of railway communication, the retreating forces very easily kept ahead of their pursuers; and passing rapidly over the Cumberland Mountains towards the Tennessee River, they crossed that stream at Bridgeport, destroying the bridge behind them, and made a rapid march to Chattanooga. The expulsion of Bragg from Tennessee alarmed and disheartened the Confederates, and they felt that everything depended upon their holding Chattanooga, the key to East Tennessee and Northern Georgia. Towards that point the Army of the Cumberland pressed on slowly; and late in August it had crossed the mountains, and was stretched along the Tennessee River from above Chattanooga many a league westward.

Bragg's Invasion of Kentucky. John Morgan, of Alabama, a famous guerilla chief, and N. B. Forrest, the leader of a strong cavalry force, had for some time (in 1862) roamed, with very little serious opposition, over Kentucky and Tennessee, preparatory to the invasion of the former by a large Confederate force under General Braxton Bragg. E. Kirby Smith, a native of Connecticut, led Bragg's advance. He entered Kentucky from East Tennessee, pushed rapidly to Lexington, after defeating a National force near Richmond, in that state, and was warmly welcomed by the Secessionists. The alarmed Legislature, sitting at Frankfort, fled to Louisville; while Smith pressed on towards the Ohio, where he was confronted by strong fortifications opposite Cincinnati. The invader recoiled, and falling back to Frankfort, awaited the arrival of Bragg, who entered Kentucky (Sept. 5) with forty regiments and as many cannons. His advance, 8000 strong, under General Chalmers, encountered a National force under Colonel Wilder at Mumfordsville, on the line of the Nashville and Louisville Railway. The Confederates were repulsed; but Wilder was compelled to yield to General Polk a few days later. Bragg joined Smith at Frankfort, where the combined armies numbered about 65,000 effective men. He now expected to make an easy march to Louisville, but was confronted by General Buell, who had been marching abreast of Bragg. Buell suddenly turned upon Bragg with about 60,000 troops, and a fierce battle ensued near Perryville (Oct. 8, 1862), in which the invaders were so roughly handled that they fled in haste towards East Tennessee, followed by their marauding bands, who had plundered the inhabitants in every direction. Indeed, the whole expedition seemed to be a plundering raid. It was disastrous to Bragg, who soon afterwards abandoned Kentucky.

Brandy Station, SKIRMISH NEAR. While Meade, with the Army of the Potomac, was halting on the north side of the Rappahannock River, in the summer of 1863, his cavalry were not idle. On Aug. 1, General Buford, with his troopers, dashed across that river, struck Stuart's cavalry, and pushed them back almost to Culpepper Court-house. So vigorous and sudden was the assault that the daring Confederate leader and his staff came near being captured at a house near Brandy Station, where they were about to dine. They left their dinner untouched and immediately decamped, leaving the viands to be eaten by the Union officers. Buford pursued, and from Auburn (the residence of the stanch Virginia Unionist, John Minor Botts) there was a running fight back towards Brandy Station; for, strongly confronted there by Stuart, Buford became a fugitive in turn. In that engagement he lost one hundred and forty men, of whom sixteen were killed.

Brandywine, BATTLE ON THE. When Washington learned that Howe was ascending Chesapeake Bay in the fleet of his brother, he marched (Aug. 24, 1777) from Philadelphia to meet him. At about the time he reached Wilmington Howe was landing his army, 18,000 strong, at the head of the Elk River, fifty-four miles from Philadelphia. Washington's effective force did not exceed 11,000 men, including 1800 Pennsylvania militia. Howe's objective was Philadelphia, and he began his march (Sept. 3) in that direction through a country swarming with Tories. One division was led by Earl Cornwallis, and the other by General Knyphausen. Washington had advanced almost to Red Clay Creek, and sent General Maxwell with his brigade to form an ambuscade in the direction of the enemy. In a skirmish the British were checked, but moved forward (Sept. 8) to attack Washington and turn his flank. By a dexterous movement in the night, the latter fell back to Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine Creek, above Wilmington, and took post in a strong position on the hills that skirt the eastern borders of that stream. The astonished Britons gave chase the next morning, but found Washington standing in their pathway to Philadelphia. The two divisions of Howe's army met at Kennet Square (Sept. 10), and the next morning Cornwallis led a large portion of them up the Lancaster Road towards the forks of the Brandywine, leaving all their baggage—even their knapsacks—with the other division. The latter moved for Chad's Ford a few hours later in a dense fog. Washington's left wing, composed of the brigades of Muhlenberg and Weedon, of Greene's division, and Wayne's division, with Proctor's artillery, were on the hills east of Chad's Ford. The brigades of Sullivan, Stirling, and Stephen, composing the right wing, extended along the Brandywine Creek to a point above the forks; and 1000 Pennsylvania militia under General Armstrong were at Pyle's Ford, two miles below Chad's. General Maxwell, with 1000 light troops, was posted on the west side of the creek to dispute the passage of Knyphausen. The latter attempted to dislodge Maxwell, who, after a severe fight, was pushed to the edge of the Brandywine, where he was reinforced. Then he turned upon his pursuers and drove them back to the main line. Perceiving danger of being flanked, Maxwell fled across the stream,


WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS.

leaving its western banks in possession of the enemy. Knyphausen now brought his great guns to bear upon the Americans at Chad's Ford. It was to divert Washington's attention from Cornwallis, who was pushing forward to cross the Brandywine and gain the rear of the Americans. This accomplished, Knyphausen was to cross over, when a simultaneous attack by both parties was to be made. Washington resolved to strike a blow at once. He directed Sullivan to cross the Brandywine above and attack Cornwallis, while he (Washington) should cross the stream and assail Knyphausen. Through misinformation, Sullivan failed to perform his part. A message which he sent to Washington kept the latter in suspense a long time. Greene, who had crossed at Chad's Ford with his advanced guard, was recalled; and Cornwallis, in the meantime, had made a wide circuit, crossed the Brandywine, and gained a hill near Birmingham Meeting-house, not far from Sullivan's right, before that officer discovered him. The surprised general informed Washington of his peril, and immediately prepared to attack the enemy. Before he could do so, Cornwallis, with his rested troops, fell upon Sullivan, and a severe conflict ensued. For a while the result was doubtful. Finally the right wing of the Americans, under General Deborre, gave way; then the left, under Sullivan; but the centre, under Stirling, remained firm for a while. Then it, too, broke and fled in confusion. Lafayette, who was with this corps, fighting as a volunteer on foot, was badly wounded in his leg. The scattered troops could not be rallied, excepting a few who made a stand at Dilworth. They, too, soon joined the fugitives in the flight towards the main army, closely pursued by the victors, Cornwallis's cannons having made dreadful havoc in the ranks of the Americans. Meanwhile Washington, with Greene and two brigades, had hastened to the aid of the right wing. They met the fugitives, opened their ranks to receive them, and, by a constant cannonade, checked their pursuers; and at a narrow defile the regiments of Stephen and Stewart held the British back until night, when the latter encamped. In the meantime Knyphausen had crossed at Chad's Ford and attacked the left wing under Wayne. After a gallant fight, the latter, seeing the British gaining his rear, abandoned his cannons and munitions of war and made a disorderly retreat behind the division of Greene. At twilight there was a skirmish near Dilworth between Maxwell and his light troops, lying in ambush to cover the retreat of the Americans, and some British grenadiers. The contest was brief, for darkness put an end to it. The Americans, defeated, marched leisurely to Chester; for the British, who held the field, did not pursue. The next morning (Sept. 12, 1777) Washington gathered his broken army, marched towards Philadelphia, and encamped near Germantown. It was estimated that the Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about 1200; the British, about 800.

VIEW AT CHAD'S FORD, ON THE BRANDYWINE.

BIRMINGHAM MEETING-HOUSE.

Brant, JOHN, son of Joseph Brant, was born at the Mohawk village on the Grand River, in Canada, Sept. 27, 1794; and died there at the age of forty-eight years. He took up arms for the British when the War of 1812–15 broke out, and led a party of Indians at the battle of Queenston (which see). He was then only eighteen years of age, and was conspicuous for his bravery. He had received a good English education at Ancaster and Niagara, and was a diligent student of English authors. Young Brant was an ardent lover of nature, was manly and amiable, and was in every respect an accomplished gentleman. On the death of his father, in 1807, he became the principal chief of the Six Nations, although he was the fourth and youngest son. Brant was engaged in most of the military events on the Niagara frontier during the war; and at its close he and his young sister Elizabeth occupied the homestead at the head of Lake Ontario, and there dispensed a generous hospitality. He went to England in 1821 on business for the Six Nations, and there took occasion to defend the character of his father from the aspersions contained in Campbell's *Gertrude of Wyoming*. He proved that his father was not present at the massacre in Wyoming; but the poet had not the generosity or manliness to strike out of the poem the calumnious words, and so it remains until this day. In 1827 Governor Dalhousie gave him the commission of captain, and as such he appeared as in the engraving. In 1832 he was elected a member of the Provincial Parliament for the County of Haldimand.

JOHN BRANT.

Brant, JOSEPH (Thay-en-da-ne-gea), a noted Mohawk chief, was born about 1742; died on his estate at the head of Lake Ontario, Canada, Nov. 24, 1807. In 1761 Sir William Johnson sent him to Dr. Wheelock's school at Hanover, N. H., where he translated portions of the New Testament into the Mohawk language. Brant engaged in the war against Pontiac in 1763 (see *Pontiac's Conspiracy*); and at the beginning of the war for independence he was secretary to Guy Johnson, the Indian Superintendent. In the spring of 1776 he was in England; and to the ministry he expressed his willingness, and that of his people, to join in the chastisement of the rebellious colonists. It was an unfavorable time for him to make such an offer with an expectation of securing very favorable arrangements for his people, for the ministry were elated with the news of the disasters to the "rebels" at Quebec. Besides, they had completed the bargain for a host of German mercenaries (which see), a part of whom were then on their way to America to crush the rebellion. They concluded the next ship would bring news that the Americans were willing to agree to unconditional submission, the only terms which the imperial government would grant. Brant returned, but to find the Americans successful in many places, and determined to persevere. He took up arms for the British; and in the raids of Tories and Indians in Central New York upon the patriotic inhabitants he was often a leader, holding the commission of colonel from the King of England. He prevailed on the Six Nations to make a permanent peace after the war; and in 1786 he went to England the second time, but then for the purpose of collecting funds to build a church on the Indian reservation on the Grand River, in Canada. This was the first church erected in the Upper Province. Brant did much to induce his people to engage in the arts of peace. The remains of Brant rest beneath a handsome mausoleum near the church on the reservation on the Grand River, Canada. It was erected by the inhabitants of the vicinity in 1850. It is composed of light-brown sandstone. On the slab that surmounts it is an appropriate inscription in commemoration of the chief,

JOSEPH BRANT.

and of his accomplished son John, who was conspicuous on the Niagara frontier in the War of 1812–15.

THE BRANT MONUMENT.

Brashear City, MILITARY OPERATIONS NEAR (1863). This town was in a singular country, composed of fertile plantations, extensive forests, sluggish lagoons and bayous, passable and impassable swamps, made dark by umbrageous cypress-trees draped with Spanish moss and festooned with interlacing vines, the earth in many places matted and miry, and the waters abounding in alligators. At that time the whole country was half submerged by the superabundant waters of the Mississippi and its tributaries. A single railway passed through this country from New Orleans to Brashear City, on the Atchafalaya, a distance of eighty miles, at which point the waters of the great bayou Teche meet those of the Atchafalaya and others. Near Pattersonville, on the Teche, the Confederates had erected fortifications, and gathered troops to dispute the passage of these important waters by National gunboats. Banks, in command of the Department of the Gulf, determined to expel the armed Confederates from Brashear City and its vicinity. An expedition for that purpose was led by General Godfrey Weitzel, accompanied by a squadron of gunboats, under Commodore McKean Buchanan, brother of the commander of the *Merrimac* (which see). They penetrated to Brashear City, and then proceeded (Jan. 11, 1863) to attack the works near Pattersonville. Weitzel's infantry were placed in the gunboats, and his cavalry and artillery proceeded by land. They encountered formidable river obstructions—torpedoes, an armored steamboat, and batteries well manned by eleven hundred men, on each side of the bayou. These were attacked on the 15th, and in that engagement Buchanan was killed by a rifle-ball that passed through his head. The Confederates were driven from their works, and their monster steamer was abandoned and burned. In this affair the Nationals lost thirty-four men killed and wounded.

Braxton, CARTER, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Newington, Va., Sept. 10, 1736; died Oct. 10, 1797. He was educated at the College of William and Mary in 1756, and resided in England until 1760. He was a distinguished member and patriot in the Virginia House of Burgesses in supporting the resolutions of Patrick Henry in 1765, and in subsequent assemblies dissolved by the governor. He remained in the Virginia Assembly until royal rule ceased in that colony, and was active in measures for defeating the schemes of Lord Dunmore. Braxton was in the Convention at Richmond in 1775, for devising measures for the defence of the colony and the public good; and in December he became the successor of Peyton Randolph in Congress. He remained in that body to vote for and sign the Declaration of Independence. In 1786, after serving in the Virginia Legislature, he became one of the executive council.

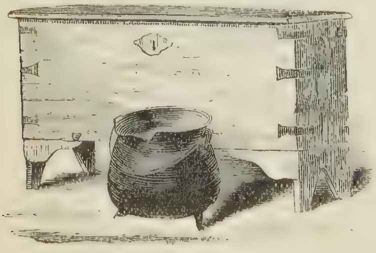
Breckinridge, JOHN CABELL, was born near Lexington, Ky., Jan. 21, 1821; died at Lexington, May 17, 1875. Studying law at the Transylvania Institute, he began its practice at Lexington. He served as major in the war with Mexico; was a member of his State Legislature; and from 1851 to 1855 was in Congress. President Pierce tendered him the mission to Spain, which he declined. In March, 1857, he became Vice-President, under Buchanan, and succeeded John J. Crittenden in the Senate of the United States in 1861. He was then a defeated candidate for the Presidency. His friendship for the insurgents caused his expulsion from the Senate in December, 1861, when he joined the Secessionists, and was made a Confederate major-general, Aug. 5, 1862. He was active at various points during the remainder of the war. Breckinridge was Secretary of War of the Confederacy when it fell (1865), and soon afterwards departed for Europe, returning to his native state in a short time.

JOHN CABELL BRECKINRIDGE.

Brevard, EPHRAIM, was a native of Mecklenburg County, N. C., and was secretary of the famous "Mecklenburg Convention" (which see) that issued a declaration of independence in 1775. He died at Charlotte, N. C., near the close of the Revolution. Mr. Brevard, one of seven sons of a widow, graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1768; was educated for a physician, and practised the profession in Charlotte. When the British invaded the Carolinas, Dr. Brevard entered the Continental army as a surgeon, and was made a prisoner at Charleston in 1780. Broken with disease, he returned to Charlotte after his release, and soon afterwards died.

Brevet implies (in French) a royal act, conferring some privilege or distinction; in England it is applied to a commission giving nominal rank higher than that for which pay is received. Thus, a brevet-major serves and draws pay as captain. The first time it was used in the United States Army was in 1812, when Captain Zachary Taylor was promoted to major by brevet for his defence of Fort Harrison (which see). It was sometimes used in the Continental army after the arrival of the French troops in 1780.

Brewster, WILLIAM, born at Scrooby, England, in 1566; died at Plymouth, Mass., April 16, 1644. Educated at Cambridge, he entered the service of William Davidson, ambassador of Queen Elizabeth in Holland. The ambassador was much attached to Brewster, and procured for him the office of postmaster at Scrooby. When his mind was turned very seriously towards religious subjects, he withdrew from the Church of England, and established a dissenting society, or rather a society of Separatists. This new society worshipped on Sabbath days at Mr. Brewster's house until persecution began to interrupt them. He, with Mr. Bradford and others, was among those who attempted to fly to Holland in 1607. (See *Robinson, John.*) They were arrested and imprisoned at Boston in Lincolnshire. As Mr. Brewster had the most property, he was the greater sufferer. At much expense he gained his liberty, and then he assisted the poorer members of the church to escape, following them himself soon afterwards. At Leyden he opened a school for teaching the English language, to replenish his exhausted funds. He had then been an elder and teacher for some time. By the assistance of some friends he procured a printing-press, and published several books against the English hierarchy. In Mr. Robinson's church in Leyden Brewster was a ruling elder, and was so highly esteemed that he was chosen the spiritual guide of the "Pilgrims" who emigrated to America. He took with him to the wilderness his wife and numerous children. It was upon the lid of his chest that the political compact was signed on board the *Mayflower*. At New Plymouth he supplied the vacant pulpit most of the time for nine years, preaching very impressive sermons; but he could never be persuaded to administer the Lord's Supper, though he had the care of the church. Some of Elder Brewster's descendants were very long-lived. Mrs. Polly (Brewster) Buckingham, who died in Poughkeepsie, N. Y., in January, 1873, aged ninety-five years and seven months, was sixth in descent from the elder. She had heard her grandmother, who died at the age of ninety-eight years, say that she had conversed with persons who came over in the *Mayflower*.



ELDER BREWSTER'S CHEST AND DINNER-POT.

Bridgman, LAURA, was born at Hanover, N. H., Dec. 21, 1829. Severe illness deprived her of sight and hearing, and consequently of speech, when she was two years of age. Her sense of smell was also destroyed, and that of touch much impaired. On the recovery of her health, none of her senses were restored. The late Dr. S. G. Howe took great interest in her case, and she became an inmate of the "Perkins Institute" for the blind, in Boston, of which he was the founder, where she was taught the names and qualities of objects and how to write. She also acquired the rudiments of arithmetic; became quite a skilful pianist; and acquired a practical knowledge of some household duties, as well as needlework. The case of Laura Bridgman is the most remarkable on record in all its phases. She is yet (1880) an inmate of the Perkins Institute.

Brier Creek, BATTLE OF (1779). Colonel Ashe, of North Carolina, was sent by General Lincoln, with two thousand men, to drive the British from Augusta. The latter fled when Ashe appeared on the opposite side of the river, and pushed towards the sea, led by Lieutenant-colonel Campbell. Ashe crossed and pursued as far as Brier Creek, forty miles below Augusta, on the Georgia side of the Savannah River, where he encamped. He was surprised (March 3, 1779) and utterly defeated by General Prevost, who was marching up from Savannah to support Campbell. Ashe lost almost his entire army by death, captivity, and dispersion. Some were killed, others perished in the morasses, and many were drowned in attempting to pass the Savannah River. This blow deprived Lincoln of about one fourth of his army and led to the temporary re-establishment of royal authority in Georgia.

Bristow Station, BATTLE OF (1863). In the third race for Washington (which see), the struggle to first pass Bristow Station, on the Central Virginia Railway, was very hot. Lee pushed Hill and Ewell forward to gain that point before the Nationals should reach it. When they approached it the entire Army of the Potomac had passed it, excepting General Warren's corps, which was then not in sight of the Confederates. Hill was about to attack the Third Corps, when, at about noon (Oct. 15), he was startled by the appearance of Warren's troops approaching his rear. They had outstripped Ewell's, and were expecting to meet Sykes's at Bristow Station. Hill instantly turned and opened his batteries upon Warren, who was surprised for a moment; but in the space of ten minutes the batteries of Arnold and Brown, assisted by the infantry divisions of Hayes and Webb, drove back the Confederates and captured six of their guns. These were instantly turned upon the fugitives. A flank attack by the Confederates was repulsed with a loss to them of 450 men made prisoners. This was an effectual check upon Hill's march. Just at sunset Ewell came up, and Warren's corps (Second) was confronted by a greater portion of Lee's army. Seeing his peril, Warren skilfully withdrew under cover of the approaching darkness, and joined the main army in the morning on the heights of Centreville. Warren's loss in the battle of Bristow Station was about two hundred in killed and wounded.

British Aid to the Confederates. The amount of aid given to the Confederates by British sympathizers through the agency of blockade-runners may be approximately estimated by the fact that from Oct. 26 to Dec. 31, 1864—only thirty-five days—there were carried into the single port of Wilmington, N. C., for their use, 8,320,000 pounds of meat, 1,500,000 pounds of lead, 1,993,000 pounds of saltpetre, 546,000 pairs of shoes, 316,000 pairs of blankets, 520,000 pounds of coffee, 69,000 rifles, 97 packages of revolvers, 2639 packages of medicine, 48 cannons, and many miscellaneous articles.

British Alliance with Indians Urged (1813). The news of Perry's victory on Lake Erie (which see) startled the British public, and strange confessions of weakness were made in the English and provincial newspapers. "We have been conquered on the Lake," said a Halifax paper, "and so we shall be on every other lake, if we take as little care to protect them." Others urged the necessity of an alliance with the Indians to secure the possession of Canada. "We dare assert," said a writer in one of the leading British reviews, "and recent events have gone far in establishing the truth of the proposition, that the Canadas cannot be effectually and durably defended without the friendship of the Indians and command of the Lakes and River St. Lawrence." He urged his countrymen to consider the interests of the Indians as their own; "for men," he said, "whose very name is so formidable to an American, and whose friendship has recently been shown to be of such great importance to *us*, we cannot do too much."

British and American Fleets at Charleston (1780). On March 21, 1780, the British marine force, under Admiral Arbuthnot, crossed the bar at Charleston. It consisted of one 54-gun ship, two 44-gun ships, four of 32 guns, and the *Sandwich*, also an armed ship. Commodore Whipple was in the Charleston outer harbor with a flotilla of small vessels. Finding he could not prevent the British ships from passing the bar, he fell back to the waters immediately in front of Charleston and transferred all the crews and guns of his vessels, excepting one, to the batteries on the shore. The commodore sunk most of his own and some merchant vessels near Shute's Folly, at the mouth of the Cooper River, to prevent British vessels from entering it.

British Cantonments in New Jersey. After chasing Washington and his shattered army to the banks of the Delaware (1776), the British did not attempt to cross, but were established in a line of cantonments at Trenton, Pennington, Bordentown, and Burlington. Other corps were quartered in the rear of these, at Princeton, Brunswick, and Elizabethtown.

British Denial of the Right of Search. At the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) Spain gave to England the privilege of transporting to the Spanish-American colonies a certain number of negro slaves. This was a special favor, for all but Spaniards were rigidly excluded from those colonies. Taking an unfair advantage of this privilege, the English, under cover of the slave-trade, carried on extensive smuggling. The British government, in assuming this illicit trade, did not seem to consider the blow they were giving at the very principles on which their own colonial policy was founded. The Spaniards, to guard against this systematic violation of their laws, maintained a numerous fleet of vessels in the preventive service, called a *guarda costa*, or coast-guard. This guard were sometimes pretty severe in their treatment of English smugglers, and they very frequently made thorough searches of English vessels suspected of the crime. These acts were greatly exaggerated in England, and the old hatred of the Spaniards was renewed. There was a loud clamor against this assumed right of search. Despising the Spaniards as weak, and envying them for their riches, the merchants loudly opposed an amicable settlement of the difficulty, and forced Walpole into a war with Spain, hoping to have the Spanish-American ports thereby opened free to English commerce. (See *Spanish West India Settlements, War upon.*)

British Flag at New York. On the day when the British evacuated the city of New York (Nov. 25, 1783) they nailed their colors to the flag-staff at Fort George ("the Battery"), knocked off the cleats, and "slushed" the pole from top to bottom to prevent its being climbed. John Van Arsdale, a sailor-boy, sixteen years old (who died in 1836), ascended the pole by nailing on cleats and applying sand to the greased flag-staff. In this way he reached the top, hauled down the British colors, and placed the flag of the United States in their place before the fleet was out of sight. It is believed that the nailing of the flag of Great Britain to the staff at that time had a higher significance than was visible in the outward act—namely, a compliance with secret orders from the imperial government not to strike the flag, as in a formal surrender, but to leave it flying, in token of the claim of Great Britain to the absolute proprietorship of this country, then abandoned. It was generally believed in England, on the misrepresentation of the Tory refugees, that the absence of British authority in America would be only temporary.

British Interference with the Rights of Neutrals. Under the pressure of war, the French Convention, by decree (1793), allowed neutral vessels the privileges of French ships. A rich commerce was at once created for American shipping. The jealous British government revived the Rule of 1756 (which see), and British cruisers claimed the right to seize French property on board of American vessels. At that time there was much trade between America and the West Indies, and American vessels were carrying away many people, besides much property belonging to them, who were fleeing to the United States from the horrors of insurrection in Santo Domingo. Much of the property of these wretched people was seized on American vessels. The British government refused to recognize as neutral the trade between France and her West India colonies, which nothing but the pressure of war had caused to be opened to other than French vessels. The British government also issued an order to British cruisers to seize and bring in all vessels loaded with breadstuffs and bound for France, even though both vessel and cargo should be neutral property. Such vessel and cargo, on proof of neutrality, were not to be forfeited; but the cargo was to be paid for, and the vessel released on bonds being given to land in countries friendly to Great Britain.

British Marauding Expeditions (1778). Sir Henry Clinton, before he returned to New York from Rhode Island, sent out General Grey (see *Paoli*) to land with troops at New Bedford. They proceeded to destroy the shipping in the harbor there. About seventy vessels were burned. Many of them had been captured by the American privateers. They also burned the stores, wharves, warehouses, vessels on the stocks, and the mills and barns at Fairhaven, opposite. The value of property destroyed was estimated at $323,000. Then they went to Martha's Vineyard, where they destroyed several vessels and made a successful requisition for the militia arms, the public money, three hundred oxen, and ten thousand sheep. Clinton also sent out an expedition from New York to attack Colonel Baylor's troop of horse, quartered at Tappan. Grey was sent on this errand also. He took them by surprise, as they lay asleep, and bayoneted nearly seventy, some of them while they begged for quarter. (See *Baylor.*) Another expedition, under Captain Patrick Ferguson, burned Little Egg Harbor, on the New Jersey coast, with vessels there, and ravaged the surrounding country. A picket-guard of infantry, thirty in number, with Pulaski's Legion, on their way from Trenton to Little Egg Harbor, were surprised by these marauders, and all of them were butchered.

British Minister, A STUPID. In the last century there were two secretaries of state charged with the foreign relations of the British empire. The officer in charge of the executive power relating to the American colonies had the care of what was called the Southern Department. Sir Robert Walpole, the able Premier of England, endeavored to shape the cabinet so that men of superior talents might not become his rivals. In 1724 he managed to have the Duke of Newcastle made the keeper of the seals of the "Southern Department." He had high rank, wealth, personal influence over the boroughs, and was stupid in intellect; and he was kept in that responsible station for nearly twenty-four years. While he could give full statistics of every election, he had very little idea of the country or people of whose interests he was the official guardian. He was frivolous and shallow, and during his long administration vast numbers of memorials and letters from the colonies were left unnoticed in his office. Perhaps his imbecility left the Americans more liberty than they would have enjoyed under an able and energetic statesman. It is said the duke was so deficient in his geographical knowledge that he once inquired whether America could not be reached easier by land than by water; and he used to address letters to the "Island of New England." He could not tell whether Jamaica was in the Mediterranean Sea or in the Atlantic Ocean. Newcastle was insincere, deceptive, and fond of rewarding incompetent friends with important offices. It was written of him:

> "He makes no promise but to break it,
> Faithful to naught but his own ends,
> The bitterest enemy to his friends;
> But to his fixed, undaunted foe,
> Obsequious, base, complying, low.
> Cunning supplies his want of parts;
> Treason and lies are all his arts."

In 1748 Newcastle was succeeded by the Duke of Bedford, a man of inflexible honesty, unsullied honor, not brilliant, but sound, patriotic, and sincere.

British Minister Dismissed. Early in 1855 enlistments for the British army, then employed in the war in the Crimea, were undertaken in the United States under the sanction of British officials and in violation of neutrality laws. In this business the British Minister at Washington (Crampton) was implicated. The United States government demanded his recall. The British government refused compliance. After waiting several months while diplomatic correspondence was going on, the President (Pierce) dismissed the offending minister; also the British consuls at New York, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati, who had been guilty of a similar offence. Mutual national irritation followed; but law and equity were so clearly on the side of the United States that a new minister was sent to Washington, and friendly relations were restored.

British Minister, FIRST, IN THE UNITED STATES. When Great Britain observed that the National Constitution was the foundation of a compact nation, and that the United States were no longer a mere league of commonwealths, she condescended to send a minister plenipotentiary to reside at the seat of the government of the new republic. George Hammond was that minister, who delivered his letters of credence soon after Washington's return from his Southern tour (which see). With Mr.

Hammond, Mr. Jefferson, Secretary of State, entered into an elaborate correspondence on several unsettled questions which were still open between the two governments—the inexecution of the treaty as to the evacuation of the frontier posts; the slaves carried away by the departing British troops at the close of the Revolution; the disputed eastern boundary; and the stipulations concerning British creditors of the Americans and of the loyalists.

British Ministry, Blindness of the. When Parliament assembled on Nov. 8, 1768, the king, in his speech, alluded with much warmth to the "spirit of faction breaking out afresh in some of the colonies. Boston," he said, "appears to be in a state of disobedience to all law and government, and has proceeded to measures subversive of the constitution, and attended with circumstances that might manifest a disposition to throw off its dependence on Great Britain." He asked for the assistance of Parliament to "defeat the mischievous designs of those turbulent and seditious persons" who had deluded, by false pretences, numbers of his subjects in America. An address was moved promising ample support to the king, and providing for the subjection of the rebellious spirit of the Americans. Vehement debates ensued. The Opposition were very severe. Lord North, the recognized leader of the ministry, replied, saying: "America must fear you before she can love you. If America is to be the judge, you may tax in no instance; you may regulate in no instance. . . . We shall go through with our plan, now that we have brought it so near success. I am against repealing the last act of Parliament, securing to us a revenue out of America; I will never think of repealing it until I see America prostrate at my feet." This was a fair expression of the sentiments of the ministry and of Parliament. The address was carried by an overwhelming majority — in the House of Lords by unanimous vote. (See *Lord Hillsborough and Colonial Agents.*)

British Offers to Treat for Peace. On Jan. 6, 1814, the United States Government received from that of Great Britain an offer to treat for peace directly at London, that city being preferred because it would afford greater facilities for negotiation. It was proposed, in case there should be insuperable objections to London, to hold the conference at Gottenburg, in Sweden. This offer, with the selection of Gottenburg, was accepted by President Madison, who, at the same time, complained of the rejection of Russia's mediation, which had been offered three separate times. He nominated as commissioners to negotiate for peace, John Quincy Adams and James A. Bayard, to whom Henry Clay and Jonathan Russell were added as special representatives of the war party. At the same time, Russell was nominated and confirmed as minister to Sweden.

British Plan of Conquest in America. So early as the summer of 1776, intimations reached the Americans that the British ministry had devised a grand scheme for dividing the colonies, and so to effect their positive weakness and easy conquest. It contemplated the seizure of the valleys of the Hudson River and Lake Champlain, and the establishment of a line of military posts between the mouth of the Hudson and the River St. Lawrence, and so, separating New England from the rest of the union, easily accomplish the subjugation of the whole. To effect this, English and German troops were sent both to the St. Lawrence and to New York in the spring and summer of 1775. It was the grand aim of the expedition of Burgoyne southward from the St. Lawrence in 1777. To counteract this movement, the Americans cast up strong fortifications in the Hudson Highlands, and kept their passes guarded. It was in anticipation of such a scheme that the colonists made the unsuccessful attempt to win Canada either by persuasion or conquest. (See *Canada, Invasion of; Burgoyne's Campaign.*)

British Power Vanishing in the South (1781). General Greene was yet on the High Hills of Santee when news of the surrender of Cornwallis reached him. The day of its arrival was kept by his army as one of great rejoicing. The event seemed to be a sure prophecy that peace and independence were near. So felt the patriots throughout the State of South Carolina. Governor Rutledge called a legislative assembly at Jacksonborough, S. C., to re-establish civil authority. An offer of pardon brought hundreds of Tories from the British lines at Charleston to accept clemency. The North Carolina Tories were dismayed, for, immediately after the surrender of Cornwallis, St. Clair had marched upon Wilmington. The alarmed British troops there, under Major Craig, immediately abandoned that post, and the Tories in his ranks left him, and returned to their homes. With a few followers Craig took post upon St. John's Island, near Charleston. The vigilance of the Republicans was not allowed to slumber. Marion and his men kept "watch and ward" over the region between the Cooper and Santee rivers, while Greene's main army advanced to, and lay along, the Edisto River, and Wayne's forces imprisoned the British in Savannah.

British Slave-Trade. By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713, provision was made for England to supply America with kidnapped negroes. The queen (Anné) undertook to carry to the Spanish West Indies, in the space of thirty years, 144,000 negro slaves, at the rate of 4800 each year, paying a duty on each of them of thirty-three and one third dollars a head. The British might introduce as many more as they pleased at a less rate of duty, only no scandal was to be offered to the Roman Catholic religion. Great care was taken to secure a monopoly of the business. As great profits were expected from the trade, Philip V. of Spain took one quarter of the common stock; Queen Anné reserved another quarter to herself, and the remaining half was to be divided among her subjects. So the monarchs of England and Spain, a century and a half ago, figure as the largest slave merchants in the world.

British Spy in Congress (1774). It is asserted that Joseph Galloway (which see), who was a member of the First Continental Congress, was a voluntary spy for the British government. His conduct throughout the session, viewed in the light of subsequent history, appears insincere and disingenuous. He was one of the most bitter Tories who misrepresented the colonies in England, to which he fled when his principles were discovered and denounced. He quailed before Samuel Adams, the stern Puritan and patriot, and cordially hated him because he feared him. "Though by no means remarkable for brilliant abilities," wrote Galloway, "he is equal to most men in popular intrigue and the management of a faction. He eats little, drinks little, sleeps little, and thinks much; and is most decisive and indefatigable in the pursuit of his objects. He was the man who, by his superior application, managed at once the faction in Congress at Philadelphia and the factions in New England." And it may be added that he was the man who so well read Galloway's character in that Congress that he thwarted the schemes of the British spy. (See *Galloway's Plan.*)

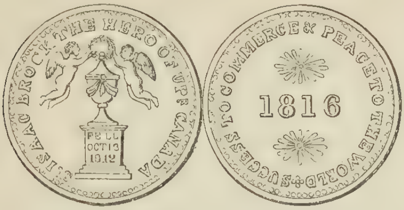
British Tampering with the Slaves (1813). Admiral Cochrane had succeeded Admiral Warren in command on the American station, and, on April 2, he issued a proclamation, dated at Bermuda, the rendezvous of the more southern blockading fleet. That proclamation was addressed to slaves under the denomination of "persons desirous to emigrate from the United States." Owing to the inability of nearly all the slaves to read, the proclamation had very little effect. It is said that a project had been suggested by British officers for taking possession of the peninsula between the Delaware and Chesapeake bays, and there training for British service an army of negro slaves. The project was rejected only because the British, being then slave-holders themselves, did not like to encourage insurrection elsewhere.

British Troops in Boston (1768). Before news of the riot in Boston (June, 1768) reached England, two regiments of troops had been ordered to that town from Halifax. That news caused two others to be ordered from Ireland. General Gage sent an officer from New York to provide quarters for them. This occasioned a town-meeting in Boston, and a request for the governor to call a meeting of the Assembly. He refused. The troops from Halifax came to the number of one thousand (September, 1768), and, though there was room in the barracks at Castle William, they were ordered to be quartered in the town. The governor declared that the barracks were reserved for the two regiments expected from Ireland. His council was now opposed to him, and they refused to provide quarters for the troops in Boston. One of the regiments encamped on the Common. The Sons of Liberty (which see), having compassion on the exposed troops, allowed part of the other regiment to occupy Faneuil Hall temporarily, and the remainder went into the Town-house. Cannons were planted in front of the latter, sentinels were posted in the streets, the inhabitants were challenged as they passed, and the Sabbath stillness was disturbed by the tread of marching soldiers and the beating of drums. Boston had the appearance of a garrisoned town, and great irritations ensued. In October, General Gage appeared in Boston to urge the provision of quarters for the troops. The council referred him to the selectmen. The latter declined to take any steps in the matter. The governor organized what he called a Board of Justice to find quarters, but the members appointed refused to serve. Gage was compelled to hire buildings for the purpose, and to procure, out of his own military chest, various articles for their comfort.

British War Party. In Great Britain, at the time of the first downfall of Napoleon, there was a furious war party in England, with the *London Times* as its leader. They demanded that the released troops should be sent to America to punish, with severity, a nation of insolent democrats, which had taken advantage of Great Britain's greatest pressure to make an unnatural war upon her. The naval successes of the Americans, they said, had made them insolent, and, unless they received a signal check, they might become a rival for the mastery of the seas. The government sent over (1814) thousands of Wellington's veterans, who, in northern New York, at Baltimore, and at New Orleans, found themselves overmatched by the sturdy defenders of the rights of the Republic.

Brock and the Canada Legislature. General Brock, Governor of Upper Canada, heard of Hull's invasion from Detroit on July 20, 1812, and took immediate measures to resist it. He knew the weakness of Fort Malden, below Detroit, and felt anxious. The Legislature was about to assemble at York (Toronto), and he could not personally conduct affairs in the west. Divided duties perplexed him. Leaving the military which he had gathered along the Niagara frontier in charge of Lieutenant-colonel Myers, he hastened to York, and, with much parade, opened the session of the Legislature. His address was warmly received, but he found that either disloyalty or timidity prevailed in the Legislature. Some were decidedly in favor of the Americans, and most of them were lukewarm. Perceiving this, Brock prorogued the Assembly so soon as they had passed the necessary supply-bills. But a change soon came. News of the seizure of Mackinaw and reverses to the Americans on the Detroit frontier, together with Brock's continually confident tone in public expressions, gave the people courage, and he was enabled to write to Sir George Prevost (July 29, 1812), "The militia stationed here have volunteered their services this morning to any part of the province." He soon led quite a large body of them, and captured Detroit. (See *Detroit, Surrender of.*)

Brock, Sir Isaac, was born in Guernsey, Oct. 6, 1769; killed at Queenston, Canada, Oct. 13, 1812. He entered the British army as an ensign in 1783; saw service in Holland, and was in the attack on Copenhagen in 1801. Rising by degrees, he became a major-general, and was appointed president and administrator of the government of Upper Canada, Oct. 9, 1811. When war was declared by the United States, he took prompt measures for the defence of the province, and led the military in person at the capture of Detroit and in the battle of Queenston. At the latter place he was killed while rallying his troops to attack the Americans on the Heights. (See *Queenston Heights.*) His body was pierced by three bullets. The British government caused a fine monument to be erected to his memory in St. Paul's Cathedral, London, bearing the following inscription: "Erected at the public expense to the memory of Major-general Sir Isaac Brock, who gloriously fell on the 13th of October, MDCCCXII., in resisting an attack on Queenston, Upper Canada." To the four surviving brothers of Brock 12,000 acres of land in Canada were given, and a pension of $1000 dollars a year each for life. In 1816 the Canadians struck a medal to his memory; and on the Heights of Queenston they raised a beautiful Tuscan column 135 feet in height. In the base of the monument a tomb was formed, in which the general's remains repose. They were taken to this last resting-place from Fort George on Oct. 13, 1824. A small monument marks the place where he fell.


SIR ISAAC BROCK THE HERO OF UPR CANADA
FELL OCT 13 1812
SUCCESS TO COMMERCE & PEACE TO THE WORLD
1816

MEDAL IN MEMORY OF GENERAL BROCK.

MONUMENT WHERE BROCK FELL.

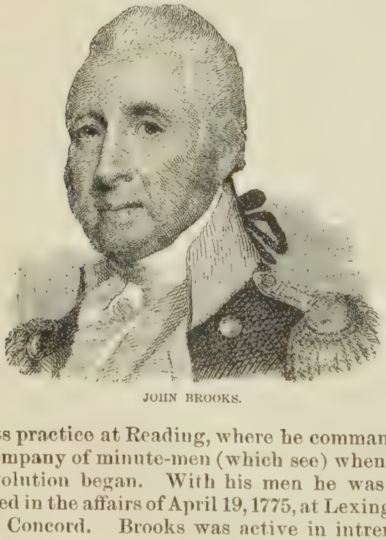
Brodhead, John Romeyn, historian, was born in Philadelphia, Jan. 2, 1814; died in New York, May 6, 1873. He graduated at Rutgers College in 1831; admitted to the bar in 1835; was attached to the American legation at the Hague in 1839, and was appointed by the Legislature of New York its agent to procure and transcribe original documents concerning the history of the state. He spent three years in searching the archives of Holland, England, and France, and obtained copies of more than five thousand separate papers, comprising the reports of home and colonial authorities. They have been published in eleven quarto volumes by the State of New York, edited by E. B. O'Callaghan, LL.D. Mr. Brodhead was secretary of the American legation in London from 1846 till 1849. On his return he began the preparation of a *History of the State of New York.* The first volume was published in 1853, and the second in 1871. He was naval officer of New York from 1853 till 1857. Mr. Brodhead left his *History of the State of New York* unfinished.

SIR PHILIP BOWES VERE BROKE.

Broke, Sir Philip Bowes Vere, an English admiral, born Sept. 9, 1776; died Jan. 2, 1841. He entered the British navy in 1792, and became post-captain in 1801. His most conspicuous exploit was his capture of the American frigate *Chesapeake* in June, 1813. (See *Chesapeake and Shannon.*) This affair caused him to receive knighthood; and at the time of his death he held the commission of rear-admiral of the Red. In the action with the *Chesapeake* he was so badly wounded that he was never fit for service afterwards. His son, Sir Philip Broke, was born on Jan. 15, 1804; was educated at the Royal Naval College at Portsmouth; and entered the navy in 1819, rising to the rank of post-captain, when he left the service and became high-sheriff of the county of Suffolk.

Brookfield, ENCOUNTER WITH INDIANS AT. In August, 1675, a conference with the Nipmucs at Brookfield, Mass., was proposed. But no Indians were there. Captain Wheeler, with twenty horsemen, went in search of them, and fell into an ambush not far away, when eight of the white men were killed. The survivors hastened to Brookfield, and had just gathered the men, women, and children of the village—seventy in number—into a strong house, when three hundred savages, glowing with war-paint, filled the street, yelling and brandishing torches, with which they fired every house excepting the one in which the English had taken refuge. Upon that the Indians made a furious attack, and the siege continued two days. Every effort was made, by fire and weapons, to dislodge the garrison. On the third day, when the savages had contrived a successful method for burning the building, a heavy shower of rain extinguished the flames; and soon afterwards Major Simon Willard, of Boston, arrived with about sixty men and drove off the besiegers, who lost eighty of their warriors in the fight. (See *King Philip's War.*)

Brooks, JOHN, M.D., LL.D., soldier and statesman, was born at Medford, Mass., May 3, 1752; died March 1, 1825. He received a common-school education, studied medicine, and settled in its practice at Reading, where he commanded a company of minute-men (which see) when the Revolution began. With his men he was engaged in the affairs of April 19, 1775, at Lexington and Concord. Brooks was active in intrenching Breed's Hill (see *Bunker's Hill*) on the night of June 16, 1775, and was major of a regiment that assisted in fortifying Dorchester Heights. Early in 1776 he accompanied it to Long Island, and fought there. The battle of White Plains tested his capacity as a disciplinarian and leader; and early in 1777 he was promoted to lieutenant-colonel of the Eighth Massachusetts Regiment, which was chiefly recruited by himself. He became colonel of the Seventh Massachusetts Regiment late in 1778; and he accompanied Arnold on his expedition to relieve Fort Stanwix in 1777. (See *Fort Stanwix.*) He led his regiment in battle with great prowess and success at Saratoga (see *Bemis's Heights*), Oct. 7, 1777; and in the battle of Monmouth (which see) he was acting-adjutant-general. Colonel Brooks resumed the practice of medicine at Medford after the war, and was for many years major-general of militia. He served cheerfully and efficiently in any civil or military duty to which his countrymen called him; was adjutant-general of Massachusetts during the War of 1812–15, and was governor of that commonwealth from 1816 to 1823, when he retired to private life. In 1816 Harvard University conferred upon him the degrees of M.D. and LL.D. From 1817 until his death he was president of the Massachusetts Medical Society; of the State Society of the Cincinnati from 1787; and of the Massachusetts Bible Society.


JOHN BROOKS.

Brooks, WILLIAM T. H., was born in Ohio in 1815; died at Huntsville, Ala., July 19, 1870. He graduated at West Point in 1841, served under Scott in the war against Mexico, and became brigadier-general of Volunteers in 1861, serving in the Army of the Potomac through all its operations and vicissitudes. In July, 1864, he was temporarily in command of the Tenth Army Corps, and resigned the same month.

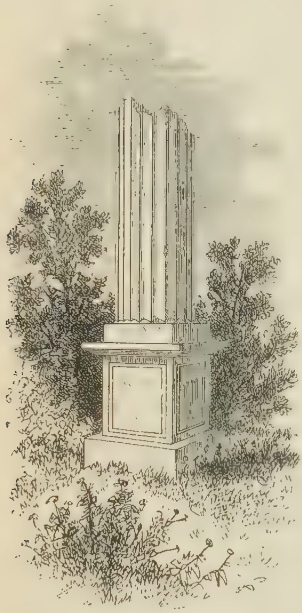
Brother Jonathan, ORIGIN OF THE PHRASE. When Washington took command of the Continental army at Cambridge, he found it in want of ammunition and other supplies, and this want continued, more or less, for months. Jonathan Trumbull was then the popular, efficient, and patriotic governor of Connecticut, and Washington had frequent occasion to rely upon his judgment and aid. On one occasion, at a council of war, when there seemed to be no way to make provision against an expected attack of the enemy, the commander-in-chief said, "We must consult brother Jonathan on the subject." He did so, and the governor was successful in supplying many of the wants of the army. When the army was afterwards spread over the country and difficulties arose, it was a common saying among the officers, as a by-word, "We must consult brother Jonathan." The origin of these words were soon lost sight of, and "Brother Jonathan" became the title of our nationality, like that of "John Bull" of England.

Brotherly Love, CITY OF. This is the meaning of *Philadelphia*, the name given by William Penn to the city which he founded (1682) between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers. He bought the land of the Swedes, and, with the assistance of Thomas Holme, the surveyor of his colony, he laid out the city at the close of 1682. He caused the boundaries of the streets to be marked on the trunks of chestnut, walnut, locust, spruce, pine, and other forest trees, and several of the streets bear the names of those trees. The new city grew rapidly. Within a year after the surveyor had finished his work almost a hundred houses were erected there, and Indians came almost daily with the spoils of the forest as gifts for "Father Penn," as they delighted to call the proprietor. In March following (1683), the city was honored as the gathering-place of the representatives of the people to consider a constitution of government which Penn had prepared. It constituted a representative republican government, with free religious toleration and justice for its foundation; and the proprietor, unlike those of other provinces, surrendered his charter-rights to the people on the appointment of public officers. Wise and beneficent laws were enacted under the charter. To prevent lawsuits, it was decreed that three arbitrators, called peace-makers, should be appointed by the county courts to hear and determine differences among the people; that children should be taught some useful trade; that factors wronging their employés should make satisfaction and one third over; that all causes for irreligion and vulgarity should be repressed; and that no man should be molested for his religious opinions. They also decreed that the days of the week and the months of the year should be called, as in Scripture, first, second, etc. The settlers lived in huts before houses could be built, also in caves in the river-banks, arched over with boughs. The chimneys were built of clay, strengthened by grass. A man named Guest built the first house, it is believed, which was the Blue Anchor Tavern afterwards, and Guest was its first keeper. Ten other houses were soon built near of frames filled in with clay. Before Penn's arrival a little cottage had been built on the site of the new city by a man named Drinker, and this was the first habitation of a white man there. The name of Philadelphia—city of brotherly love—was given by Penn to the town to impress the people with an idea of the disposition which he hoped would prevail there. Liberty in the colony caused a great influx of emigrants, and in the space of two years Philadelphia had grown so rapidly that there were six hundred houses. There had arrived in 1682 twenty-eight ships. A large emigration, chiefly of Friends, arrived there from Holland, Germany, England, and Wales in 1683–84; and the population was estimated, at the close of the latter year, at twenty-five hundred. Schools were established; and in 1687 William Bradford set up a printing-press in Philadelphia. A city charter was given by Penn, Oct. 28, 1701, and a court-house was built in 1707. During the whole colonial period Philadelphia was the most important city in the country, and remained so for more than a quarter of a century after the establishment of state government in Pennsylvania in 1776. Writing to Lord Halifax from Philadelphia, Penn said, with righteous exultation, "I must, without vanity, say I have led the greatest colony into America that ever any man did upon private credit, and the most prosperous beginnings that ever were in it are to be found among us."

Brown, Jacob, was born in Bucks County, Penn., May 9, 1775, of Quaker parentage; died in Washington city, Feb. 24, 1828. From his eighteenth to his twenty-first year he taught school at Crosswicks, N. J., and passed the next two years in surveying lands in Ohio. In 1798 he opened a select school in the city of New York, and studied law. Some of his newspaper essays attracted the notice of General Alexander Hamilton, to whom he became secretary while that officer was acting general-in-chief of the army raised to fight the French. On leaving that service he went to northern New York, purchased lands on the banks of the Black River, not many miles from Sackett's Harbor, and founded the flourishing settlement of Brownsville, where he erected the first building within thirty miles of Lake Ontario. There he became county judge; colonel of the militia in 1809; brigadier-general in 1810; and, in 1812, received the appointment of commander of the frontier from Oswego to Lake St. Francis, a line two hundred miles in extent. He performed excellent service on that frontier and that of the Niagara during the War of 1812–15, receiving two severe wounds in battle. For his services he received the thanks of Congress and a gold medal. At the close of the war, General Brown was retained in command of the northern division of the army, and was made general-in-chief of the Army of the United States, March 10, 1821.

JACOB BROWN.

General Brown's remains were interred in the Congressional burying-ground, and over them is a truncated column of white marble upon an inscribed pedestal.



GENERAL BROWN'S MONUMENT.

Brown, JOHN, a patriot of the Revolution, was born at Sandisfield, Mass., Oct. 19, 1744; killed by Indians in the Mohawk Valley, Oct. 19, 1780. He graduated at Yale College in 1761; became a lawyer and active patriot; entered Canada in disguise (1774–75) to obtain information and secure the co-operation of the Canadians with the other colonists, and aided Ethan Allen in the capture of Ticonderoga. He was active with Montgomery in the siege of Quebec. In August, 1776, he was made lieutenant-colonel, and, on the morning of Sept. 18, 1776, he surprised the outposts of Ticonderoga, set free one hundred American prisoners, captured four companies of British regulars, a quantity of stores and cannons, and destroyed a number of boats and an armed sloop. He left the service because of his detestation of Benedict Arnold, but continued to act with the militia.

Brown, JOHN (Ossawattomie), was born at Torrington, Conn., May 9, 1800; hanged at Charlestown, Va., Dec. 2, 1859. He was a descendant of Peter Brown of the *Mayflower*. His grandfather was a soldier of the Revolution, and perished in that war. When John was five years of age, his father moved to Ohio; and in 1815–20 he worked at the trade of a tanner. He became a dealer in wool; visited Europe on business; and in 1855 he emigrated to Kansas, where, as an anti-slavery champion, he took an active part against the pro-slavery party, engaging in some of the conflicts of the short civil war in that territory. Devout, moral, courageous, and intensely earnest, he sought to be an instrument for the abolition of African slavery from the Republic. The idea that he might become a liberator was conceived so early as 1839. In May, 1859, he made his first movement in an attempt to liberate the slaves in Virginia, which ended so disastrously to himself at Harper's Ferry. (See *John Brown's Raid.*) That movement precipitated the secession measures which led to the Civil War and the destruction of the institution of slavery in the United States.

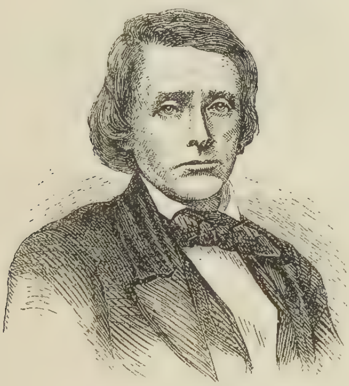
Brown, JOHN CARTER, was born in Providence, R. I., Aug. 28, 1797; died there, June 10, 1874. He was a second son of Nicholas Brown, the patron of Brown University, at which he graduated in 1816. He engaged largely in the business of manufactures and merchandise. He travelled much in the United States, and resided in Europe, at different times, for several years. In 1828 he was chosen a trustee, and in 1842 a fellow, of Brown University, and so remained until his death, bestowing many munificent gifts upon that institution. Together they amounted to $70,000. In his will he made liberal provision for a new library building, which has since been erected. His entire benefactions to the university amount to nearly $160,000. Mr. Brown never took any prominent part in public affairs; but he was an active friend of the bondsmen, and did much, in his quiet way, in aid of the cause of freedom in the struggle in Kansas (which see), giving money liberally for the promotion of emigration thither from New England. During almost his whole life Mr. Brown was engaged in the collection of a library of American history, in which his friend Hon. J. Russell Bartlett materially aided him. He aimed to gather early, rare, and valuable books, which, by proper classification, would show the methods of American colonization and subsequent development of its civilization. For full forty years before his death he pursued this object with zeal, and has left one of the rarest and grandest collections of the kind ever made. It comprises about ten thousand volumes; and it gives to John Carter Brown a foremost place among the distinguished historical collectors of the world.

Brown, NICHOLAS, a munificent patron of Brown University, from whom it derives its name. (See *Brown University.*) He was born in Providence, R. I., April 4, 1769; died there, Sept. 27, 1841. He graduated at Rhode Island College (Brown University) in 1786, became a very successful merchant from 1791, was a member of the Rhode Island Legislature, and giving money liberally to his *alma mater*, the name of Brown University was given to it. He gave in all about $100,000 to that college, and liberally patronized other institutions of learning. He gave nearly $10,000 to the Providence Athenæum, and bequeathed $30,000 for an insane asylum in Providence.

Brownists. The Puritans who went to Holland, and afterwards emigrated to New England, were of the sect called "Brownists," so named from their leader, Robert Brown. The sect sprang up towards the close of the sixteenth century. So early as 1580, Brown began to inveigh against the ceremonies of the Church of England. Being opposed by the bishops, he and his congregation left England, and settled in Zealand, where they formed a church upon a model to suit themselves. The seed he had planted in England grew so abundantly that at the close of the century there were about twenty thousand

Brownists in the realm. Of that sect were Rev. Mr. Robinson, Elder Brewster, and the congregation at Leyden in 1620. The founder of this sect was born about the year 1550, and died about 1630. His family were closely connected with Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh. Educated at Cambridge, as soon as he left college he began a vigorous opposition to the whole discipline and liturgy of the Established Church. He taught that all the members of a church were equal, and that the pastor should be chosen by the congregation.

Brownlow, William Gannaway, clergyman and journalist, was born in Wythe County, Va., Aug. 29, 1805; died at Knoxville, Tenn., April 29, 1877. He was left an orphan at eleven years of age, and, by means of wages as a carpenter in his youth, he acquired a fair English education. At the age of twenty-four years he entered the ministry of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and was an itinerant for ten years. While on his circuit in South Carolina he opposed the nullification movement in that state (see *Nullification*), which excited strong opposition to him. About 1837 he began the publication of the *Knoxville Whig*, a political newspaper, which soon circulated widely, and, for its vigorous polemics, obtained for Brownlow the name of the "Fighting Parson." In 1858 he engaged in a public debate in Philadelphia on the question, "Ought American Slavery to be Perpetuated?" in which he took the affirmative. When the secession movement began, he boldly opposed it, taking the ground that the preservation of the Union would furnish the best safeguard of Southern institutions, and especially of slavery. So outspoken and influential was Mr. Brownlow that, in December, 1861, he was arrested, by order of the Confederate authorities, on a charge of treason against the Confederacy, and confined in Knoxville jail, where he suffered much until released in March, 1862. Then he was sent within the Union lines at Nashville. Afterwards he made a tour in the Northern States, delivering speeches in the principal cities. At Philadelphia he was joined by his family, who had been expelled from Knoxville, where he published *Sketches of the Rise, Progress, and Decline of Secession, with a Narrative of Personal Adventures among the Rebels.* Brownlow was Governor of Tennessee in 1865–69, and United States Senator from 1869 until his death. He was a man of fearless spirit, held such a caustic pen, and maintained such influential social and political relations that he was intensely hated and feared by the Secessionists. The latter longed for an occasion to silence him, and finally they made the false charge that he was accessory to the firing of several railway bridges in East Tennessee to cut off communication between Virginia and that region. His life had been frequently menaced by Confederate soldiers, and, at the urgent solicitation of his family, he left home in the autumn (1861), and went into another district. While he was absent several bridges were burned. Believing him to have been concerned in the burning, the Confederate colonel Wood — a Methodist preacher from Alabama—was sent out, with some cavalry, with orders, publicly given at Knoxville, not to take him prisoner, but to shoot him at once. Informed of his peril, Brownlow, with other loyal men, secreted himself in the Smoky Mountains, on the borders of North Carolina, where they were fed by loyalists. The Confederates finally resolved to get rid of this "dangerous citizen" by giving him a pass to go into Kentucky under a military escort. He received such a pass at Knoxville, and was about to depart for the Union lines, when he was arrested for treason. By the assurance of safety he had come to Knoxville for his pass, and so put himself in the hands of his enemies. He and some of the best men in East Tennessee were cast into the county jail, where they suffered intensely. Deprived of every comfort, they were subjected to the vile ribaldry of the guards, and constantly threatened with death by hanging. Acting upon the suggestions of Benjamin (see *Solid South*), men *charged* with bridge-burning, and confined with Brownlow, were hanged, and their bodies were left suspended as a warning. In the midst of these fiery trials, Parson Brownlow (as he was familiarly called) remained firm, and exercised great boldness of speech. They dared not hang *him* without a legal trial and conviction. They offered him life and liberty if he would take the oath of allegiance to the Confederacy. He refused with scorn. To Benjamin he wrote: "You are reported to have said to a gentleman in Richmond that I am a bad man, and dangerous to the Confederacy, and that you desire me out of it. Just give me my passport, and I will do for your Confederacy more than the devil has ever done—I will quit the country." Benjamin soon afterwards indicated a wish that Brownlow should be sent out of the Confederacy, "only," he said, "because color is given to the suspicion that he has been entrapped." He was finally released, and sent to Nashville (then in possession of National troops) early in March, 1862.

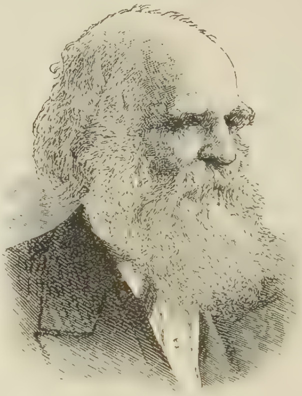

WILLIAM GANNAWAY BROWNLOW.

Brown's Ferry, Seizure of, 1863. General G. W. F. Smith undertook to open a more direct way for supplies for the National troops at Chattanooga (which see). In co-operation with Hooker's advance on Wauhatchie (which see), he sent General Hazen from Chattanooga, with eighteen hundred men in batteaux, to construct a pontoon bridge below. These floated noiselessly and undiscerned in the night (Oct. 26, 27, 1863) down the Tennessee River, past the point of Lookout Mountain, along a line of Confederate pickets seven miles in length. They landed at Brown's Ferry, on the south side, captured the pickets there, and seized a low range of hills that commanded Lookout Valley. Another force, twelve hundred strong, under General Turchin, had moved down the north bank of the river to the ferry at about the same time; and by ten o'clock a pontoon bridge was laid, and a strong *abatis* for defence was constructed. The Confederates, bewildered, withdrew up the valley. Before night the left of Hooker's line rested on Smith's at the pontoon bridge. By this operation the railway from Bridgeport well up towards Chattanooga was put in possession of the Nationals, and the route for supplies for the troops at the latter place was reduced by land from sixty to twenty-eight miles along a safe road; and by using the river to Kelly's Ferry, to eight miles.

Brownstown. (See *Van Horne's Surrender.*)

Bryant on the Embargo. Among the political writers of the day who attacked the first embargo act (which see) was the late poet William Cullen Bryant, being a lad only thirteen years of age. In a poetical satire, entitled *The Embargo; or, Sketches of the Times*, the boy-politician gave evidence of those powers which afterwards elevated him to the front rank among the literary men of the nation. Young Bryant called the embargo act a "terrapin policy"—the policy designed by it of shutting up the nation in its own shell, as it were, like the terrapin with its head. In that poem he violently assailed the President (Mr. Jefferson), and revealed the intensity of the opposition to him and his policy in New England, which made even boys bitter politicians. Alluding to Jefferson's narrow escape from capture by Tarleton in 1781 (see *Cornwallis, Invasion by*), his zeal for the French, and his scientific researches, young Bryant wrote:

> "And thou, the scorn of every patriot name,
> Thy country's ruin, and her council's shame!
> Poor, servile thing! derision of the brave!
> Who erst from Tarleton fled to Carter's cave;
> Thou, who, when menaced by perfidious Gaul,
> Didst prostrate to her whisker'd minion fall;
> And when our cash his empty bags supplied,
> Did meanly strive the foul disgrace to hide.
> Go, wretch, resign the Presidential chair,
> Disclose thy secret measures, foul or fair;
> Go, search with curious eye for hornéd frogs
> 'Mid the wild wastes of Louisiana bogs,
> Or, where Ohio rolls his turbid stream,
> Dig for huge bones, thy glory and thy theme."



WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT.

Bryant, William Cullen, poet, was born at Cummington, Mass., Nov. 3, 1794; died in New York city, June 12, 1878. He communicated rhymes to the county newspaper before he was ten years of age. His father was a distinguished physician and man of letters, and took great pains in the instruction of his boy. His poem on *The Embargo*, written in his thirteenth year, evinced great precocity of intellect. (See *Bryant on the Embargo.*) He wrote his most remarkable poem (*Thanatopsis*) when he was in his nineteenth year. In 1810 he entered Williams College, but did not graduate. He was admitted to the bar in 1815, and practised some time in western Massachusetts. His first collection of poems was published in 1821, and this volume caused his immediate recognition as a poet of great merit. In 1825 Mr. Bryant became an associate editor of the *New York Review.* In 1826 he became connected with the *New York Evening Post*, and continued its editor until his death. Meanwhile he contributed to literary publications. He made four visits to Europe (1834, 1845, 1849, and 1858–59), and in the intervals had visited much of his own country from Maine to Florida. On the completion of his seventieth year, in 1864, his birthday was celebrated by a festival at the "Century Club" by prominent literary men. His translations of Homer into English blank verse were commended as the best rendering of the Epics in his native tongue ever made. His occasional speeches and more formal orations are models of stately style, sometimes enlivened by quiet humor. In prose composition Mr. Bryant was equally happy as in poetry in the choice of pure and elegant English words, with great delicacy of fancy pervading the whole. His last poem was published in the *Sunday-School Times*, Philadelphia, Feb. 22, 1878. It was on the subject of Washington, and was written at the request of the editor of that publication. At the time of his death he was engaged with Mr. Sidney Howard Gay in the preparation of a *History of the United States.* He had also just completed, with the assistance of the late Evert A. Duyckinck, a new and carefully annotated edition of *Shakespeare's Works*, yet (1880) unpublished.

Buccaneers, The, were daring adventurers who first combined for the spoliation of the Spaniards in the West Indies and the islands of the Caribbean Sea. The first of these were mostly French, who attempted to introduce themselves into the West Indies not long after the conquests of the Spaniards there, and were called *flibustiers*, or freebooters. Their depredations among the islands were extensive and alarming. They made settlements in Santo Domingo, where the Spaniards attempted to expel them. Retaliation followed. In 1630 they made the little island of Tortugas, west of the Florida Keys, their stronghold, where, in armed bands in row-boats, they attacked Spanish vessels, lying in wait for them on their passage from America to Europe. The richly laden treasure-ships were boarded by them, plundered, and their crews cast into the sea. They extended their operations. The French buccaneers made their headquarters in Santo Domingo, and the English in Jamaica, during the long war between France and Spain (1635–60) and afterwards; and they were so numerous and bold that Spanish commerce soon declined, and Spanish ships dared not venture to America. Finding their own gains diminishing from want of richly laden vessels to plunder, they ceased pillaging vessels, and attacked and plundered Spanish towns on the coasts of Central and South America. A number of these were seized, and immense treasures were carried away in the form of plunder or ransom. At Carthagena, in 1697, they procured $8,000,000. Their operations were finally broken up by an alliance against them of the English, Dutch, and Spanish governments. Exasperated by the conduct of the Spaniards in Florida, the Carolinas were disposed to give the buccaneers assistance in plundering them; and in 1684–93 they were sheltered in the harbor of Charleston.

Buchanan, FRANKLIN, of the United States Navy, was born in Baltimore, Md., about 1800. He entered the navy in 1815, became lieutenant in 1825, and master-commander in 1841. He was the first superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. Sympathizing with the Secession movement, and believing his state would "secede," he sent in his resignation. Finding that Maryland did not "secede," he petitioned for restoration, but was refused, when he entered the Confederate service, and superintended the fitting-out of the *Merrimac* at Norfolk. In her he fought the *Monitor* (see *Merrimac and Monitor*), and was severely wounded. He afterwards blew up his vessel to save her from capture. (See *Capture of Norfolk.*) In command of the ironclad *Tennessee*, in Mobile Bay, he was defeated and made prisoner.

Buchanan, JAMES, fifteenth President of the United States, was born in Franklin County, Penn., April 23, 1791; died at "Wheatland," near Lancaster, Penn., June 1, 1868. He graduated at Dickinson College, Penn., at the age of eighteen years, and in 1814, when he was only twenty-three years old, he was elected to a seat in the Pennsylvania Legislature. He had studied law, and was admitted to the bar at Lancaster in 1812. His father was a native of Ireland, and his mother was Elizabeth Spear, daughter of a farmer. Mr. Buchanan's career as a lawyer was so successful that, at the age of forty years, he retired from the profession with a handsome fortune. He was a Federalist in politics at first, and as such entered Congress as a member in 1821, where he held a seat ten successive years. The Federal party disappeared (see *Federalists*), and he took sides with the Democrats. He supported Jackson for the Presidency in 1828, when the present Democratic party was organized.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

In 1832–34, Mr. Buchanan was United States minister at St. Petersburg, and from 1834 to 1845 was a member of the United States Senate. He was Secretary of State in the cabinet of President Polk, 1845–49, where he arrayed himself on the side of the pro-slavery men, opposing the Wilmot Proviso (which see), and the anti-slavery movements generally. In 1853 President Pierce sent him as United States minister to England, where he remained until 1856; during which time he became a party in the conference of United States ministers at Ostend, and was a signer of the famous manifesto, or consular letter. (See *Ostend Manifesto.*) In the fall of 1856 Mr. Buchanan was elected, by the Democratic party, President of the United States, receiving 174 electoral votes to 129 given for Frémont (Republican) and Fillmore ("American"). His cabinet was composed of four members from slave-labor states, and three from free-labor states. Those from the former became the active enemies of the republic, and assisted in attempts to destroy the Union. In the first year of his administration great excitement existed concerning the political and social position of Kansas. Mr. Buchanan favored the pro-slavery party; and when, in 1860, the Republican party triumphed, and elected Abraham Lincoln President of the United States, and the Southern politicians threatened the destruction of the Union, the weight of Buchanan's influence was in favor of the disunionists. In his last annual message to Congress he cast the blame for the disruption of the Union, if it should occur, on the Northern people; and, supported by the legal opinion of his attorney-general (Jeremiah S. Black, of Pennsylvania), he declared that neither Congress nor the Executive of the nation possessed power, under the Constitution, to prevent the secession of a state. General Cass, his Secretary of State, differed with him in opinion respecting executive power in the premises, and resigned (Dec. 12, 1860) because the President declined to reinforce Fort Sumter, or do anything with the strong arm of power to save the Union. Mr. Buchanan's secretaries of the Treasury, War, and Interior became openly disloyal; and, when a dissolution of the cabinet occurred, and a preponderance of loyal men appeared in it, the President was enabled, thus relieved from pressure, to act more patriotically. He retired to private life March 4, 1861, and took up his abode at "Wheatland," where he died. Mr. Buchanan lived a bachelor. He was an able lawyer, a good debater, and in private life, from his boyhood, his moral character was without reproach. He lived in troublous times, and his political career, towards the last, seems to have been shaped more by persistent politicians than by his own better impulses and judgment.

Buchanan, Robert Christie, was born in Maryland, and graduated at West Point in 1830; served in the Seminole War and the war with Mexico; and was made a lieutenant-colonel in 1861. He served in the Army of the Potomac continually during the Civil War, and was breveted major-general U. S. Army in 1865.

Buchanan's Cabinet. On Friday, March 6, 1857, President Buchanan sent to the Senate the names of the following gentlemen as his cabinet ministers, which were immediately confirmed: Lewis Cass, of Michigan, Secretary of State; Howell Cobb, of Georgia, Secretary of the Treasury; John B. Floyd, of Virginia, Secretary of War; Isaac Toucey, of Connecticut, Secretary of the Navy; Jacob Thompson, of Mississippi, Secretary of the Interior; Aaron V. Brown, of Tennessee, Postmaster-general; Jeremiah S. Black, of Pennsylvania, Attorney-general.

Buchanan's Fast-day Proclamation. On Dec. 14, 1860, when the whole country was in confusion and alarm because of the bold avowals of the Secessionists in Congress of their intention to break up the Union, President Buchanan issued a proclamation for the observance of Jan. 4 following as a day for humiliation, fasting, and prayer throughout the Republic. "All classes," he said, "are in a state of confusion and dismay, and the wisest counsels of our best and foremost men are wholly disregarded. In this, the hour of our calamity and peril, to whom shall we resort for relief but to the God of our fathers. His omnipotent arm only can save us from the awful effects of our own crimes and follies — our own ingratitude and guilt towards our Heavenly Father." The proclamation, in sentiment and expression, was all a Christian could wish, of its kind; but some thought a more appropriate formula might have been framed, considering the social condition of the nation, after finding the following words in the fifty-eighth chapter of Isaiah: "Wherefore have we fasted, say they, and thou seest not? wherefore have we afflicted our soul, and thou takest no knowledge? Behold, in the day of your fast ye find pleasure, and exact all your labors. Behold, ye fast for strife and debate, and to smite with the fist of wickedness: ye shall not fast as ye do this day, to make your voice to be heard on high. Is it such a fast that I have chosen? a day for a man to afflict his soul? is it to bow down his head as a bulrush, and to spread sackcloth and ashes under him? wilt thou call this a fast, and an acceptable day to the Lord? Is not this the fast that I have chosen? *to loose the bands of wickedness, to undo the heavy burdens, and to let the oppressed go free*, and that *ye break every yoke?* Is it not to deal thy bread to the hungry, and that thou bring the poor that are cast out to thy house? when thou seest the naked, that thou cover him; and that thou hide not thyself from thine own flesh? . . . Then shalt thou call, and the Lord shall answer; thou shalt cry, and he shall say, Here I am."

Buchanan's Inaugural Address. A chief topic of President Buchanan's inaugural address was the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States (not promulgated until two days afterwards) in the Dred Scott case (which see), and its effects. He spoke of that decision, which virtually declared the institution of slavery to be a national one, and that the black man "had no rights which the white man was bound to respect," and said it would "speedily and finally" settle the slavery question. He announced his intention to cheerfully abide by that decision. He declared that the question was wholly a judicial one, which belonged to the Supreme Court of the Republic to settle; and that, as by its decision the admission or rejection of slavery in any territory was to be determined by the legal votes of the people in such territory, the "whole territorial question was thus settled upon the principle of popular sovereignty—a principle as ancient as free government itself;" that "everything of a practical nature" had been settled; and that he seriously hoped the long agitation of the subject of slavery was "approaching its end." It was then only the "beginning of the end." That decision "kindled the fire" spoken of by the Georgian in the debate on the Missouri Compromise (which see), "which only seas of blood could extinguish." A council of priests could not stop the motion of the earth, and Galileo knew it and said so; the opinions of five men could not prevent the great heart of the nation beating with strong desires to have the stain of slavery wiped from its escutcheon. The decision settled nothing "speedily and finally" but the destruction of the institution it was expected to preserve. (See *March of Public Sentiment.*)

Buckeye State, the popular name of the State of Ohio, derived from the buckeye-tree, which abounds there.

Buckingham, William Alfred, LL.D., was known as the "War Governor of Connecticut," he being the patriotic and energetic chief magistrate of that state during the late Civil War. He was born at Lebanon, Conn., May 28, 1804; died at Norwich, Conn., Feb. 4, 1875. He engaged in business in Norwich in 1825, where he became a successful merchant and carpet manufacturer; and his generosity and public spirit endeared him to the people. His patriotism, energy, popularity, and extensive influence were of inestimable service to the National government during its struggle for existence; and he was one of the most active of the "war governors" during the contest. In 1869, Governor Buckingham was chosen to represent Connecticut in the Senate of the United States. A patron of education and a promoter of religion and public morals, he gave to the Theological School of Yale College $25,000 for the education of young men for the Gospel ministry.

WILLIAM ALFRED BUCKINGHAM.

Buckner, SIMON BOLIVAR, was born in Kentucky about the year 1824, and graduated at the West Point Academy in 1844. He was Assistant Professor of Ethics there for two years, and then engaged in the war with Mexico, in which he was wounded, and breveted captain. After that war he was again a tutor at West Point; resigned in 1855; practised law in Kentucky; and became one of the most prominent "Knights of the Golden Circle" (which see) in that state. After the Civil War began he became commander of the "Kentucky State Guard" (which see), and adjutant-general of the state. He soon joined the Confederate army, and surrendered the fort and garrison of Fort Donelson (which see) in February, 1862, when he was sent a prisoner to Fort Warren. After his release, he continued in the Confederate service until the close of the war, and rose to the rank of major-general.

Bucktails. In the politics of the State of New York the Tammany Society (which see) held a conspicuous place so early as during the War of 1812–15. The Republican, or Democratic, party had been divided into two great factions, known as "Madisonians" and "Clintonians," James Madison and De Witt Clinton being rival candidates for the office of President of the United States. Most of the Federalists voted for Clinton. The Tammany Society adhered to Madison. In the election of 1816 a portion of the members of the Tammany Society wore an emblem in their caps—a deer's tail—and they were called "Bucktails." This soon became the title of the Madisonians; and in 1816, when Clinton was elected governor of New York, the opposing parties in the state were known as "Bucktails" and "Clintonians." To one or the other of these parties portions of the disintegrated Republican, or Democratic, party became attached. Afterwards the Bucktail party was styled by its antagonists the "Albany Regency" (which see).

Buell, DON CARLOS, was born near Marietta, O., March 23, 1818; graduated at West Point in 1841; engaged in the war with Mexico, in which he won the brevets of captain and major, and was severely wounded; became lieutenant-colonel in the regular army, and brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1861; major-general of volunteers in March, 1862; and, with an army, arrived on the battle-field of Shiloh (which see) in time to assist in the defeat of the Confederates. In command of the District of Ohio, he confronted Bragg's invasion of Kentucky (which see), and drove him out of the state. (See *Perryville.*) On Oct. 24 he transferred his command to General Rosecrans; was mustered out of the volunteer service May 23, 1864; and resigned his commission in the army June 1, 1865, when he became president of the Green River Iron Company, in Kentucky.

Buena Vista, BATTLE OF (1847). General Taylor received such instructions from the War Department that he declared (Nov. 13, 1846) the armistice granted at Monterey was at an end. General Worth marched, with 900 men, for Saltillo, the capital of Coahuila, and was followed the next day by Taylor, who left General W. O. Butler, with some troops, to hold the conquered city of Monterey. Saltillo was taken possession of on Nov. 15. After several minor movements, and having been deprived of a large number of his troops by an order of General Scott to send them to reinforce an American army that was to attack Vera Cruz, Taylor was forced to stand on the defensive with about 5000 men. Informed that General Santa Aña (who had entered Mexico from his exile in Cuba, and had been elected President of Mexico in December) was gathering an army of 20,000 men at San Luis Potosi, Taylor resolved to form a junction with General Wool (who had entered Mexico with about 3000 troops, crossing the Rio Grande at Pesidio), and fight the boastful Mexican leader. He reached Saltillo with his little army on Feb. 2, 1847, joining Wool's forces there, and encamped at Aqua Nueva, twenty miles south of that place, on the San Luis road. On hearing of the approach of Santa Aña with his host, Taylor and Wool fell back to Angostura, a narrow defile in the mountains facing the fine estate of Buena Vista, and there encamped, in battle order, to await the coming of their foe. Santa Aña and his army were within two miles of Taylor's camp on the morning of Feb. 22, when the Mexican chief sent a note to Taylor, telling him he was surrounded by 20,000 men, and could not, in all probability, avoid being cut to pieces; but as he held the American commander in special esteem, and wished to save him such a catastrophe, he gave him this notice, that he might surrender at discretion. He granted Taylor an hour to make a decision. It was soon made; for the commander immediately declined the polite invitation to surrender, and both armies prepared to fight. The Americans waited for the Mexicans to take the initiative. There was slight skirmishing all day, and that night the American troops bivouacked without fire and slept on their arms; the Mexicans, in the mountains, meanwhile trying to form a cordon of soldiers around the little army of Taylor and Wool, then less than 5000 in number. The battle began early on the morning of the 23d, and continued all day. The struggle was terribly severe; the slaughter was fearful; and until near sunset it was doubtful who would triumph. Then the Mexican leader, performing the pitiful trick of displaying a flag of truce to throw Taylor off his guard, made a desperate assault on the American centre, where that officer was in command in person. The batteries of Bragg, Washington, and Sherman resisted the assault, and before long the Mexican line began to waver. Taylor, standing near one of the batteries, seeing this sign of weakness, said, quietly, "Give 'em a little more grape, Captain Bragg." (See *Bragg, Braxton.*) It was done, and just at twilight the Mexicans gave way and fled in considerable confusion. Night closed the battle. Expecting it would be resumed in the morning, the Americans again slept on their arms, but when the day dawned no enemy was to be seen. Santa Aña had fallen back, and in a few days his utterly dispirited army was almost dissolved. In their flight the Mexicans had left about 500 of their comrades, dead or dying, on the field. With these and wounded and prisoners, their loss amounted to almost 2000 men; that of the Americans, in killed, wounded, and missing, was 746. Among the slain was a son of Henry Clay. On the day of the battle Captain Webster, with a small party of Americans, drove General Minon and 800 Mexicans from Saltillo. Taylor returned to Walnut Springs, where he remained several months, and in the autumn of 1847 he returned home. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

Buffalo, Destruction of (1812). General Riall, with his regulars and Indians, recrossed from Lewiston (see *Fort Niagara, Capture of*) when his forces had returned from the desolation of the New York frontier. Full license had been given to his Indians, and the desolation was made perfect almost to Black Rock. Riall marched up from Queenston (Dec. 28) to Chippewa, Lieutenant-general Drummond in immediate command. By this time all Western New York had been alarmed. McClure had appealed to the people to hasten to the frontier. General Amos Hall called out the militia and invited volunteers. Hall took chief command of troops now gathered at Black Rock and Buffalo, 2000 strong. From Drummond's camp, opposite Black Rock, Riall crossed the river (Dec. 30) with about 1000 white men and Indians. The night was dark. They drove the Americans from Black Rock. The militia were alarmed, and at dawn Hall ascertained that 800 of them had deserted. Hall, with the rest of his force, proceeded to attack the invaders. He, too, had a force of Indians; but these, with more of the militia, soon gave way, and, the commander's force broken, he was in great peril. Deserted by a large portion of his troops, vastly outnumbered, and almost surrounded, Hall was compelled to retreat and leave Buffalo to its fate. It was presently in possession of the British and their Indian allies, who proceeded to plunder, destroy, and slaughter. Only four buildings were left standing in the village. At Black Rock only a single building escaped the flames. Four vessels which had done good service on Lake Erie—the *Ariel*,

THE PORT OF BUFFALO IN 1813.

Little Belt, Chippewa, and *Trippe*—were burned; and so were completed the measures of retaliation for the burning of Newark (which see). Six villages, many isolated country-houses, and four vessels were consumed, and the butchery of many innocent persons attested the fierceness of the revenge of the British.

Buford, JOHN, born in Kentucky in 1825; died at Washington, D. C., Dec. 16, 1863. He graduated at West Point in 1848; became captain in 1859; and inspector-general, with the rank of major, November, 1861. He commanded a brigade of cavalry under General Hooker, and was so severely wounded near the Rappahannock (August, 1862) that he was reported dead. In the battle of Antietam he was on General McClellan's staff. He was conspicuous in many engagements while in command of the reserve cavalry brigade, and he began the battle of Gettysburg (which see). He was chief of Burnside's cavalry, and was assigned to the command of the Army of the Cumberland just before his death. His half-brother, Napoleon Buford (born in 1807), is also a graduate of West Point, and entered the artillery. He was a pupil in the Law School of Harvard University; Professor of Natural Philosophy at West Point; but retired to civil pursuits in 1835. Engaging first as colonel in the Union army in 1861, he served well during the continuance of the strife, and was breveted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865.

Buford's Defeat (1780). When a detachment of Americans, under Colonel Abraham Buford, of Virginia, hastening to the relief of Lincoln at Charleston (see *Siege of Charleston*), heard of his surrender, they returned towards North Carolina. Buford's command consisted of nearly four hundred Continental infantry, a small detachment of Colonel Washington's cavalry, and two field-pieces. He had reached Camden in safety, and was retreating leisurely towards Charlotte, when Colonel Tarleton, with seven hundred men, all mounted, sent in pursuit by Cornwallis, overtook Buford upon the Waxhaw Creek. Tarleton had marched one hundred miles in fifty-four hours. With only his cavalry—the remainder were mounted infantry—he almost surrounded Buford before that officer was aware of danger, and demanded an instant surrender upon the terms given to the Americans at Charleston. These were too humiliating, and Buford refused compliance. While flags for the conference were passing and repassing, Tarleton, contrary to the rules of warfare, was making preparations for an attack in case of a refusal. The instant he received Buford's reply, his cavalry made a furious charge upon the American ranks. The assailed troops were dismayed by an attack under such circumstances, and all was confusion. Some fired upon their assailants, others threw down their arms and begged for quarter. None was given, and men without arms were hewn in pieces by the sabres of Tarleton's cavalry. There were one hundred and thirteen slain; and one hundred and fifty were so maimed as to be unable to travel, and fifty-three were made prisoners to grace the triumphal entry of the conqueror into Camden. Only five of the British were killed and fifteen wounded. All of Buford's artillery, ammunition, and baggage became spoil for the enemy. For this savage feat Cornwallis eulogized Tarleton, and commended him to the ministers as worthy of special favor. Afterwards, "Tarleton's quarter" became a proverbial synonym for cruelty. Stedman, one of Cornwallis's officers, and a historian of the war, wrote, "On this occasion, the virtue of humanity was totally forgotten."

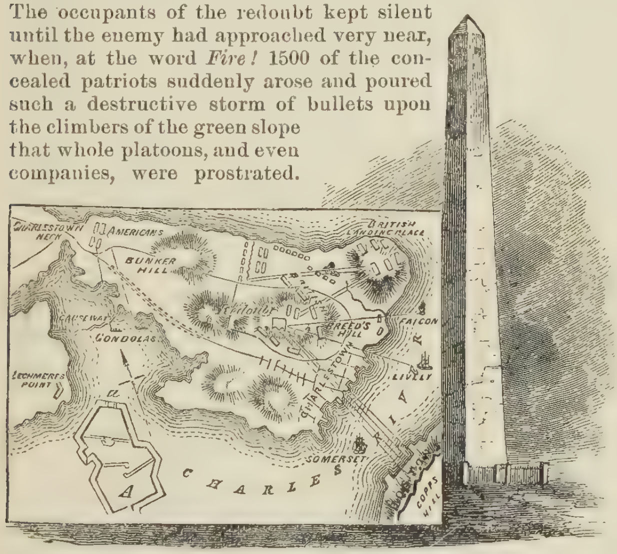
Bull's Run, BATTLE OF (1861). The gathering of Confederate troops at Manassas Junction (which see) required prompt and vigorous movements for the defence of Washington city. Beauregard was there with the main Confederate army, and General J. E. Johnston was at Winchester, in the Shenandoah Valley, with a large body of troops, with which he might reinforce the former. General Patterson was at Martinsburg with eighteen thousand Nationals to keep Johnston at Winchester. General Irwin McDowell was in command of the Department of Virginia, with his headquarters at "Arlington House;" and, at about the middle of July, 1861, he was ordered to move against the Confederates. With twenty thousand troops he marched from Arlington Heights (July 16), for the purpose of flanking the Confederate right wing. A part of his troops under General Tyler had a severe battle with them at Blackburn's Ford (July 18), and were repulsed. (See *Blackburn's Ford, Battle at*). McDowell found he could not flank the Confederates, so he proceeded to make a direct attack upon them, not doubting Patterson would be able to keep Johnston in the valley. On the morning of July 21, McDowell's forces were set in motion in three columns, one under General Tyler on the Warrenton Road, to make a feigned attack, and the other two, commanded respectively by Generals Hunter and Heintzelman, taking a wide circuit more to the left, to cross Bull's Run at different points and make a real attack on Beauregard's left wing, which was to be menaced by Tyler. The Confederate right was to be threatened by troops under Colonels Richardson and Davies, moving from Centreville. These movements were all executed, but with so much delay that it was nearly noon before the battle began. Meanwhile the Confederates had made a movement unknown to McDowell. The Confederate government, just seated at Richmond, hearing of the movements of the Nationals, immediately ordered Johnston to hasten from the valley, and reinforce Beauregard. This was done at noon (July 20), with six thousand fresh troops. (See *Patterson.*) Hunter's column crossed Bull's Run at Sudley Church, led by General Burnside, with Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts troops. Soon after crossing it encountered the Confederates, and a battle ensued in open fields. The batteries of Griffin and Reynolds were brought to bear by the Nationals. Only a small stream in a little vale separated the combatants. The Confederates were led by Colonel Evans. The contest raged most fiercely. Hard pressed, Evans's line began to waver, when General Bee advanced with fresh troops, and gave it strength. Then the National line began to tremble, when Colonel Andrew Porter sent a battalion of regulars under Major Sykes to strengthen it. More fiercely the battle raged. General Hunter was severely wounded. Colonel Slocum of the Rhode Island troops was killed, when Sprague, the youthful governor of the commonwealth, took command of his troops. The wearied Nationals, who had been on their feet since midnight, began to flag, when they were reinforced by troops under Heintzelman, Sherman, and Corcoran. A charge made by a New York regiment, under Colonel H. W. Slocum, shattered the bending Confederate line, and the troops fled in confusion to a plateau whereon General T. J. Jackson had just arrived with reserves. The flight was checked, and order was brought out of confusion. Alarmed by this show of unsuspected strength in the Nationals, Johnston, who had arrived and taken the chief command, looked anxiously towards the mountain gaps through which he expected more of his troops from the Shenandoah Valley. Without these he had small hopes of success. There had been a lull in the conflict; and, at two o'clock in the afternoon, it was announced they were not in sight. At that time the Confederates had ten thousand soldiers and twenty-two heavy guns in battle order on the plateau. The Nationals proceeded to attempt to drive them from this vantage-ground. To accomplish this, five brigades—namely, Porter's, Howard's, Franklin's, Wilcox's, and Sherman's—with the batteries of Ricketts, Griffin, and Arnold, and cavalry under Major Palmer, advanced to turn the Confederate left, while Keyes's was sent to annoy them on their right. General Heintzelman accompanied McDowell as his lieutenant in the field, and his division began the attack. Ricketts and Griffin advanced with their troops, and planted their batteries on an elevation that commanded the whole plateau, with the immediate support of Ellsworth's Fire Zouaves, commanded by Colonel Farnham. To the left of these batteries, New York, Massachusetts, and Minnesota troops took a position. As the artillery and Zouaves were advancing, they were suddenly attacked on the flank by Alabamians in ambush, and then by Stuart's Black Horse Cavalry in the rear, and the Zouaves recoiled. At that moment Heintzelman ordered up a Minnesota regiment to support the batteries, when the Confederates in overwhelming force delivered a fire on these guns that disabled them by prostrating the men. Both sides suffered dreadfully. When Johnston heard of the slaughter, he exclaimed, "Oh for four regiments!" It was now three o'clock. His wish was more than gratified. Just then he saw a cloud of dust in the direction of the Manassas Gap railway. It was a part of his troops, four thousand strong, from the valley, under General E. Kirby Smith. They were immediately ordered into action, when the Confederates, so reinforced, struck the Nationals a stunning blow, just as the latter were about to grasp the palm of victory. It was so unexpected, heavy, and overpowering that in fifteen minutes the Nationals were swept from the plateau. As regiment after regiment gave way, and hurried towards the turnpike in confusion, panic seized others, and at four o'clock a greater portion of the National army was flying across Bull's Run towards Centreville—leaving behind them over three thousand men, killed, wounded, or made prisoners. The Confederates lost over two thousand. The Nationals lost twenty-seven cannons, ten of which were captured on the field, and the remainder were abandoned in the flight to Centreville. They only took a single cannon in safety to Centreville. They also lost many small-arms and a large quantity of munitions of war, and medicine and hospital supplies. The Nationals were pursued some distance. Had the Confederates pressed on after the panic-stricken fugitives, the coveted prize of the National capital, with all its treasures, might have been won by them within twenty-four hours. Johnston had escaped from Patterson, reinforced Beauregard at a critical moment, and won a great victory through the forgetfulness of Lieutenant-general Scott, who had given Patterson positive directions not to move until he should receive further orders. These the commanding-general *forgot to send!* Patterson knew of Johnston's movement, but his orders to wait were imperative. The first he heard of the disaster at Bull's Run was through a morning paper from Philadelphia, on July 22. (See *Bull's Run, Flight from.*)

Bull's Run, Effects of the Battle of. The result of the battle was published with great exaggeration on both sides. It produced unbounded joy among the Confederates and their friends, and the loyal people were, at first, greatly depressed by it. While the Confederates were elated beyond measure, by the evidence the battle seemed to give of their superior skill and courage, and thousands flocked to the standard of revolt from all parts of the Southern States, the loyalists were stunned by the great disaster, and the seventy-five thousand men, whose three months' term of service was about to expire, were, for the moment, made eager to leave the field, and return home. The President of the Confederacy, who arrived at Manassas just after the victory, made an exultant speech at Richmond, now become its capital, and said to the multitude, when referring to the vanquished, with bitter scorn, "Never be haughty to the humble;" and predicted that the National capital would soon be in their possession. While the streets of Richmond were populous with prisoners from the vanquished army, and eager volunteers pressing forward towards the camp of the victors at Manassas, the streets of Washington were crowded with a discomfited and disheartened soldiery, without leaders, and without organization — the personification of the crushed hopes of the loyal people. Such was the sad picture of the situation of the Republic, much exaggerated, which was presented to Europe in August, 1861. The intelligence was given first to Europe through the *London Times*—the accredited exponent of the political and social opinions of the ruling class in England—by the pen of Dr. Russell, its war-correspondent in the United States. He did not see the battle, and his account was, in a great degree, a tale of the imagination. It excited among the ruling classes a derision of the government and loyal people of the United States, and gratified the opponents of republicanism. To them the ruin of the Great Republic of the West seemed to be a fact accomplished. English statesmen and journalists dogmatically asserted it, and deplored the folly and wickedness of the President and Congress in "waging war upon sovereign states," and attempting to hold in union, by force, a people who "had the right and the desire to withdraw from a hated fellowship." It was declared that "the bubble of democracy had burst." The *London Times* said (Aug. 13), "It is evident that the whole volunteer army of the Northern States is worthless as a military organization, . . . a screaming crowd;" and spoke of it as a collection of "New York rowdies and Boston abolitionists desolating the villages of Virginia." The depression of spirits among the loyal people was, however, only momentary. Within a few days they were buoyant with faith and hope. There was a second uprising of the friends of free institutions more marvellous than the first. Volunteers flocked to the standard of the "Stars and Stripes" by thousands. The Confederates were amazed by the spectacle, and did not venture near the capital in force, where loyal regiments were continually arriving. Five days after the battle, Secretary Seward wrote to Minister Adams in London: "Our Army of the Potomac, on Sunday last, met a reverse equally severe and unexpected. For a day or two the panic which had produced the result was followed by a panic that seemed to threaten to demoralize the country. But that evil has ceased entirely. The result is already seen in a vigorous reconstruction upon a scale of greater magnitude and increased enthusiasm." The Pennsylvania reserves (which see) were transferred to the National army at Washington. The government and people were satisfied that a long and desperate struggle was before them, and they put forth most extraordinary energies to meet the crisis. On the contrary, when, the shouts of victory having died away, and the smoke of battle dissipated, the people of the Confederacy saw their victorious army immovable at Manassas and indisposed to follow up their triumph, they were filled with apprehensions, and a feeling akin to despondency took possession of the hearts of the Southern people.

Bull's Run, SECOND BATTLE OF. On the morning after the battle at Groveton (which see) Pope's army was greatly reduced. It had failed to prevent the unity of Lee's army, and prudence dictated its immediate flight across Bull's Run, and even to the defences of Washington. But Pope determined to resume the battle the next morning. He had received no reinforcements or supplies since the 26th, and had no positive assurance that any would be sent. He confidently expected rations and forage from McClellan at Alexandria (a short distance away), who was to supply them; and it was not until the morning of the 30th (August, 1862), when it was too late to retreat and perilous to stand still, that he received information that rations and forage would be sent as soon as he (Pope) should send a cavalry escort for the train—a thing impossible. He had no alternative but to fight. Both commanders had made dispositions for attack in the morning. Lee's movements gave Pope the impression that the Confederates were retreating, and he ordered McDowell to pursue with a large force, Porter's forces to advance and attack them, and Heintzelman and Reno, supported by Rickett's division, were ordered to assail and turn the Confederate left. This movement, when attempted, revealed a state of affairs fearful to the National army. The latter, as their advance moved forward, were opened upon by a fierce fire of cannons, shot, shell, and bullets, and at the same moment a large number of Lee's troops were making a flank movement that might imperil the whole of Pope's army. A very severe battle soon occurred. Porter's corps, which had recoiled at the unexpected blow, was rallied, and performed special good service; and Jackson's advanced line was steadily pushed back until five o'clock in the afternoon, when Longstreet turned the tide of battle by pouring a destructive artillery fire upon the Nationals. Line after line was swept away, and very soon the whole left was put to flight. Jackson advanced, and Longstreet pushed his heavy columns against Pope's centre, while the Confederate artillery was doing fearful execution. The left of the Nationals, though pushed back, was unbroken, and held the Warrenton pike, by which alone Pope's army might safely retreat. Pope had now no alternative but to fall back towards the defences at Washington. At eight o'clock in the evening he gave orders to that effect. This movement was made during the night, across Bull's Run, to the heights of Centreville, the brigades of Meade and Seymour covering the retreat. The night was very dark, and Lee did not pursue; and in the morning (Aug. 31) Bull's Run again divided the two great armies. So ended the second battle of Bull's Run.

Bull's Run, THE FLIGHT FROM. Other fugitives than defeated military men were in the flight from Bull's Run, July 21, 1861. The gravity of the occasion was so little appreciated that when it was known at Washington that McDowell was to attack the Confederates on Sunday, July 21, scores of men, and even women—Congressmen, officials of almost every grade, and plain citizens—went out in carriages to witness the conflict, as to a spectacular show. Passes from military commanders were like tickets to a Roman circus or a combat in the colosseum, and the vicinity of the battlefield was gay on Sunday morning with civilians, who indulged in wine and cigars at the headquarters of Colonel Miles at Centreville. The heights there were crowded with spectators, and they enjoyed the roar of the battle as it went on. The excitement was delicious while danger was distant. It assumed a different phase before night, and glowing cheeks were made pale with terror when the flying regiments came thundering on with tales of defeat and disaster and of pursuing Confederates. The spectators joined in a pell-mell rush for safety. Soldiers and citizens and well-dressed women were mingled in picturesque confusion in the line of fugitives who crowded the highways. In several places the roads became blockaded with overturned vehicles or abandoned cannons, and horses and human kind seemed equally eager to escape from the whirlwind of destruction that followed in fury behind them for a while. Fortunately, the pursuit of the Confederates was soon abandoned. Among the civilians who were caught by the pursuers was Alfred Ely, member of Congress from Rochester, N. Y., who was confined in the famous tobacco warehouse in Richmond known as the "Libby Prison" (which see). He was a prisoner there four months, when he was exchanged for Charles J. Faulkner, late American Minister to France, who had been imprisoned for suspected disloyalty. Mr. Faulkner's character was afterwards vindicated.

Bunker's (BREED'S) **Hill**, BATTLE OF. By reinforcements from England and Ireland, General Gage's army in Boston, at the close of May, 1775, was 10,000 strong. With the reinforcements came Generals William Howe, Sir Henry Clinton, and John Burgoyne, three officers experienced in the military tactics of Europe, but little prepared for service in America. Thus strengthened, Gage issued a proclamation (June 12) of martial law, and offering pardon to all who should return to their allegiance, excepting Samuel Adams and John Hancock. At that time the New England army before Boston (presently to be adopted as a Continental army) numbered about 16,000 men, divided into thirty-six regiments, of which Massachusetts furnished twenty-seven, and the other three New England colonies three each. John Whitcomb, a colonel in the French and Indian War, and Joseph Warren, President of the Provincial Congress, were appointed (June 15) major-generals of the Massachusetts forces. These provincial troops completely blockaded Boston on the land side, and effectively held the British troops as prisoners on the peninsula. General Artemas Ward, the military head of Massachusetts, was regarded, by common consent, as the commander-in-chief of this New England army. The Americans had thrown up only a few breastworks—a small redoubt at Roxbury, and some breastworks at the foot of Prospect Hill, in Cambridge. The right wing of the besieging army, under General John Thomas, was at Roxbury, consisting of 4000 Massachusetts troops, four artillery companies, a few field-pieces, and some heavy cannons. The Rhode Island forces were at Jamaica Plain, under General Greene, with a regiment of Connecticut troops under General Spencer. General Ward commanded the left wing at Cambridge. The Connecticut and New Hampshire troops were in the vicinity. It was made known to the Committee of Safety that General Gage had fixed upon the night of the 18th of June to sally out and take possession of and fortify Bunker's Hill (an elevation not far from Charlestown); also Dorchester Heights, south of Boston. Both of these points would command the town. The eager provincials determined to anticipate this movement, and the Massachusetts Committee of Safety ordered Colonel William Prescott to march, on the evening of the 16th, with 1000 men, including a company of artillery, with two field-pieces, to take possession of and fortify Bunker's Hill. This force, after a prayer by President Langdon, of Harvard, passed over Charlestown Neck; but, going by Bunker's Hill, they ascended Breed's Hill (much nearer Boston), where they had a better command of the town and the shipping. They had been joined on the way by Major Brooks and General Putnam, and by wagons laden with intrenching tools. The patriot troops worked incessantly all night under the skilful engineer Gridley, and at dawn a redoubt about eight rods square, flanked on the right by a breastwork which extended northwardly to marshy land, met the bewildered and astonished gaze of the sentinels on the British shipping in the St. Charles River. The guns of their vessels were immediately brought to bear upon the redoubt on Breed's Hill, and the noise of the cannonade aroused the sleepers in Boston. The Americans on Breed's Hill continued their work until eleven o'clock on that very hot June morning, under an incessant shower of shot and shell, with a scanty supply of provisions, after having worked all night. Putnam had removed the intrenching tools at noon to Bunker's Hill for the purpose of casting up intrenchments there, and the right flank of Prescott was strengthened by a few reinforcements thrown into Charlestown at the southern slope of the hill. On the left a fortification against musket-balls, composed of a rail fence and new-mown hay, was hastily constructed, almost at the moment of attack. The British clearly saw their impending danger, and, to thwart it, picked corps of their army, 3000 strong, led by Generals Howe and Pigot, embarked in boats from the wharves in Boston, and landed at the eastern base of Breed's Hill. Meanwhile the troops who had worked all night and half of a hot June day in throwing up intrenchments on Breed's Hill were not relieved by others, as they should have been. Colonel Prescott, at first, did not believe the British would attack his redoubt; and when he saw the movement in the town he felt assured that he could easily repulse any assailants, and it was nine o'clock before he applied to General Ward for reinforcements. Putnam had urged, early in the morning, the sending of troops. Ward, believing Cambridge to be the point of attack, would not consent to sending more than a part of Stark's New Hampshire regiment at first. Finally the remainder was sent; also, the whole of Colonel Reed's regiment on Charlestown Neck was ordered to reinforce Prescott. General Putnam was on the field, but without troops or command. The same was the case with General Warren, who hastened to the scene of action when the conflict began. Stark's regiment took a position on the left of the unfinished breastwork, but two hundred yards in the rear, and under imperfect cover, made by pulling up a rail fence, making parallel lines with the rails, and filling the intervening spaces with new-mown hay. At a little past three o'clock in the afternoon Howe's great guns moved towards the redoubt and opened fire upon the works. They were followed by the troops in two columns, commanded respectively by Howe and Pigot. The guns on the British ships, and a battery on Copp's Hill, in Boston, hurled random shots in abundance on the Americans on Breed's Hill. The occupants of the redoubt kept silent until the enemy had approached very near, when, at the word *Fire!* 1500 of the concealed patriots suddenly arose and poured such a destructive storm of bullets upon the climbers of the green slope that whole platoons, and even companies, were prostrated. Flags fell to the ground like tall lilies in a meadow. The assailants fell back to the shore, and a shout of triumph went up from the redoubt. Some scattering shots had come from the houses at Charlestown; and Gage, infuriated by the repulse, gave orders to send combustibles into that village and set it on fire. It was done, and soon the town was in flames. This conflagration added new horrors to the scene. The British again advanced, and were again driven back to their landing-place. Then General Clinton passed over from Boston to aid Howe and Pigot, and the troops were led to the assault a third time. The powder of the provincials, scanty at the beginning, now failed. Some British artillery planted pieces near the breastwork and swept it from end to end, while grenadiers assailed the redoubt on three sides at once and carried it at the point of the bayonet. Stark, meanwhile, had kept the British at bay at the rail fence until the redoubt was carried, after which all of the surviving provincials fled in good order across Charlestown Neck, enfiladed by the fire from the vessels and floating batteries on the Charles River, but received very little hurt. Of the 3000 British troops engaged in the fight, 1054 were killed or wounded—a proportionate loss which few battles can show. The loss of the provincials was 450, killed and wounded. Among the former was General Warren, whose loss was irreparable. He came to the redoubt without command, and did not take it from Prescott. He fell, as he was leaving the redoubt, from the effects of a bullet-wound. The result of the battle was a substantial victory for the Americans. They failed only because their ammunition failed. It tested the ability of the provincial army to meet a British force in the field; and so unsatisfactory was the battle to the British ministry, that Gage was superseded in command by General Howe. The general impression at the time was that the battle was on Bunker's Hill, and so it figures in history as the "Battle of Bunker's Hill." It was fought on Breed's Hill, some distance from the former. The battle was seen by thousands who were on the neighboring hills and the roofs and balconies in Boston. Many of the spectators were deeply interested, for they had dear relatives and friends in the conflict. The battle lasted about two hours.



BUNKER'S HILL, PLAN OF BATTLE OF, AND MONUMENT.*

Bunker's Hill Monument. The corner-stone of this monument was laid on the fiftieth anniversary of the battle (June 17, 1825), in the presence of a vast multitude of people. Lafayette, then on a visit to the United States, was present, and Daniel Webster delivered an oration. The monument is an obelisk, and stands in the centre of the ground, on Breed's Hill, included in the old breastwork. Its sides are precisely parallel with those of the redoubt. It is built of Quincy granite, and is 221 feet in height. The base of the obelisk is 30 feet square, and at the spring of the apex 15 feet. By a flight of 295 stone steps, within the obelisk, its top may be reached. A chamber at the top has four windows, with iron shutters. The monument was not completed until 1843, when, on June 17, it was dedicated in the presence of President Tyler and his cabinet and a vast multitude of citizens. The city of Charlestown now surrounds the monument. (See *Bunker's Hill, Battle of.*)

Burgoyne, Sir John, was born in England

---

* On the left of the plan of the battle is seen a picture of the granite obelisk erected over the site of the redoubt. The form of the redoubt is seen in the diagram A in the map. The entrance to it was at *a*, which was on the end towards Charlestown Neck.

SIR JOHN BURGOYNE.

about 1730; died in London, Aug. 4, 1792. He was liberally educated, and entered the army at an early age. While a subaltern he clandestinely married a daughter of the Earl of Derby, who subsequently aided him in acquiring military promotion and settled $1500 a year upon him. He served with distinction in Portugal in 1762. The year before, he was elected to Parliament, and gained his seat as representative of another borough, in 1768, at an expense of about $50,000. In the *Letters of Junius* (which see) he was severely handled. Being appointed to a command in America, he arrived at Boston May 25, 1775; and to Lord Stanley he wrote a letter (which was published) giving a graphic account of the battle on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill. In December, 1776, he returned to England, and was commissioned lieutenant-general. Placed in command of the British forces in Canada, he arrived there early in 1777, and in June he began an invasion of the province of New York (see *Burgoyne's Invasion*) by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson Valley. He captured Ticonderoga (July 5), and pushed on, by way of Fort Edward, to Saratoga (Sept. 13). On the 19th he fought an indecisive battle on Bemis's Heights; and, on the 7th of October, another on nearly the same field, where he was defeated. He surrendered his whole army (Oct. 17), and returned to England, on his parole, May, 1778. Being blamed, he solicited in vain for a court-martial to try his case, but he ably vindicated himself on the floor of Parliament, and published (1780) a narrative of his campaign in America for the same purpose. He joined the opposition, and an ineffectual attempt was made in 1779 to exclude him from Parliament. Then he resigned all his appointments; but in 1782 he was restored to his rank in the army, and appointed privy-councillor and commander-in-chief in Ireland. He retired from public life in 1784. Burgoyne acquired a literary reputation as a dramatist. His plays and poems were published in a collection, in two volumes, in 1808.

Burgoyne Threatens the Patriots. In a proclamation issued at Crown Point (July, 1777) Burgoyne said, "Let not people consider their distance from my camp; I have but to give stretch to the Indian forces under my direction—and they amount to thousands—to overtake the banded enemies of Great Britain. If the frenzy of hostility should remain, I trust I shall stand acquitted in the eyes of God and man in executing the vengeance of the state against the wilful outcasts."

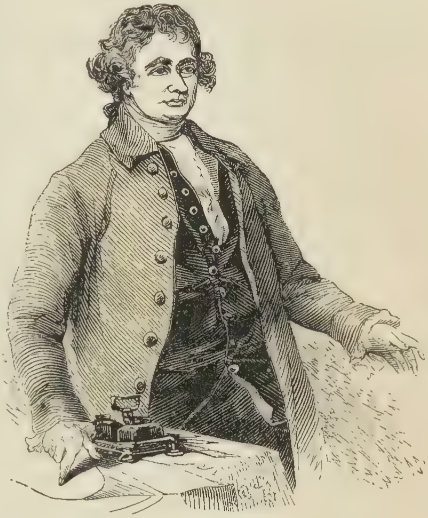
Burgoyne's Campaign. Lieutenant-general Burgoyne was in command of the British forces in Canada in 1777. He planned an invasion of northern New York to co-operate with British troops ascending the Hudson. (See *Forts Clinton and Montgomery.*) He left St. Johns, on the Sorel (June, 1777), with a brilliant and well-appointed army of eight thousand men, and ascended Lake Champlain in boats. At the falls of the Bouquet River, near the western shore of the lake, he met about four hundred Indians in council, and after a feast (June 21, 1777) he made a stirring speech to them. On the 1st of July he appeared before Ticonderoga, which was inadequately garrisoned. General St. Clair, in command there, was compelled to evacuate the post, with Mount Independence opposite (July 5 and 6), and fly towards Fort Edward, on the Upper Hudson, through a portion of Vermont. In a battle at Hubbardton (which see) the Americans were beaten and dispersed by the pursuing British and Germans. St. Clair had sent stores in boats to Skenesborough (now Whitehall), at the head of the lake. These were overtaken and destroyed by the pursuing British. Burgoyne pressed forward almost unopposed, for the American forces were very weak. The latter retreated first to Fort Edward, and then

BURGOYNE ADDRESSING THE INDIANS.

gradually down the Hudson almost to Albany. The British advanced but slowly, for the Americans, under the command of General Philip Schuyler, harassed them at every step. An expedition sent by Burgoyne to capture stores and cattle, and procure horses in this region and at Bennington, Vt., was defeated in a battle at Hoosick, N. Y. (Aug. 16), by a force hastily gathered under General Stark. Already another invading force of British regulars, Canadians, Tories, and Indians, under Colonel St. Leger, which was sent by Burgoyne, by way of Oswego, to march down the Mohawk Valley and meet the latter at Albany, had been defeated in a battle at Oriskany (Aug. 6). Schuyler was superseded by Gates (see *Schuyler and Gates*) in command of the northern army. Gates formed a fortified camp on Bemis's Heights to oppose the onward march of Burgoyne down the Hudson Valley. There he was attacked (Sept. 19) by the British; and, after a severe battle, the latter retired to their camp on the heights of Saratoga (now Schuylerville) to await the approach of Sir Henry Clinton from New York. The latter captured forts on the Hudson Highlands, and sent marauding expeditions up the river that burned Kingston. Again Burgoyne advanced to attack Gates. He was defeated (Oct. 7), and again retired to his camp. Finding it impossible to retreat, go forward, or remain quiet, he surrendered his whole army and its splendid appointments, Oct. 17, 1777.

Burke, ÆDANUS, was born in Galway, Ireland, in 1743; died in Charleston, S. C., March 3, 1802. He was educated at St. Omers for a priest; emigrated to South Carolina, and there engaged with the patriots in their conflict with Great Britain. He was a lawyer, and in 1778 was made a judge of the Supreme Court of South Carolina. He served two years in the army; was in Congress (1789–91); and after serving in the state Legislature, he became chancellor of the commonwealth awhile before his death. Judge Burke was a thorough Republican, and wrote a famous pamphlet against the "Cincinnati Society" (which see) that was translated into French by Mirabeau, and used by him with much effect during the French Revolution. Burke opposed its aristocratic features. He also opposed the National Constitution, fearing consolidated power.

Burke, EDMUND. Born in Dublin, June 1, 1730; died at Beaconsfield, Eng., July 9, 1797. He was one of fifteen children of his father, Richard Burke, an attorney, and was descended from the Norman De Burghs, who early settled in Ireland. He graduated at Trinity College, Dublin (1748); studied law, and in 1756 he published his famous essay on *The Sublime and Beautiful.* In 1758–59 he and Dodsley established the *Annual Register;* and in 1765 he was made secretary to Premier Rockingham. He entered Parliament in 1766. There he took an active and brilliant part in debates on the American question, and always in favor of the Americans, advocating their cause with rare eloquence. In 1771 he was appointed agent for the colony of New York. He lost some popularity by advocating the claims of the Roman Catholics in 1780, and opposing the policy of repressing the trade of Ireland. During the brief administration of the Rockingham ministry in 1782, he was a member of the privy council and paymaster of the forces. Taking a prominent part in the affairs in India, he began the prosecution of Governor Warren Hastings early in 1786. His labors in behalf of India in that protracted trial were immense, though the impeachment of Hastings was not effected. His great work entitled *Reflections on the Revolution in France* appeared in 1790. As a statesman and thinker and clear writer Edmund Burke had few superiors. His conversational powers were remarkable, and he was one of the suspected authors of the *Letters of Junius* (which see).



EDMUND BURKE.

Burke, THOMAS, Governor of North Carolina, was born in Ireland about 1747; died at Hillsborough, N. C., Dec. 2, 1783. He came to Virginia when seventeen years old, and in time engaged in the practice of medicine. Then he studied law, and in 1774 moved to Hillsborough. He had written against the stamp act and other obnoxious measures, and he took a conspicuous part in politics in North Carolina. He was a member of the Provincial Congress in 1776; was engaged a short time in the army, and was a member of Congress from December, 1776, until early in 1781, when he was chosen governor of the state. In September of that year he was seized by Tories, and kept a prisoner on James Island, near Charleston, four months; after which he was regularly exchanged, resumed his duties of governor, but soon retired to private life.

Burlingame, ANSON, diplomatist, was born at New Berlin, Chenango Co., N. Y., Nov. 14, 1820; died in St. Petersburg, Russia, Feb. 23, 1870. His father, a farmer, removed to Seneca County, Ohio, when Anson was three years of age. Ten years later the family were in Michigan. Anson entered the University of Michigan in 1837, and graduated at Harvard in 1846. He began the practice of law in Boston, and subsequently became an active member of the "Free Soil Party" (which see), acquiring a wide reputation as an effective speaker. In 1849–50 he was in Europe. In 1852 he was chosen a member of the Massachusetts Senate, and became an active supporter of the "American Party" in 1854, by which he was elected to Congress the same year. Mr. Burlingame assisted in the formation of the Republican party in 1855–56; and he was regarded as one of the ablest debaters in Congress on that side of the House. Severely criticising Preston S. Brooks for his attack upon Charles Sumner (which see), the South Carolinian challenged him to fight a duel. He promptly accepted the challenge, proposed rifles as the weapons, and Navy Island, just above Niagara Falls, as the place of conflict. Brooks declined to go there, and the matter was dropped. In March, 1861, President Lincoln appointed Mr. Burlingame minister to Austria. He having spoken in favor of Hungarian independence, the Austrian government refused to receive him, and he was sent as ambassador to China. There he carried forward important negotiations; and when, in 1867, he announced to the Chinese government his intention of returning home, Prince Kung, the regent of the empire, offered to appoint him special ambassador to the United States and the great European powers, for the purpose of framing treaties of amity with those nations. This high honor Mr. Burlingame accepted; and at the head of a retinue of Chinese officials, he arrived in the United States in March, 1868. From his own country Mr. Burlingame proceeded on his roving embassy to England, France, Denmark, Sweden, Holland, and Prussia. He was well received, and he negotiated treaties with all but France. He had just entered upon negotiations at St. Petersburg, early in 1870, when he died of pneumonia after an illness of only a few days.

Burlington Heights and York, EXPEDITION TO (1813). The British maintained for some time a fortified camp at Burlington Heights, at the western end of Lake Ontario. There they made a depository of stores; and to capture these an expedition, composed of three hundred land troops, under Colonel Winfield Scott, borne by the fleet of Commodore Chauncey, left the mouth of the Niagara River, July 28, 1813. The usual feeble guard over the stores had just been reinforced. Convinced that their forces were insufficient to seize the prizes, Scott and Chauncey concluded to attack York, from which the British reinforcements had just been sent. The fleet bore the troops across the lake, and entered the harbor of York on July 31. Scott landed his troops without opposition; took possession of the place; burned the barracks, public store-houses and stores, and eleven transports; destroyed five pieces of cannon, and bore away as spoils one heavy gun and a considerable quantity of flour. They found in York (Toronto) the sick and wounded of Bœrstler's command captured at the Beaver Dams (which see).

Burnet (GOVERNOR) **and Massachusetts.** Governor William Burnet having served as chief magistrate of New York and New Jersey acceptably in general, he went to Boston (July 13, 1728) with the commission of governor of Massachusetts. He was received with unusual pomp. This show he urged in his speech as a proof of their ability to give a liberal support to his government, and acquainted them with the king's instructions to him to insist upon an established salary, and his intention to adhere to it. The Assembly at once took an attitude of opposition to the governor. They voted him £1700 to enable him to manage public affairs, and to defray his expenses in going there. The governor declared himself dissatisfied, and would not consent to their resolve, as it was "contrary to his majesty's instructions." The Assembly appealed to their charter, granted by King William, and refused to vote a fixed salary. A spirited contest in writing ensued. In one of his communications the governor threatened the colony with the loss of their charter. They remained firm, "because," they said, "it is the undoubted right of all Englishmen, by Magna Charta, to raise and dispose of money for the public service of their own free accord, without compulsion." At a town-meeting in Boston, during the controversy, a unanimous declaration was made that the people of that town were opposed to settling a fixed salary on the governor. That official then adjourned the Legislature to Salem, remarking, in his message for that purpose, that the interposition of towns was "a needless and officious step, better adapted to the republic of Holland than to a British constitution." The Assembly adhered to their determination, and the governor was compelled to yield.

Burnet, WILLIAM, born at the Hague, Holland, in March, 1688, when William of Orange (afterwards William III. of England) became his godfather at baptism. He was a son of Bishop Burnet. He became engaged in the South Sea speculations (see *Law's Scheme*), which involved him pecuniarily, and, to retrieve his fortune, he received the appointment of governor of the colonies of New York and New Jersey. He arrived in New York in September, 1720. Becoming unpopular there, he was transferred to the governments of Massachusetts and New Hampshire. He arrived at Boston in July, 1728, and soon became involved in disputes with the Assembly about his salary. (See *Burnet and Massachusetts.*) That body was firm, and the governor was compelled to yield. In person he was very commanding; was frank in manner, and of ready wit. Governor Burnet died Sept. 7, 1729.

Burnside, AMBROSE EVERETT, was born at Liberty, Ind., May 23, 1824. He graduated at West Point in 1847, and, as a member of a corps of artillery, accompanied General Patterson to Mexico the same year. Afterwards he was in charge of a squadron of cavalry in New Mexico;

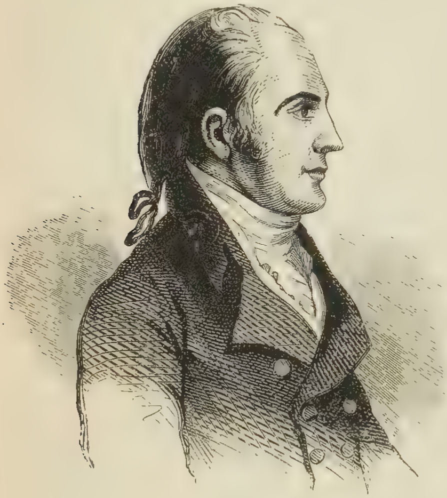
was quartermaster of the Mexican Boundary Commission in 1850–51; resigned in 1853; established a manufactory of breech-loading rifles (his own invention) in Rhode Island; and was an officer of the Illinois Central Railroad Company when the Civil War began. He went into that conflict as colonel of the First Rhode Island Volunteers. For good service at the battle of Bull's Run, he was made (Aug. 6, 1861) major-general of volunteers. He commanded the expedition that captured Roanoke Island (which see) in February, 1862; also of Newbern and Beaufort. He was called to Virginia after the close of the campaign on the Peninsula, and was active and skilful as a corps commander in many of the most important military events of the war. General Burnside served in the campaign in Maryland under McClellan, and was in the battles at South Mountain and Antietam. On Nov. 7, 1862, he superseded McClellan in command of the Army of the Potomac. Failing of success in his attack upon Lee at Fredericksburg (December, 1862), he resigned, and was succeeded by General Hooker (see *Fredericksburg*) in January, 1863. Assigned to the command of the Department of the Ohio in May, he was active there in suppressing the disloyal elements in that region. In the fall he freed East Tennessee of Confederate domination, where he fought Longstreet. He was in command of his old corps (the Ninth) in Grant's campaign against Richmond in 1864–65, where he performed important work. He resigned April 15, 1865. In 1866 General Burnside was elected governor of Rhode Island, and was twice re-elected. Being in Europe in the fall of 1870, he was admitted within the German and French lines around Paris, and ineffectually endeavored to mediate between the belligerents.

AMBROSE EVERETT BURNSIDE.

Burnt Corn Creek, BATTLE OF. Peter McQueen, a half-blood Creek Indian of Tallahassee, was a fiery leader among the war party of that nation, wherein civil war was raging in the spring of 1813. This war Tecumtha had stirred up, and the whole Creek nation had become a seething caldron of passion. A British squadron in the Gulf held friendly intercourse with the Spanish authorities at Pensacola. To that port McQueen and three hundred followers, with pack-horses, went to get supplies and convey them to the war party in the interior. That party was inimical to the white people settled in that nation, and it was the duty of the military in that region to protect the latter. This protection was not furnished, and the white inhabitants and the peace party among the Creeks prepared to defend themselves. Colonel James Caller called out the militia to intercept McQueen. There was a prompt response, and Caller set out with a few followers. He marched towards the Florida frontier, joined on the way by the famous borderer Captain Sam Dale and fifty men, who were engaged in the construction of a fort. He was now joined by others from Tensaw Lake and Little River under various leaders. Caller's command now numbered about one hundred and eighty men, in small companies, well mounted on good frontier horses, and provided with rifles and shot-guns. Setting out on the main route for Pensacola on the morning of July 27 (1813), they found McQueen encamped upon a peninsula formed by the windings of Burnt Corn Creek. It was resolved to attack him. McQueen and his party were surprised, but they fought desperately a few minutes, and then fled towards the creek. The tide then turned. McQueen and his Indians arose from an ambush with horrid yells and fell upon less than one hundred of Caller's men. Dale was severely wounded, but kept on fighting. Overwhelming numbers at length compelled Caller's force to retreat. They fled in disorder, many of them leaving their horses behind them. Victory rested with the hostile Creeks. Only two of Caller's command were killed and fifteen wounded. The battle of Burnt Corn Creek was the first in the Creek war, a conflict which ruined that nation. (See *Creeks.*)

Burr, AARON, President of the College of New Jersey, was born at Fairfield, Conn., Jan. 4, 1716; died Sept. 24, 1757. He was of German descent; graduated at Yale College in 1735; and was ordained by the presbytery of East Jersey a minister of the Gospel in 1737. He became a pastor at Newark, N. J., where he was chiefly instrumental in founding the College of New Jersey (now Princeton), and was elected its first president in 1748. In 1752 he married a daughter of Jonathan Edwards, the metaphysician. In 1754 he accompanied Whitefield to Boston.

Burr, AARON, was born at Newark, N. J., Feb. 6, 1756; died on Staten Island, Sept. 14, 1836. He was a son of Rev. Aaron Burr, President of the College of New Jersey (Princeton), and of a daughter of the eminent theologian Jonathan Edwards. When nineteen years of age, he entered the Continental army, at Cambridge, as a private soldier, and as such accompanied Arnold in his expedition to Quebec (which see). From the line of that expedition, in the wilderness, Arnold sent him with despatches to General Montgomery, at Montreal, where he entered the military family of that officer as his aide-de-camp, with the rank of captain. Offended because checked by Montgomery in his officiousness, he left his staff, and joined Arnold's on the night of the assault on Quebec (Dec. 30 and 31, 1775). He was with Arnold when the latter was wounded in that assault, and was his acting brigade major for a while. He left the army in Canada, and joined the military family of Washington, at New York, in May, 1776, with the rank of major. Dissatisfied with that position, he left it in the course of a few weeks and took a similar position on General Putnam's staff. He was active in the events connected with the defence and abandonment of the city of New York in 1776; and in 1777 he became lieutenant-colonel of Malcolm's regiment. Burr distinguished himself in the battle of Monmouth in 1778, where he commanded a brigade in Stirling's division. During the winter of 1778–79 he was stationed in Westchester County, N. Y. For a short time he was in command of the post at West Point, but, on account of ill-health, he left the army in March, 1779. Burr was a born intriguer, and was naturally drawn towards Lee and Gates, and became a partisan in their schemes for injuring the reputation of Washington. (See *Conway's Cabal.*) He had been detected by the commander-in-chief in immoralities, and ever afterwards he affected to despise the military character of Washington. He began to practise law at Albany in 1782, but removed to New York the next year. Entering the arena of politics, he was chosen a member of the New York Legislature in 1784, and again in 1798. In 1789 he was appointed adjutant-general of the state, and commissioner of revolutionary claims in 1791. A member of the United States Senate from 1791 till 1797, Burr was a conspicuous Democratic leader in that body; and in the Presidential election in 1800 he and Thomas Jefferson had an equal number of votes in the electoral college. The House of Representatives decided the choice in favor of Jefferson on the thirty-sixth ballot, and Burr became Vice-President. In July, 1804, he killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel; and the next year he undertook his mad and mysterious enterprise in the West, which resulted in his trial for treason. (See *Burr's Mysterious Expedition.*) Acquitted, he went to England (1808) and sought to engage that or some other European government in his project for revolutionizing Mexico. Pressed by his creditors, he lived a miserable life, in poverty, in London and Paris. Becoming subject to suspicion in London as a French spy, he was driven from the country, and took refuge in Paris. Finally, after long solicitations, he obtained leave to return, and appeared in New York in 1812, where he resumed the practice of law; but he lived in comparative poverty and obscurity until 1834, when, at the age of seventy-eight, he married Madame Jumel, a wealthy woman in New York, with whom he lived only a short time, when they were separated. Burr's first wife was the widow of General Augustine Prevost, by whom he had a daughter, Theodosia. She became an accomplished woman, and the wife of Governor Allston, of South Carolina. She left Charleston (1812) in a vessel to visit her father in New York, and was never heard of afterwards. Burr was small in stature, of great ability, and fascinating in manners.



AARON BURR.

Burr and Eaton. While engaged in his mysterious scheme of operations beyond the mountains, Aaron Burr tried to enlist the sympathies and co-operation of all the leading malcontents in the country. Among these was General William Eaton, who had returned from the Barbary States (see *Tripoli, War with*) angry with his government. In Washington during the winter of 1805–6, Burr sought and obtained frequent intercourse with Eaton, and tried to increase his ill-will towards the government. He informed him that he was organizing an expedition against Mexico, and asked him to join in it. Under the impression that it was secretly countenanced by the national government, Eaton agreed to close. At length Burr, believing he had the entire confidence of Eaton, told him of a project he entertained of revolutionizing the Western country, separating it from the Union, and establishing a monarchy, of which he was to be sovereign. New Orleans was to be the capital; and to further extend his enterprise, a force was to be organized on the Mississippi that should seize a portion (or the whole) of the Spanish provinces in Mexico. He assured Eaton that Wilkinson, commander-in-chief of the United States Army, was engaged in the enterprise, and would doubtless be able to carry with him the regular troops on the Western waters, where they would be reinforced by ten or twelve thousand volunteers. Burr (so Eaton asserted) said that, if he could secure the marine corps—the only troops stationed at Washington—and gain over the naval commanders, Truxton, Preble, Decatur, and others, he would turn Congress out of doors, assassinate the President, seize on the Treasury and navy, and declare himself the Protector (like Cromwell) of an energetic government. Eaton, satisfied that Burr was a dangerous man, waited on the President and recommended Jefferson to appoint him to some foreign mission, intimating that if he were not so disposed of there would soon be a revolution in the Western country. But Jefferson would not doubt the attachment of the Western people to the Union.

Burr and Truxton. To Commodore Truxton, who was soured by what he deemed to be hard treatment by his government, Burr proposed, in the winter of 1805–6, a naval expedition against the Spanish provinces on our southwestern border. He told Truxton that, in the event of a war with Spain, he intended to establish an independent government in Mexico, and that Wilkinson and greater men than he were engaged in it. He approached Truxton, and also Decatur, on the subject several times; but when the former found that the government did not favor, nor was cognizant of such a movement, he refused to have any further conversation on the subject. Yet Burr represented to Wilkinson that Truxton would co-operate. (See *Burr's Mysterious Expedition.*)

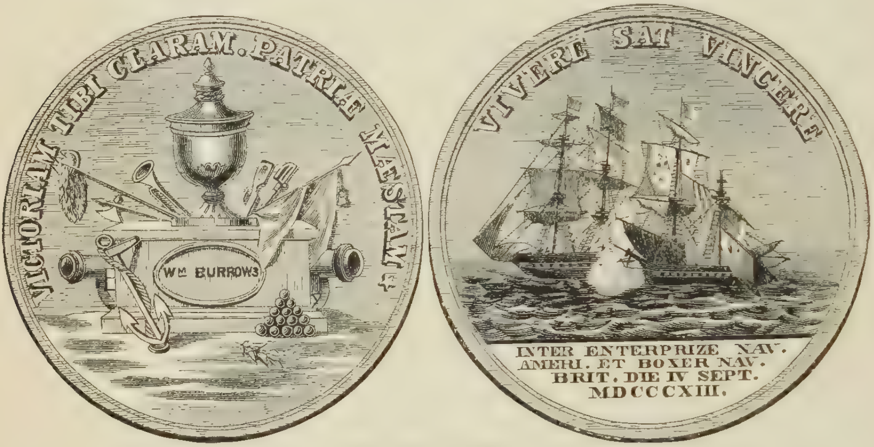
Burr's Mysterious Expedition. In March, 1805, Burr's term of office of Vice-President ended, and he descended to private life an utterly ruined man. But his ambition and his love of intrigue were as strong as ever, and he conceived schemes for personal aggrandizement and pecuniary gain. It was the general belief, at that time, in our country that the Spanish inhabitants of Louisiana would not quietly submit to our government. Taking advantage of this belief, and the restlessness of many of the inhabitants of the valley of the Mississippi, he conceived some daring schemes (none fully developed) of military operations in that region, which he attempted to carry out immediately after he left office. With several nominal objects in view, Burr started for the Mississippi Valley in company with General Wilkinson, who went to take possession of his office of governor of the Louisiana Territory, to which he had been appointed. At Pittsburgh Burr started in a vessel called an "ark," in which were fitted up conveniences for a long voyage. Wilkinson was not ready, and the impatient Burr proceeded without him. He stopped at Blennerhassett's Island, nearly opposite Marietta, then inhabited by a wealthy and accomplished Irish gentleman of that name, who had created there a paradise for himself. (See *Blennerhassett.*) He had a pleasant mansion, enriched by books, adorned with paintings, enlivened by music, and presided over by a lovely and accomplished wife. Burr laid before Herman Blennerhassett a brilliant vision of wealth and power, in a scheme of conquest or revolution, which captivated him and fired the ambition that lay in the bosom of his wife. They engaged in Burr's scheme, whatever it may have been, with ardor, and were totally ruined thereby. The story of Paradise and the Fall was repeated. After remaining there some time, Burr pressed forward, and at Louisville overtook Matthew Lyon (which see), with whom he had voyaged in company in the earlier part of the journey. He accompanied Lyon to his home on the Cumberland River, whence he journeyed to Nashville on horseback; had a public reception (May 28, 1805), in which Andrew Jackson participated; and, furnished with a boat by that gentleman, returned to Lyon's. Then he resumed his voyage in his own "ark," and met Wilkinson at Fort Massac, nearly opposite the mouth of the Cumberland. Some soldiers were about to depart thence for New Orleans, and Wilkinson procured a barge from one of the officers for Burr's accommodation in a voyage to that city. There he found the inhabitants in a state of great excitement. The introduction of English forms of law proceedings, and the slight participation of the people in public affairs, had produced much discontent, especially among the Creoles and old settlers. Even the new American immigrants were divided by bitter political and private feuds. Burr remained only a short time, when he reascended the Mississippi to Natchez, whence he travelled through the wilderness, along an Indian trail or bridle-path, four hundred and fifty miles, to Nashville, where he was entertained for a week by Jackson early in August. After spending a few weeks there, Burr made his way through the Indian Territory to St. Louis, where he again met Wilkinson, that being the seat of government of the Louisiana Territory. Then, for the first time, he threw out hints to Wilkinson of his splendid scheme of conquest in the Southwest, which he spoke of as being favored by the United States government. At the same time he complained of the government as imbecile, and the people of the West as ready for revolt. He made no explanation to Wilkinson of the nature of his scheme, and that officer, suspicious of Burr's designs, wrote to his friend Robert Smith, Secretary of the Navy, advising the government to keep a watch upon his movements. Burr went from St. Louis to Vincennes with a letter from Wilkinson to Governor Harrison, in which he urged the latter to use his influence to get Burr elected to Congress from that district. Thence Burr went eastward, stopping at Cincinnati, Chilicothe, and Marietta, everywhere conversing with leading men, to whom he gave only attractive hints of a brilliant scheme in hand. He spent that winter and the following spring and summer in Philadelphia and Washington, engaged in his mysterious projects. (See *Burr and Eaton* and *Burr and Truxton.*) There he more clearly developed his scheme, which seemed to have a twofold character — the conquest of Mexico from the Spaniards and the establishment of an independent monarchy, and the revolutionizing the Mississippi Valley, separating that region from the rest of the Union, and forming an independent republic, with its seat of government at New Orleans. If the first-mentioned scheme should be carried out, Burr aspired to be *king;* if the latter, he was to be *president* of his new republic. Towards the end of summer (August, 1806) Burr departed on a second western tour.

For a year a vague suspicion prevailed throughout the country that Burr was engaged in a scheme for revolutionizing Mexico — an idea agreeable to the Western people because of the existing difficulties with Spain. It was believed, too (for so Burr had continually hinted), that such a scheme was secretly favored by the government. Under this impression Burr's project received the countenance of several leading men in the Western country. One of the first things which Burr did after his arrival in Kentucky was to purchase an interest in a claim to a large tract of land on the Washita River, under a Spanish grant to the Baron de Bastrop. The negotiation was carried on through Edward Livingston at New Orleans. The avowal of an intention to settle on these lands might cover up a far different design. Blennerhassett now joined Burr actively in his enterprise. Together they built, with the money of the former, fifteen boats on the Muskingum River; and negotiations were set on foot with an Ohio senator to furnish supplies for an army in the West and the purchase of two gunboats he was building for the government. A mercantile house at Marietta, in which Blennerhassett had been a partner, was authorized to purchase provisions, and a kiln was erected on Blennerhassett Island for drying corn to fit it for shipment. Young men enlisted in considerable numbers for an expedition down the Mississippi, about which only mysterious hints were given. Meanwhile Wilkinson had arrived at Natchitoches to repel, with 500 or 600 troops, a Spanish invasion of the Territory of Orleans (which see) from Texas. There a young man appeared in camp with a letter of introduction from Jonathan Dayton, of New Jersey, to Colonel Cushing, the senior officer next to Wilkinson. He also slipped, unobserved, a letter into Wilkinson's hand, from Burr, which was a formal letter of introduction. It contained a letter from Burr, principally written in cipher. Circumstances seem to show that Wilkinson was at this time privy to, if not actually engaged in, Burr's scheme. The cipher letter informed Wilkinson that he (Burr) had arranged for troops under different pretexts at different points, who would rendezvous on the Ohio by the 1st of November; that the protection of England had been secured; that Truxton had gone to Jamaica to arrange with the English admiral (see *Burr and Truxton*); that an English fleet would meet on the Mississippi; that the navy of the United States was ready to join; that final orders had been given to his friends and followers; that Wilkinson should be second to Burr only; that the people of the country to which they were going were ready to receive them; and that their agents with Burr had stated that, if protected in their religion, and not subjected to a foreign government, all would be settled in three weeks. The plan was to move detachments of volunteers rapidly from Louisville in November, meet Wilkinson at Natchez in December, and then to determine whether to seize Baton Rouge (then in possession of the Spaniards as a part of West Florida) or pass on. Enclosed in the same packet was a letter, also in cipher, from Jonathan Dayton, telling Wilkinson he would surely be displaced at the next meeting of Congress, and added, "You are not a man to despair, or even to despond, especially when such prospects offer in another quarter. Are you ready? Are your numerous associates ready? Wealth and glory! Louisiana and Mexico!—DAYTON." The correspondence, in cipher and otherwise, between Wilkinson and Burr for several months previously leads to the conclusion that the former was, at that time, engaged in Burr's scheme, and that the latter relied upon him. Intimations in the letters of a design to seize newly acquired Louisiana startled Wilkinson, and he resolved to make the best terms he could with the Spanish commander on the Sabine and hasten back to New Orleans to defend it against any scheme of conquest there which Burr might contemplate or attempt. This design he communicated to Cushing, and obtained from the bearer of the letters such information as excited his alarm to a high pitch. The young man (named Swartwout) stated that he and another (named Ogden) had been sent by Burr from Philadelphia; that they had carried despatches from Burr to General Adair, of Kentucky, who was a party to the scheme; that they hastened towards St. Louis in search of Wilkinson, but learned at Kaskaskia that he had descended the river; that they followed to the mouth of the Red River, when Ogden went on to New Orleans with despatches to Burr's friends there, and he (Swartwout) had hastened to Wilkinson's headquarters. He said Burr was supported by a numerous and powerful association, extending from New York to New Orleans; that several thousand men were prepared for an expedition against the Mexican provinces; that the Territory of Orleans would be revolutionized—for which the inhabitants were quite ready; that he supposed some "seizing" would be necessary at New Orleans, and a forced "transfer" of the bank; that an expedition was to land at Vera Cruz and march thence to the Mexican capital; that naval protection would be furnished by Great Britain; and that Truxton and other officers of the navy, disgusted with the conduct of the government, would join in the enterprise. After gathering all the information possible, Wilkinson sent, by express, two letters to President Jefferson — one official, the other confidential, in which, without mentioning any names, he gave a general outline of the proposed expedition; and then pushed forward to the Sabine. He sent orders to the commanding officer at New Orleans to put that place in the best possible condition for defence, and to secure, if possible. by contract, a train of artillery there belonging to the French. Having made a satisfactory arrangement with the Spanish commander, Wilkinson hastened back to Natchitoches, where he received a letter from St. Louis informing him that a plan to revolutionize the Western country was about to explode; and that Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, and New Orleans Territory had combined to declare themselves independent on the 15th of November. Wilkinson, alarmed, ordered Cushing to hasten down with the troops, while he sped to Natchez; whence he sent a second special messenger to the President with duplicates of his former letters, and another declaring that a conspiracy really existed; and authorized the messenger to mention the names of Burr, Dayton, Truxton, and others as apparently engaged in the enterprise. He informed Governor Claiborne, of the Orleans Territory, that his government was menaced by a secret plot, and took other measures for its defence. At New Orleans Wilkinson procured a meeting of merchants, to whom he and Governor Claiborne made an exposition of Burr's suspected projects. Bollman, an agent of Burr there, with Swartwout and Ogden, were arrested, and the militia of the territory were placed at Wilkinson's disposal. Great excitement now prevailed on the Lower Mississippi and on the Ohio and its tributaries. A series of articles, inspired, no doubt, if not written, by Burr, had appeared in an Ohio newspaper, signed "Querist," arguing strongly in favor of the separation of the Western States from the Union. Similar articles had appeared in a Democratic paper at Pittsburgh. In Kentucky were many uneasy aspirants for political power, and an old story of Spanish influence there—through pensioners upon the bounty of Spain—was revived. Burr's enterprise became associated in the public mind with the old Spanish plot; and Burr and his confederates, offended by what they deemed Wilkinson's treachery to their cause, associated him with the Spanish intriguers. These hints, reaching the Lower Mississippi, embarrassed Wilkinson; for it was intimated that he was also connected with the schemes of Burr. General Jackson—who had favored Burr's schemes so long as they looked only towards a seizure of Spanish provinces—alarmed by evidences that he had wicked designs against the Union, wrote to Governor Claiborne (with the impression that Wilkinson was associated with Burr), warning him to beware of the designs of that officer and the ex-Vice-President. "I hate the Dons," Jackson wrote (Nov. 12, 1806); "I would delight to see Mexico reduced; but I would die in the last ditch before I would see the Union disunited." Daviess, United States District Attorney for Kentucky, watched Burr, and finally applied to the court for process for his arrest. Burr was summoned before a grand jury (Nov. 25), but, the attorney failing to get such witnesses as he desired, the jury not only failed to find a bill, but declared their belief that Burr intended nothing against the integrity of the Union. This triumph for Burr was celebrated by a ball at Frankfort. Meanwhile the President of the United States had commissioned Graham, Secretary of the Orleans Territory, to investigate the reports about Burr, and, if well founded, to take steps to cut short his career. On Nov. 27 the President issued a proclamation that he had been informed of an unlawful scheme set on foot for invading the Spanish dominions; warning citizens of the United States not to engage in it; and directing all in authority to endeavor to suppress it. Before this Graham had drawn from Blennerhassett facts of great importance (for the latter took the secretary to be one of Burr's confidants), and applied to the governor of Ohio for the seizure of the boats on the Muskingum. The Legislature, then in session, granted the request. A few days afterwards several boats, in charge of Colonel Tyler, filled with men, descended the Ohio to Blennerhassett's Island. Blennerhassett, informed of the seizure of his boats on the Muskingum, and that a body of militia were coming to seize those at the island, hastily embarked (Dec. 13) with a few of his followers, and descended the river in Tyler's flotilla. The next day a mob of militia took possession of the island, desolated it, and even insulted Mrs. Blennerhassett, who succeeded in obtaining an open boat and following her husband down the river. The Legislature of Kentucky speedily passed a similar act for seizures to that of Ohio. Tyler, however, had already passed Louisville. They were joined by Burr, and the flotilla passed out into the Mississippi and stopped at Chickasaw Bluffs (now Memphis), where Burr attempted to seduce the garrison into his service. Burr now first heard of the action of the Legislature of the Orleans Territory, before which Wilkinson had laid his exposure of the schemes. Perceiving what he might expect at New Orleans, and fearful that the authorities of Mississippi might arrest him at once, Burr passed to the west side of the river, out of their jurisdiction, where he formed a camp, thirty miles above Natchez. Under the proclamation of the President, a militia force was raised to arrest Burr. He made an unconditional surrender to the civil authority, and agreed that his boats should be searched and all arms taken. Before this was accomplished his cases of arms were cast into the river; and as no evidence of any hostile intention was found, a belief prevailed that he was innocent of any of the designs alleged against him. Burr was brought before the Supreme Court of the territory, and was not only not indicted by the grand jury, but they presented charges against the governor for calling out the militia to arrest him. Burr spoke bitterly of Wilkinson as a traitor, and, fearing to fall into his hands, he resolved to disband his men and fly. He told them to sell what provisions they had, and, if they chose, to settle on his Washita lands. They dispersed through the Mississippi Territory, and furnished an abundant supply of school-masters, singing-masters, dancing-masters, and doctors. A reward was offered for the capture of Burr, and he was arrested (Feb. 19, 1807) by the Register of the Land-office, assisted by Lieutenant (afterwards major-general) Edmund P. Gaines, near Fort Stoddart, on the Tombigbee River, in eastern Mississippi. An indictment for high-treason was found against Burr by a grand jury for the District of Virginia. He was charged with levying war, by the collection of armed men at Blennerhassett's Island, within the dominion of Virginia. He was also charged with concocting a scheme for the overthrow of the national authority in the

Western States and Territories. He was tried and acquitted.

Burroughs, Stephen, Fate of. (See *Salem Witchcraft.*) Samuel Parris, minister at Salem, in whose house the delusion of "Salem Witchcraft" began, hated Stephen Burroughs, who had been a minister there, and who had retired to Wells, in Maine, and settled there. In the height of the witch trials, Parris persuaded the authorities of Massachusetts to bring Burroughs to Salem on an accusation of practising witchcraft. He was a powerful man in person and stature, and was so expert in wood-craft that he equalled the Indians in skilfully threading the forests. He possessed uncommon strength; and this was a witness against him at his trial, where it was alleged that he had lifted a barrel of cider, and had held a heavy musket out at arm's-length. His superior nature affected common people when in his presence with an indefinable sense of profound reverence; and when, at his trial, he happened to look backwards, all the persons supposed to be affected by him fell down at his glance. The magistrates sent an elder and two constables to Wells to bring Mr. Burroughs to Salem. They stated their errand, and he cheerfully complied; nor were his family alarmed, the accusation was so preposterous. There was no direct road through the forest, but his wood-craft gave him useful knowledge. The constables objected to traversing a way unknown to them. He told them not to fear. They became afraid of their prisoner, but followed him "under a spell," they said. A terrible storm overtook them in the heart of the forest. The blackness of night and the silence of the grave had preceded it. Then came the fierce wind, the drenching rain, and the crash of thunder. The elder and the constables, believing their prisoner was leagued with the powers of darkness, trembled. This commotion of the elements was a part of the count of the indictment against him, for it was believed that he raised the tempest. Mr. Burroughs was tried for witchcraft, and was actually convicted and hanged. When the delusion passed by, the people of Salem, disgusted and indignant, drove Parris from the town.

Burrows, William, was born near Philadelphia, Oct. 6, 1785; died Sept. 5, 1813. He entered the United States Navy, as midshipman, November, 1799; and served under Preble in the war against Tripoli. In March, 1807, he was promoted to lieutenant, and, early in the war of 1812–15, he was placed in command of the sloop-of-war *Enterprise.* On Sunday, Sept. 5, he fought the British brig *Boxer*, with the *Enterprise*, off Portland, Me. The *Boxer* was vanquished, but Burrows was slain. (See *Enterprise and Boxer.*) For this exploit, Congress voted a gold medal to his nearest male relation.


VICTORIAM TIBI CLARAM. PATRIAE MAESTAM
Wm BURROWS
VIVERE SAT VINCERE
INTER ENTERPRIZE NAV. AMERI. ET BOXER NAV. BRIT. DIE IV SEPT. MDCCCXIII.

THE BURROWS MEDAL.

Bute, Earl of (John Stuart), was born in Scotland in 1713; died in London, March 10, 1792. He succeeded to his father's titles and estates when he was ten years of age; and, in 1736, he married the only daughter of Lady Mary Wortley Montagu. In February, 1737, he was selected one of the sixteen representative Peers of Scotland, and appointed lord of the bedchamber of the Prince of Wales in 1738. The beautiful Princess of Wales gave him her confidence on the death of her husband in 1751, and made him preceptor of her son, afterwards King George III. Over that youth he gained great influence. When he ascended the throne, in 1760, George promoted Bute to a privy-councillor, and, afterwards, a secretary of state; and, when Pitt and the Duke of Newcastle retired from the cabinet, Bute was made prime-minister. He soon became unpopular, chiefly because the king had discarded the great Pitt, and preferred this Scotch adventurer, whose bad advice was misleading his sovereign. Insinuations were rife about the too intimate personal relations of Bute and the young king's mother, who, it was believed, ruled both the king and his minister; and a placard appeared in front of the Royal Exchange, in large letters, "No petticoat government—no Scotch minister — no Lord George Sackville!" Bute was vigorously attacked by John Wilkes in his *North Britain.* The minister's unpopularity increased. Suspicions of his being bribed by the enemies of England were rife; and, perceiving a rising storm that threatened to overwhelm him with disgrace, Bute suddenly resigned his office (April 7, 1763), but nominated his successor. He retired to private life, passing his time between England and Scotland in the enjoyment of an ample fortune. He published, at his own expense ($50,000), a work on botany, in nine volumes, and when twelve copies had been printed he had the plates destroyed to make the work scarce.

Butler, BENJAMIN FRANKLIN, was born at Deerfield, N. H., Nov. 5, 1818; and graduated at Waterville College, Me., in 1838. He studied law at Lowell, Mass.; was admitted to the bar in 1841, and continued the practice until 1861, with a high reputation as a criminal lawyer. He was an active politician in the Democratic party until its disruption at Charleston in 1860 (see *Charleston Convention*); and he had served as a member of both Houses of the Massachusetts Legislature. As brigadier-general of militia he hastened towards Washington, on the call of the President (which see), with troops, in April, 1861, and landed at Annapolis. He was placed in command of the Department of Annapolis, which included Baltimore. (See *Capture of Baltimore.*) At the middle of May he was made major-general of volunteers, and put in command of the Department of Virginia, with headquarters at Fortress Monroe, where he took a peculiar stand towards fugitive slaves. (See *Contraband.*) In August (1861), an expedition which he commanded captured forts Hatteras and Clarke (see *Hatteras*); and, in the spring of 1862, he led another expedition for the capture of New Orleans, in which he was successful. (See *New Orleans, Capture of.*) He was succeeded in command there by General Banks, in November. Late in 1863, he was in command of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina, and his force was designated the Army of the James. After an unsuccessful expedition against Fort Fisher, in December, 1864, General Butler retired to his residence in Massachusetts. Acting with the Republican party, he was elected to Congress in 1866, and was one of the principal managers of the House of Representatives in conducting the impeachment of President Johnson (which see). He was again elected to a seat in Congress in 1868, and continued to represent a district of Massachusetts in that body for ten years afterwards.

BENJAMIN FRANKLIN BUTLER.

Butler in Louisiana. General Butler was satisfied, at the beginning of September, 1862, that the Confederates had abandoned all ideas of attempting to retake New Orleans, so he proceeded to "repossess" some of the rich districts of Louisiana. He sent General Godfrey Weitzel with a brigade of infantry, with artillery, and Barnet's cavalry, late in October, into the region of the district of La Fourche, west of the Mississippi. On Oct. 27 Weitzel had a sharp fight at Labadieville with Confederates under General McPheeters. They were on both sides of the Bayou La Fourche, with six pieces of cannon. These Weitzel attacked with musketry and cannons. The Confederates were driven and pursued about four miles. Weitzel lost eighteen killed and seventy-four wounded. He captured two hundred and sixty-eight prisoners and one cannon. He now proceeded to open communication with New Orleans by the bayou and the railway connecting Brashear City with it. The whole country was abandoned, and the troops were received with joy by the negroes. All industrial operations there were paralyzed, and General Butler, as a state policy and for humane purposes, confiscated the entire property of the district, appointed a commission to take charge of it, and set the negroes at work, by which they were subsisted and the crops saved. Two congressional districts in Louisiana were thus "repossessed," and the loyal citizens of New Orleans elected to seats in Congress Benjamin F. Flanders and Michael Hahn. Late in the autumn of 1862, General Butler was succeeded by General N. P. Banks in command of the Department of the Gulf.

Butler in New Orleans elicited unbounded praise from loyal people because of his vigor and efficiency, and created the most intense hatred of himself personally among the Confederates by his restrictive measures. On his arrival Butler seized the fine St. Charles Hotel, and made it his headquarters. The mayor of the city, John T. Monroe, took an attitude of defiance. He refused to surrender the city, or take down the Louisiana flag from the city hall. The editor of the *True Delta* refused to print Butler's proclamation in hand-bill form. The general invited the city authorities to a conference. The mayor at first refused to go, but finally went to the St. Charles, with Pierre Soulé (formerly member of Congress) and other friends. They persisted in regarding Louisiana as an independent nation, and the National troops as invaders or intruders. An immense and threatening mob had collected in the streets in front of the St. Charles. Butler had placed troops there and a cannon for the protection of headquarters. The commander sent him word that the mob was pressing hard upon him. "Give my compliments to General Williams" (the commander), said Butler; "and tell him if he finds he cannot control the mob to open upon them with artillery." The mayor and his friends sprang to their feet, exclaiming, "Don't do that, general!" "Why not, gentlemen?" said Butler; "the mob must be controlled. We can't have a disturbance in the street." The mayor went to a balcony, informed the mob of the general's order, and persuaded them to disperse. Butler read a proclamation which he had prepared to Soulé, who declared it would give great offence; that the people were not conquered and would never submit, and uttered a threat in smooth terms. To this Butler replied: "I have long been accustomed to hear threats from Southern gentlemen in political conventions; but let me assure the gentlemen present that the time for tactics of that nature has passed, never to return. New Orleans *is* a conquered city. If not, why are we here? How did we get here? Have you opened your arms, and bid us welcome? Are we here by your consent? Would you or would you not expel us if you could? New Orleans has been conquered by the forces of the United States, and, by the laws of all nations, lies subject to the will of the conqueror." These utterances indicated the course General Butler intended to pursue in New Orleans and in the Department of the Gulf; and, within twenty-four hours after he had taken possession of the city, there was a perfect understanding between him and the people of their mutual relations. Butler, at the same time, took pains to remove all causes for unnecessary irritation, and removed his headquarters from the St. Charles to a private residence.

Butler, JOHN, an able Tory leader in the Revolution, was born in Connecticut, and died at Niagara in 1794. He was in official communication with the Johnsons in the Mohawk Valley before the war, and was colonel of a militia regiment in Tryon County, N. Y. In 1776 he organized a band of motley marauders—white men and Indians, the former painted and behaving like savages. He was in command of them in the battle of Oriskany (which see), and of eleven hundred men who desolated the Wyoming Valley in July, 1778. (See *Wyoming Massacre.*) He fought Sullivan in the Indian country, in central New York, in 1779, and accompanied Sir John Johnson in his raid on the Schoharie and Mohawk settlements in 1780. After the war, Butler went to Canada, and was rewarded by the British government with places of emolument and a pension. His son, Walter, was a ferocious Tory, and was killed by his enemies during the war.

Butler, RICHARD, was born in Ireland, and was killed by Indians in a battle in Ohio, Nov. 4, 1791. He came to America before 1760. He was a lieutenant-colonel in the Pennsylvania line in the Continental army, and also of Morgan's rifle corps in 1777. Butler served throughout the war; was agent for Indian affairs in Ohio in 1787; and was with St. Clair in his expedition against the Indians, late in 1791, commanding the right wing of his army, with the rank of major-general. In that expedition he was slain. (See *St. Clair's Defeat.*)

Butler, THOMAS, was born in Pennsylvania in 1754; died in New Orleans, Sept. 7, 1805. He was in almost every important battle in the Middle States during the Revolution. At Brandywine and at Monmouth he received the thanks of his commanders (Washington and Wayne) for skill and bravery. In 1791 he commanded a battalion under St. Clair, and was twice wounded at the defeat of that leader (see *St. Clair's Defeat*), where his brother, Richard, was killed.

Butler, ZEBULON, was born at Lyme, Conn., in 1731; died at Wilkesbarre, Penn., July 28, 1795. He served in the French and Indian War and in the expedition to Havana in 1762, when he became a captain. He settled in the Wyoming Valley, Penn., in 1769, and was there when the valley was invaded by Tories and Indians under Colonel John Butler, in 1778. In defence of the inhabitants, he commanded the feeble force there, but was unable to prevent the massacre that took place. The next year he accompanied Sullivan in his expedition into the Indian country in central New York, and served during the remainder of the war.

Butler's Assessments in New Orleans. General Butler found, on taking possession of New Orleans, much distress there occasioned by the insurrection, and he resolved to make the leaders in the Secession movement do something for the relief of the distressed. He discovered a list of contributors to the fund for the promotion of secession and insurrection, with the amount of their subscriptions, and he at once assessed each of the subscribers twenty-five per cent. of that amount for the relief of the poor.

Byrd, WILLIAM, was born at Westover, Va., March 28, 1674; died Aug. 26, 1744. Inheriting a large fortune, and acquiring a good education, he became a leader in the promotion of science and literature in Virginia, and was made a fellow of the Royal Society of London. Long receiver-general of the revenue in Virginia, he was also three times made agent of that colony in England, and was for thirty-seven years a member, and, finally, president, of the king's council of the colony. He was one of the commissioners, in 1728, for running the boundary-line between Virginia and North Carolina. He made notes of his operations and the incidents thereof, which form a part of the *Westover Manuscripts*, published by Edward Ruffin in 1841. In 1733 he laid out the cities of Richmond and Petersburg, Va.

C.

Cabeça de Vaca, ALVAR NUÑEZ, a Spaniard of noble birth, was the treasurer of the expedition to Florida by Narvaez (which see), and was one of the few survivors who left that coast in boats. He wrote, in Spanish, a minute history of the expedition, which was translated, a few years ago, into English by the late Buckingham Smith.

Cabinet Ministers, FIRST. The President of the United States chooses ministers, or heads of departments of the government, who are called Secretaries. They are appointed by him with the consent of the Senate. These are his constitutional advisers, whom he may consult on important occasions, and have their opinions given in writing if required. The heads of the several departments who were in charge when Washington became President were continued in office until the first session of the new Congress had adjourned — Sept. 29, 1789. The reason of the delay was that the laws instituting the departments and fixing the salaries of officers were not sooner passed by Congress. Washington appointed Alexander Hamilton Secretary of the Treasury (salary, $3500); Henry Knox, Secretary of War (salary, $3000); and Thomas Jefferson, Secretary of State (salary, $3500). Jefferson was then in France, and did not enter upon his duties until March, 1790. The salary of the President was fixed at $25,000 a year, and that of the Vice-President at $5000 a year.

Cabinet Ministers Killed (1845). Late in February (28th), 1845, President Tyler lost two of his most trusted cabinet ministers by an accident. The President and all his cabinet, many members of Congress, and other distinguished citizens, with several ladies, were on board the United States steam ship-of-war *Princeton*, on a trial-trip down the Potomac from Washington. When they were opposite Mount Vernon one of the largest guns of the *Princeton*, in firing a salute, burst, scattering its deadly fragments around. The Secretary of State, Abel P. Upsher, and Secretary of the Navy, T. W. Gilmer, and David Gardiner, of New York, were killed. No one else was seriously injured. The daughter of Mr. Gardiner was soon afterwards married to President Tyler.

Cabinet Officer, IMPEACHMENT OF A. A few weeks before the opening of the Centennial Exhibition (which see), General W. W. Belknap, the Secretary of War, was charged with having received a bribe from a post-trader to whom he had granted permission to sell goods to army officers or private soldiers. Articles of impeachment were formally presented to the Senate, acting as a High Court of Impeachment, April 4, 1876. A plea of non-jurisdiction was interposed by the secretary's counsel. On May 29 the Senate decided that it had jurisdiction, and it proceeded with the trial. The arguments of counsel closed July 26, and on the 1st of August the Senate took a vote on the verdict. The result was an acquittal. This was the first impeachment of a cabinet officer in the United States.

Cabot, JOHN AND SEBASTIAN. John was a native of Venice, and, at the time of the discovery of Columbus, was a merchant in Bristol, England. That discovery filled mariners in western Europe with desires to make voyages for the same purpose; and Henry VII. of England gave a charter to John Cabot and his sons permitting them to explore any seas with five ships, at their own expense; and to discover and occupy any "isles or countries of the heathen or infidel before unknown to Christians, accounting to the king for a fifth part of the profits." There is no positive evidence that the Cabots took advantage of this charter, or that any one of them sailed on a voyage of discovery until 1498, when John Cabot was dead. His son Sebastian, then very young, received from the king a commission to go on a voyage of discovery, and the monarch fitted out two caravels for him. He sailed from Bristol in May, 1498, in search of a northwest passage to India, but was stopped by the ice-pack in Davis's Strait. Then he sailed southwest, and discovered the shores of Labrador, or, possibly, the northern shore of Newfoundland. Turning northward,

SEBASTIAN CABOT.

he traversed the coast of the continent almost to latitude 60°, when the ice again barred his way. Then he sailed southward, and discovered a large island, which he called New Found Land (Newfoundland), and perceived the immense number of codfish in the waters surrounding it. Leaving that island, he coasted as far as the shores of Maine, and, some writers think, as far south as the Carolinas. On his return Cabot revealed the secret of the codfish at New Found Land, and within five or six years thereafter fishermen from England, Brittany, and Normandy were gathering treasures there. As Cabot did not bring back gold from America, King Henry paid no more attention to him; and in 1512 he went to Spain, by invitation of King Ferdinand, and enjoyed honors and emoluments until that monarch's death in 1516, when, annoyed by the jealousies of the Spanish nobility, he returned to England. Henry VIII. furnished Cabot with a vessel, in 1517, to seek for a northwest passage to India; but he unsuccessfully fought the ice-pack at Hudson's Bay and was foiled. The successor of Ferdinand invited Cabot to Spain and made him Chief Pilot of the realm. He was employed by Spanish merchants to command an expedition to the Spice Islands by way of the then newly discovered Strait of Magellan; but circumstances prevented his going farther than the southeast coast of South America, where he discovered the rivers De la Plata and Paraguay. His employers were disappointed, and, resigning his office into the hands of the Spanish monarch, he returned to England in his old age and was pensioned by the king. After the death of Henry VIII. the "boy-king," Edward VI., made Cabot Grand Pilot of England; but Queen Mary neglected him, and allowed that eminent navigator and discoverer of the North American continent to die at Bristol in comparative poverty and obscurity at the age of eighty years. His cheerful temperament was manifested by his dancing at an assembly of young seamen the year before his death.

Cabral, PEDRO ALVAREZ, was sent by Emanuel, King of Portugal, with thirteen ships, on a voyage from Lisbon to the East Indies, in the year 1500. In order to avoid the calms on the Guinea shore, he went so far westward as to discover land on the coast of Brazil at latitude 10° south. He erected a cross, and named the country "The Land of the Holy Cross." It was afterwards called Brazil, from *brasil*, a dyewood that abounded there. Cabral took possession of the country in the name of the king. After it was ascertained that it was a part of the American continent, a controversy arose between the crowns of Spain and Portugal concerning the right of possession, but it was settled amicably—Portugal to possess the portion of the continent discovered by Cabral, that is, from the River Amazon to the Plate (De la Plata). This discovery led Emanuel to send out another expedition (three ships), under Americus Vespucius, in May, 1501. They touched Brazil at latitude 5° south, and returned home after a voyage of sixteen months.

Cabrillo, RODRIGUEZ DE, was sent by Mendoza, viceroy of Mexico (1542), in search of the "Strait of America," supposed to lead to the Atlantic Ocean, which Alarçon had failed to find. He sailed up the Pacific coast as far as latitude 44° north, off the coast of Oregon. The turbulence of the sea, sickness of his crew, and want of provisions compelled him to return. Cabrillo was a Portuguese, and died at the Island of San Bernardo June 3, 1543.

Cacique. The name is derived from the Haytien tongue. It was inaccurately applied by the Spaniards to the native nobles of Mexico. Its true meaning is "lord," or "prince," or "supreme ruler."

Cadet's Gray. The uniform of the cadets at the West Point Military Academy is of gray cloth — white pantaloons in summer. It was adopted at the Academy during the War of 1812–15. General Winfield Scott explained to the writer how that color came to be adopted. While at Buffalo, in the late spring of 1813, in command of United States troops (regulars), he wrote to the quartermaster for a supply of new clothing for his soldiers. Word came back that blue cloth, such as was used in the army, could not be obtained, owing to the stringency of the blockade and the embargo, and the lack of woollen manufactures in the country, but that there was a sufficient quantity of gray cloth in Philadelphia. Scott ordered it to be made up for his soldiers; and in these new gray suits they marched down the Niagara shores on the Canada side. So they appeared the day before the battle at Chippewa (which see). The British commander mistook these gray-clad regulars for militia, and regarded them with such contempt that he was not prepared to meet their skill in the battle. Because of the victory won at Chippewa, chiefly by those gray-clad regulars (July 5, 1813), and in honor of Scott and his troops, that style of cloth was adopted at the Military Academy at West Point as the regulation uniform of the cadets. "Cadet's gray" is regarded as the best color for field-service, as it is not conspicuous. (See *Uniforms, United States Army.*)

JOHN CADWALLADER.

Cadwallader, JOHN, was born in Philadelphia in 1743; died at Shrewsbury, Penn., Feb.

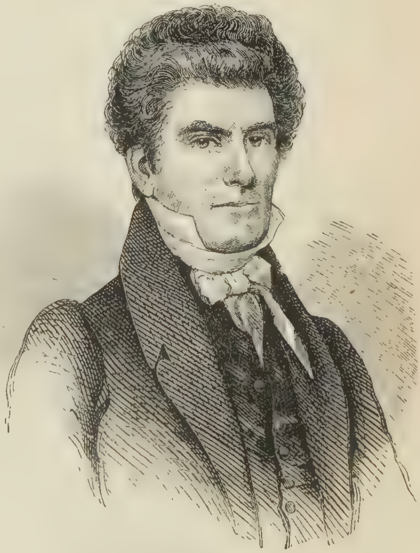
10, 1786. He was an active patriot before the war for independence broke out. He was made colonel of one of the city battalions, and as a brigadier-general afterwards he was placed in command of the Pennsylvania militia, co-operating with Washington in the attack on Trenton, and participating in the battle of Princeton. He was in the battles of Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. He challenged General Conway to fight a duel because of offensive words used by the latter towards Washington. (See *Conway's Cabal.*) They fought, and Conway was badly wounded. After the war Cadwallader lived in Maryland, and was in its Legislature.

Cairo, MILITARY OCCUPATION OF. The small village of Cairo, Ill., is situated near the extremity of a boat-shaped peninsula, at the confluence of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers, one hundred and seventy-five miles below St. Louis. It is a point of great importance as the key to a vast extent of navigable waters, and to it National troops were sent at an early period. Both the National government and Governor Yates of Illinois had been apprised of the intention of the Confederates to secure that position, hoping thereby to control the navigation of the Mississippi to St. Louis, and of the Ohio to Cincinnati and beyond. They also hoped that the absolute control of the Mississippi below would cause the Northwestern States to join hands with the insurgents rather than lose the advantages derived from navigating this great outlet of their products. The scheme was foiled. Governor Yates, under the direction of the Secretary of War, sent Illinois troops at an early day to take possession of and occupy Cairo. By the middle of May there were not less than 5000 Union volunteers there, under the command of General B. M. Prentiss, who occupied the extreme point of the peninsula, where they cast up fortifications and gave the post the name of Camp Defiance. Before the close of May it was considered impregnable against any force the Confederates might send. It soon became a post of great importance to the Union cause as the place where some of the land and naval expeditions in the valley of the Mississippi were fitted out.

Caldwell, JAMES, was born in Charlotte County, Va., in April, 1734; died at Elizabethtown, N. J., Nov. 24, 1781. Graduating at Princeton in 1759, he became pastor of the Presbyterian Church at Elizabethtown in 1762. Zealously espousing the revolutionary cause, he was much disliked by the Tories. Appointed chaplain of a New Jersey brigade, he was for a time in the Mohawk Valley. In 1780 his church and residence were burned by a party of British and Tories; and the same year a British incursion from Staten Island pillaged the village of Connecticut Farms, where his family were temporarily residing. A soldier shot his wife through a window while she was sitting on a bed with her babe. At that time Mr. Caldwell was in Washington's camp at Morristown. In an altercation at Elizabethtown Point with an American sentinel, he was shot by the latter. The murderer was afterwards hanged. A costly monument was erected in the church-yard at Elizabethtown sixty-four years afterwards to commemorate both Caldwell and his wife.

Calef and Mather. Among the learned dupes of the witchcraft delusion in New England in the seventeenth century was Rev. Cotton Mather, whose writings and preaching were chiefly instrumental in inaugurating that terrible episode in New England history. (See *Salem Witchcraft.*) Even after the people and magistrates had come to their senses, persecutions had ceased, and the folly of the belief in witchcraft was broadly apparent, Mather continued to write in favor of it and to give instances of the doings of witches in their midst. "Flashy people," wrote Mather, "may burlesque these things, but when hundreds of the most sober people, in a country where they have as much mother wit certainly as the rest of mankind, know them to be true, nothing but the absurd and froward spirit of Sadducism [disbelief in spirits] can question them." They were burlesqued in a most effectual manner. Robert Calef, a merchant of Boston, wrote and published a series of letters, in which he exposed Mather's credulity, and greatly irritated that really good man. Mather retorted by calling Calef a "weaver turned minister." Calef tormented Mather more by other letters in the same vein, when the former, becoming wearied by the fight, called the latter "a coal from hell," and prosecuted him for slander. When these letters of Calef were published in book form, Increase Mather, President of Harvard College, caused copies of the work to be publicly burned on the college green.

Calhoun, JOHN CALDWELL, LL.D., was born in Abbeville District, S. C., March 18, 1782; died in Washington, D. C., March 31, 1850. His father was a native of Ireland; his mother, formerly Miss Caldwell, was of Scotch-Irish descent. The son graduated, with all the honors, at Yale Col-



JOHN CALDWELL CALHOUN.

lege, in 1804; and studied law at Litchfield, Conn., in a famous law-school there. In 1807 he began the practice of the profession in his native district. Thoughtful, ardent, and persevering, he soon took high rank in his profession and gained a very lucrative practice. Fond of politics, he early entered its arena, and in 1808–10 was a member of the State Legislature. He was sent to Congress in 1811, where he remained, by successive elections, until 1817. Mr. Calhoun was very influential in pressing Madison to make a declaration of war with Great Britain in 1812. President Monroe called him to his cabinet as Secretary of War (Dec. 16, 1817), and he served as such during the Presidential term of eight years. In 1824 he was chosen Vice-President of the United States, and was re-elected with Andrew Jackson in 1828. In 1831 he was elected United States Senator by the Legislature of South Carolina. He was Secretary of State in 1844–45, and from 1845 till 1850 he was again a member of the United States Senate. The doctrine of state sovereignty and supremacy, and that the Union was a compact of states that might be dissolved by the secession of any one of them, independent of all action on the part of others, was honestly held by Mr. Calhoun nearly all his life. His influence in his own state was very great; and his political tenets, practically carried out by acts of nullification (see *Nullification*), brought South Carolina to the verge of civil war in 1832; and it made that state foremost and most conspicuous in inaugurating the late Civil War. His remains lie buried under a neat monument in St. Philip's church-yard at Charleston, S. C. His writings and a biography have been published in six volumes.

California, Admission of, into the Union. The discovery of gold in California in 1848 caused such an influx of emigrants that in 1849 there were inhabitants enough there to entitle them, so far as numbers were concerned, to admission into the Union as a state. A state government was absolutely necessary, for in such a mixed population as was suddenly gathered there, much crime and disorder prevailed. General Riley, the military governor of the territory, called a convention of delegates to meet at Monterey, Sept. 1, 1849, to frame a state constitution. The convention, after a six weeks' session, adopted a constitution. Before it was held the people of California, in convention at San Francisco, had voted against the admission of the slave-labor system into that country. The constitution adopted at Monterey also had a provision to exclude slavery from that inchoate state. Thus came into political form the crude elements of a state, the birth and maturity of which seems like a strange dream. All had been accomplished within twenty months from the time when gold was discovered at Sutter's Mill. Under this constitution John Charles Frémont and William M. Gwynn were chosen by the State Legislature United States Senators. Edward Gilbert and G. H. Wright were elected to the House of Representatives. When Frémont and Gwynn went to Washington, they took the state constitution with them, and presented a petition (February, 1850) asking for the admission of California into the Union as a free and independent state. The article in its constitution which excluded slavery became a cause of violent debate in Congress and of bitter feeling in the South against the people of the North. The Union, so strong in the hearts of the people, was shaken to its centre. Mr. Clay again appeared as a compromiser for the sake of peace and union. It seemed that some compromise was needed to avoid serious difficulty, for already the representatives of the slave interest had taken action, and the Southern members in Congress boldly declared their intention to break up the Union if California should be admitted under such a constitution. A joint resolution was adopted to appoint a committee of thirteen (six Northern and six Southern members, who should choose the thirteenth) to consider the subject of a territorial government for California, New Mexico, and Utah, with instructions to report a plan of compromise embracing all the questions thus arising out of the subject of slavery. Henry Clay was made chairman of that committee. He had already presented (Jan. 25, 1850) a plan of compromise to the South, and spoke eloquently in favor of it (Feb. 5); and on May 8 he reported a plan of compromise in a series of bills, intended to be a pacification. This was called an Omnibus Bill (which see). It made large concessions to the slaveholders, and yet it was not satisfactory to them. For months a violent discussion of the Compromise Act was carried on throughout the country, and it was denounced upon diametrically opposite grounds. It finally passed both Houses of Congress, and became a law. On Sept. 9, 1850, California was admitted into the Union as a state.

STATE SEAL OF CALIFORNIA.

California, Name of. In 1534 Hernando Cortez sent Hernando de Grijalva on an errand of discovery to the Pacific coast, who probably saw the peninsula of California. Twenty-five years before the Spanish leader discovered the country, a romance was published in Spain in which are described the doings of a pagan queen of Amazons, who brought from the "right hand of the Indies" her allies to assist the infidels in their attacks upon Constantinople. The romance was entitled *Esplandian*, the name of an imaginary Greek emperor, living in Stamboul, the ancient name of Constantinople. The Amazonian queen was named Calafia, whose kingdom, rich in gold, diamonds, and pearls, was called California. The author probably derived the name from Calif, the title of a successor of Mohammed. The author says: "Know that on the right hand of the Indies there is an island, called California, very close to the Terrestrial Paradise, and it was peopled by black women without any man among them, for they lived in the fashion of the Amazonia. They were of strong and hardy bodies, of ardent courage, and of great force. Their island was the strongest in all the world, with its steep cliffs and rocky shore. Their arms were all of gold, and so was the harness of the wild beasts which they tamed and rode. For in the whole island there was no metal but gold. They lived in caves wrought out of the rocks with much labor. They had many ships with which they sailed out to other countries to obtain booty." Both Cortez and Grijalva believed, as everybody then believed, that they were in the neighborhood of the coast of Asia; and, as the aspect of the country corresponded with the description in the romance, they named the peninsula California. In the Gulf of California were found pearls; so the description of the country of the black Amazons—a country filled with gold and pearls—suited the actual condition of the region explored.

California, STATE OF, was discovered as early as 1534 by a Spanish explorer (see *Cortez*), but settlements in Old or Lower California were first made in 1683 by Jesuit missionaries. New or Upper California was discovered later, and the first mission there (San Diego) was planted in 1768. For many years the government of California, temporal and spiritual, was under the control of monks of the Order of St. Francis. It was not until about 1770 that the Bay of San Francisco was discovered (unless by *Sir Francis Drake*, which see), and in 1776 a mission was established there. At the beginning of this century eighteen missions had been established in California, with over fifteen thousand converts. The Spanish power in California was overthrown by the Mexican revolution in 1822, when the government was permanently secularized. In 1843–46 many thousand emigrants from the United States settled in California; and when the war with Mexico broke out in 1846, the struggle for the mastery in that Pacific-coast province speedily ended in victory for the Americans in 1847. By the treaty of peace at Guadalupe Hidalgo (which see), California and other territory were ceded to the United States. In the month of February, 1848, gold was discovered in California, on the Sacramento River; and as the news spread abroad, thousands of enterprising and energetic men flocked thither to secure the precious metal, not only from the United States, but from South America, Europe, and China. Very soon there was a mixed population of all sorts of characters in California of at least 250,000 persons. The military governor called a convention to meet at Monterey, Sept. 1, 1849, to frame a state constitution. One was formed by which slavery was to be excluded from the proud new state; and this document revived in Congress, in great intensity, debates on the subject of slavery in 1849–50. A compromise was effected (see *Omnibus Bill*); and on Sept. 9, 1850, California was admitted into the Union as a state. So lawless were a large class of the population, that nothing but the swift operations of "Vigilance Committees" could control them and preserve social order. The first vigilance committee of San Francisco was organized in 1851. Finally these committees assumed the functions and powers of judges and executives, but under proper regulations, which guaranteed all accused persons a fair trial. Dangerous men of every kind were arrested, tried, hanged, transported, or acquitted. The tribunal became a "terror to evil-doers." Late in 1856 the vigilance committee in San Francisco surrendered its powers to the regularly constituted civil authority. California did not furnish any troops during the Civil War, owing to its isolated position, there being then no railroad communication between the two oceans. It has become one of the most prolific agricultural states in the Union.

Callender, JAMES THOMPSON, a political writer, born in Scotland; died in Richmond, Va., in July, 1803. He was a vigorous but coarse writer, and was never happier, apparently, than when engaged in a quarrel. He published in Edinburgh, in 1792, a book called *Political Progress of Great Britain*, which so offended the authorities that he was banished from the kingdom, and came to Philadelphia, where he published the *Political Register* in 1794–95, and the *American Annual Register* for 1796–97. He was a violent and unscrupulous opponent of Washington's administration, and delighted in abusing Hamilton and other Federalist leaders. For a season he enjoyed the friendship of Jefferson. The latter became disgusted with Callender, when the former, becoming Jefferson's enemy, calumniated him fearfully. He published a paper called the *Richmond Recorder*, in which he made fierce attacks upon the character of Washington and Adams. Callender was a common scold, and was very mischievous in the use of his pen and printing materials. He was accidentally drowned while bathing in the James River.

Calvert was the family name of the Lords Baltimore — George, Cecilius, Charles I., Benedict Leonard, Charles II., and Frederick. (See *Baltimore, Lords.*)

Calvert, GOVERNOR, RECEPTION OF, IN MARYLAND. When Leonard Calvert and his colony sailed up the Potomac as far as Aquia Creek, they found the natives friendly towards them. Going still farther, to Piscataway, they met Captain Fleet, an Indian trader with the Indians, and a voyager to Jamestown and other places in the way of traffic. He had been a prisoner for some years with the Anacostans on the site of Washington city, and was familiar with the language of the barbarians in the neighborhood. Fleet induced the chief at Piscataway to go on board Calvert's vessel. He was pleased; but when Calvert asked him whether he might sit down with his people in the country, the king answered cautiously, "I will not bid you go, neither will I bid you stay; but you may use your own discretion." Under the guidance of Fleet, the colonists were enabled to find a good place for settlement. (See *Maryland, Colony of.*)

Calvert, LEONARD, second son of the first

Lord Baltimore, and first governor of Maryland. Born about 1606; died June 9, 1647. He sailed from Cowes, Isle of Wight, for Chesapeake Bay, Nov. 22, 1633, as governor of Maryland, with two vessels (*Ark* and *Dove*), and over three hundred emigrants. (See *Baltimore, Lords.*) The *Ark* was a ship of three hundred tons, and the *Dove* a pinnace of fifty tons. Among the company were two Jesuit priests, Andrew White and John Altham. At religious ceremonies performed at the time of departure, the expedition was committed "to the protection of God especially, and of his most Holy Mother, and St. Ignatius, and all the guardian angels of Maryland." The two vessels were convoyed beyond danger from Turkish corsairs. Separated by a furious tempest that swept the sea three days, ending with a hurricane which split the sails of the *Ark*, unshipped her rudder, and left her at the mercy of the waves, the voyagers were in despair, and doubted not the little *Dove* had gone to the bottom of the ocean. Delightful weather ensued, and at Barbadoes the *Dove* joined the *Ark* after a separation of six weeks. Sailing northward, they touched at Point Comfort, at the entrance to the Chesapeake, and then went up to Jamestown, with royal letters borne by Calvert, and received there a kind reception from Governor Harvey. They tarried nine days, and then entered the Potomac River, which delighted them. The colonists sailed up the river to the Heron Islands, and, at a little past the middle of March, landed on one of them, which they named St. Clement's. On the 25th they offered the sacrifice of the mass, set up a huge cross hewn from a tree, and knelt in solemn devotion around it. Going farther up, they entered a river which they called St. George; and on the right bank founded the capital of the new province with military and religious ceremonies, and called it St. Mary's. That scene occurred March 27, 1634. It remained the capital of Maryland until near the close of the century, when it speedily became a ruined town, and now scarcely a trace of it remains. They found the natives friendly, and awed into reverence for the white men by the flash and roar of cannons, which they regarded as lightning and thunder. The successful medical services of Father White in curing a sick Indian king gained the profound respect of these children of the forest. He and his queen and three daughters were baptized by Father White, and became members of the Christian Church. William Clayborne, an earlier settler on Kent Island, in the Chesapeake, gave Calvert much trouble, and was abetted in his course by the Virginia authorities, who regarded the Maryland colonists as intruders. (See *Clayborne.*) He was driven away, and his property was confiscated. But he was a "thorn in the side" of the proprietor for a long time. Governor Calvert tried to carry out the grand design of the proprietor to establish a feudal nobility with hereditary titles and privileges, the domain for the purpose being divided into manorial estates of two thousand and three thousand acres each, but the provisions of the charter fortunately prevented such a consummation of Lord Baltimore's order. Governor Calvert went to England in 1643, and during his absence for nearly a year much trouble had ensued in the colony, for Clayborne, with Captain Richard Ingle, had harassed the settlement at St. Mary's. Civil war ensued (1645), and Governor Calvert was expelled from Maryland, and took refuge in Virginia. (See *Maryland.*) Finally Calvert returned from Virginia with a military force, took possession of Kent Island, and re-established proprietary rights over all the province of Maryland.

Cambridge Platform. The second Synod of Massachusetts met at Cambridge in 1646, and was not dissolved until 1648. The synod composed and adopted a system of church discipline called "The Cambridge Platform," and recommended it, together with the Westminster Confession of Faith, to the general court and to the churches. The latter, in New England, generally complied with the recommendation, and "The Cambridge Platform," with the ecclesiastical laws, formed the theological constitution of the New England colonies.

Camden. (See *Sanders's Creek.*)

Camp Wild-cat. The invasion of Kentucky by Zollicoffer from Tennessee aroused the loyalists of eastern Kentucky, and they flew to arms. Some of them were organized under Colonel Garrard, a loyal Kentuckian, and among the Rock Castle hills they established Camp Wildcat. There they were attacked (Oct. 21, 1861) by Zollicoffer. When he appeared, Garrard had only about six hundred men, but was joined by some Indiana and Ohio troops, and some Kentucky cavalry under Colonel Woolford. With the latter came General Schoepf, who took the chief command. Zollicoffer, with his Tennesseeans and some Mississippi "Tigers" fell upon them in the morning, and were twice repulsed. The last was in the afternoon. After a sharp battle, Zollicoffer withdrew. Garrard had been reinforced in the afternoon by a portion of Colonel Steadman's Ohio regiment. General Schoepf, deceived by false reports of a force coming from Buckner's camp at Bowling Green, fell back hastily towards the Ohio, making forced marches. (See *Invasion of Kentucky.*)

Campaign of 1758. (See *French and Indian War.*) William Pitt was called to the administration of public affairs in England in June, 1757. He recalled Lord Loudoun from America, and appointed General Abercrombie to succeed him. A strong naval armament was placed under the command of Admiral Boscawen, and twelve thousand additional English troops were allotted to the service in America. Pitt addressed a letter to the several colonies, asking them to raise and clothe twenty thousand men, and promised, in the name of Parliament, to furnish arms, tents, and provisions for them; and also to reimburse the several colonies nearly all the money they should expend in raising and clothing the levies. The response was wonderful. New England alone raised nearly fifteen thousand men, and an excess of levies soon appeared; and when, in May, 1758, Abercrombie took charge of the troops he found nearly fifty thousand men at his disposal. The plan of the campaign contemplated the capture of Louisburg, Ticonderoga, and Fort Duquesne.

Campaigns against Indians in Indiana and Illinois. On Oct. 14, 1812, General Samuel Hopkins, with two thousand mounted Kentucky riflemen, crossed the Wabash on an expedition against the Kickapoo and Peoria Indian villages, in the Illinois country, the former eighty miles from his starting-place, the latter one hundred and twenty miles. They traversed magnificent prairies covered with tall grass. The army was a free-and-easy, undisciplined mob, that chafed under restraint. Discontent, seen at the beginning, soon assumed the forms of complaint and murmuring. Finally, when halting on the fourth day's march, a major rode up to the general and insolently ordered him to march the troops back to Fort Harrison. Very soon afterwards the army was scarcely saved from perishing in the burning grass of a prairie, supposed to have been set on fire by the Indians. The troops would march no farther. Hopkins called for five hundred volunteers to follow him into Illinois. Not one responded. They would not submit to his leadership, and he *followed* his army back to Fort Harrison, where they arrived Oct. 25. This march of eighty or ninety miles into the Indian country had greatly alarmed the barbarians, and so did some good. Towards the same region aimed at by General Hopkins another expedition, under Colonel Russell, composed of two small companies of United States regulars, with a small body of mounted militia under Governor Ninian Edwards (who assumed the chief command), in all four hundred men, penetrated deeply into the Indian country, but, hearing nothing of Hopkins, did not venture to attempt much. They fell suddenly upon the principal Kickapoo towns, twenty miles from Lake Peoria, drove the Indians into a swamp, through which they pursued them, sometimes waist-deep in mud, and made them fly in terror across the Illinois River. Some of the pursuers passed over, and brought back canoes with dead Indians in them. Probably fifty had perished. The expedition returned, after an absence of eighteen days, with eighty horses and the dried scalps of several persons who had been killed by the savages, as trophies. General Hopkins discharged the mutineers and organized another expedition of twelve hundred and fifty men, composed chiefly of foot-soldiers. Its object was the destruction of Prophetstown. The troops were composed of Kentucky militia, some regulars under Captain Zachary Taylor, a company of Rangers, and a company of scouts and spies. They rendezvoused at Vincennes, and marched up the Wabash Valley to Fort Harrison Nov. 5, 1812. They did not reach the vicinity of Prophetstown until the 19th. Then a detachment fell upon and burned a Winnebago town of forty houses, four miles below Prophetstown. The latter and a large Kickapoo village near it were also laid in ashes. The village contained one hundred and sixty huts, with all the winter provisions of corn and beans, which were totally destroyed. On the 21st a part of the expedition fell into an Indian ambush and lost eighteen men, killed, wounded, and missing. So destitute were the troops, especially the Kentuckians, who were clad in only the remnants of their summer clothing, that the expedition returned without attempting anything more. They suffered dreadfully on their return march, for the ground was covered with snow and the streams were freezing.

Campaigns of 1864. General Grant was created lieutenant-general March 2, 1864, under an act of Congress passed the day before. He was appointed to the command of the armies of the United States, and assumed the duties March 17th. He made arrangements for the campaigns of that year, which contemplated two grand objects—the seizure of Richmond and Atlanta, the former the seat of the Confederate government, and the latter the focus of several converging railways. The National forces then in the field numbered about 800,000; those of the Confederates, about 400,000. Both parties were disposed to make the campaign about to be opened a decisive one if possible. To General George G. Meade, as commander of the Army of the Potomac, was assigned the task of conquering Lee and taking Richmond, and to General W. T. Sherman was assigned the task of conquering Johnson and taking Atlanta. Grant made his headquarters thenceforward with the Army of the Potomac, and gave to Meade the help of his counsel and the prestige of his name; while Sherman, who was appointed Grant's successor in command of the Military Division of the Tennessee, with General McPherson as commander of the Department and Army of the Tennessee, was left to his own resources, under general but explicit orders from the lieutenant-general.

Campbell, Lord William, Flight of. While the Provincial Congress of South Carolina was in session, Lord William Campbell, who had acquired large possessions in South Carolina by marriage, arrived at Charleston (July, 1775) as governor of the province. He was received with courtesy; and he soon summoned a meeting of the Assembly. They came; declined to do business; and adjourned on their own authority. The Committee of Safety proceeded in their preparations for resistance without regard to the presence of the governor. Lord Campbell professed great love for the people. His sincerity was suspected, and the hollowness of his professions was soon proved. Early in September Colonel Moultrie, by order of the Committee of Safety, proceeded to take possession of a small post on Sullivan's Island, in Charleston Harbor. The small garrison fled to the British sloops-of-war *Tamar* and *Cherokee*, lying near. Lord Campbell, seeing the storm of popular indignation against him daily increasing, particularly after it was discovered that he had attempted to incite the Indians to make war for the king, and had tampered with the Tories of the interior of the province, also fled to one of these vessels for shelter, and never returned. So ended royal authority in South Carolina.

Campbell, Lord William, Governor of South Carolina (1774–75), and brother of the Duke of Argyle, died Sept. 5, 1778. He became a captain in the British navy in August, 1762; was in Parliament in 1764; and governor of Nova Scotia 1766–73. He began his administration in South Carolina in 1775 by promoting insurrectionary movements favorable to the crown among the border population and the Indians. When detected in this practice, the indignation of the people alarmed him, and he fled on board a British vessel in Charleston Harbor. In the contest of the British fleet with Fort Moultrie, in June, 1776, he was badly hurt, and died from the effects of his wounds two years afterwards. In May, 1763, Lord Campbell married Sarah, sister of Ralph Izard, a revolutionary patriot. She joined her husband on the frigate to which he had fled.

Campbell, William, born in Augusta County, Va., in 1745; died September, 1781. He was in the battle of Point Pleasant (which see) in 1774, and was captain of a Virginia regiment in 1775. Being colonel of Washington County militia in 1780, he marched, with his regiment, two hundred miles to the attack of Major Ferguson at King's Mountain (which see), where his services gained for him great distinction. So, also, were his prowess and skill conspicuous at Guilford Court-house (which see), and he was made a brigadier. He assisted Lafayette in opposing Cornwallis in Virginia, and received the command of the light infantry and riflemen, but died a few weeks before the surrender of the British at Yorktown.

Canada, the northern neighbor of the United States, was discovered by Jacques Cartier (which see), on the borders of the St. Lawrence River, in 1534. Its name is supposed to have been derived from the Huron word *Kan-na-ta*, signifying a collection of cabins, such as Hochelaga (which see). No settlements were made there until the explorations of Champlain about three fourths of a century later. (See *Cartier and Champlain.*) He established a semi-military and semi-religious colony at Quebec, and from it Jesuit and other missions spread over the Lake regions. Then came the civil power of France to lay the foundations of an empire, fighting one nation of Indians and making allies of another, and establishing a feudal system of government, the great land-holders being called *seigneurs*, who were compelled to cede the lands granted to them, when demanded by settlers, on fixed conditions. They were not absolute proprietors of the soil, but had certain valuable privileges, coupled with prescribed duties, such as building mills, etc. In 1629 Quebec fell into the hands of the English, but was restored in 1632. In the early history of the colony the governors, in connection with the Intendant, held the military and civil administration in their hands. Jesuit and other priests became conspicuous in the public service. Finally, when a bishop was appointed for Quebec, violent dissensions occurred between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities. Until the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), Canada included all of present British America, and more. At that time Hudson's Bay and vicinity was restored to England by Louis XIV. Newfoundland and Acadia (Nova Scotia) were ceded to the English, and all right to the Iroquois country (New York) was renounced, reserving to France only the valleys of the St. Lawrence and the Mississippi. In 1760 Canada was conquered by the English, and by the Treaty of Paris (which see), in 1763, a greater portion of the French dominions in America fell into the possession of the British crown. By an act of the imperial Parliament, in 1791, Canada was divided into two provinces, Upper Canada and Lower Canada, and each had a parliament or legislature of its own. An imperial act was passed in 1840 to unite the two provinces under one administration and one legislature. Antecedent political struggles had taken place, which culminated in open insurrection in 1837–38. (See *Canadian Rebellion.*) In 1841 Upper and Lower Canada were united for purposes of government, the system professedly modified after that of Great Britain. In 1857 Ottawa was selected as the permanent seat of government for Canada, and costly public buildings were erected there. By act of the imperial Parliament, which received the royal assent March 28, 1867, the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia were connected and made one nation, under the general title of "The Dominion." Upper Canada was named "Ontario," and Lower Canada "Quebec." Provision was made for the future admission of Prince Edward's Island, the Hudson's Bay Territory, British Columbia, and Newfoundland, with its dependency, Labrador. In the new government the executive authority is vested in the Queen, and her representative in the Dominion is the acting governor-general, who is advised and aided by a privy council of fourteen members, constituting the ministry, who must be sustained by a parliamentary majority. There is a parliament composed of two chambers, the Senate and House of Commons. In 1878 the Marquis of Lorne, son of the Duke of Argyle—who, in 1871, married Louise, daughter of Queen Victoria—became governor-general of Canada.

Canada, Attempted Conquest of, in 1812. The first important military movement after the declaration of war was an attempt to conquer Canada by an invasion of its western border on the Detroit River. It then consisted of two provinces—Lower Canada, with a population of 300,000, mostly of French origin, and Upper Canada, with a population of 100,000, composed largely of American loyalists and their descendants. The regular military force in both provinces did not exceed 2000 men, scattered over a space of 1200 miles from Quebec to the foot of Lake Superior. Sir George Prevost was then governor-general, with his residence at Montreal. To enter the province from the States, a water-barrier had to be crossed, while the American frontier was destitute of roads, infected with summer fevers, and sparsely settled. William Hull, a soldier of the Revolution, then governor of Michigan Territory, was consulted about an invasion of Canada, while on a visit at Washington. He insisted that before such an enterprise should be undertaken a naval control of Lake Erie should be acquired, and not less than 3000 troops should be provided for the invasion. He accepted the commission of brigadier-general with the special object in view of protecting his territory from the Indian allies of the British, yet, by orders of the government, he prepared to invade Canada. Governor Meigs, of Ohio, called for troops to assemble at Dayton, and volunteers flocked thither in considerable numbers. There General Hull took command of them (May 25, 1812), and they started off in good spirits for their march through the wilderness. It was a perilous and most fatiguing journey. On the broad morasses of the summit lands of Ohio, Hull received a despatch from the War Department urging him to press on speedily to Detroit, and there await further orders. When he reached the navigable waters of the Maumee, his beasts of burden were so worn down by fatigue that he despatched for Detroit, in a schooner, his own baggage and that of most of his officers; also all of his hospital stores, intrenching tools, and a trunk containing his most valuable military papers. The wives of three of his officers, with thirty soldiers to protect the schooner, also embarked in her. In a smaller vessel the invalids of the army were conveyed. Both vessels arrived at the site of Toledo on the evening of July 1. The next day, when near Frenchtown (now Monroe), Hull received a note from the postmaster at Cleveland announcing the declaration of war. It was the first intimation he had received of that important event. In fact, the British at Fort Malden (now Amherstburg) heard of the declaration before Hull did, and captured his schooner, with all its precious freight. The commander at Malden had been informed of it, by express, as early as June 30—two days before it reached Hull. The latter pressed forward, and encamped near Detroit on July 5. The British were then casting up intrenchments at Sandwich on the opposite side of the Detroit River. There Hull awaited further orders from his government. His troops, impatient to invade Canada, had evinced a mutinous spirit, when he received orders to "commence operations immediately," and, if possible, take possession of Fort Malden (which see). At dawn on the morning of July 12, the greater part of his troops had crossed the Detroit River, and were on Canadian soil. Hull issued a proclamation to the Canadians, assuring them of protection in case they remained quiet. Many of the Canadian militia deserted the British standard. Hull advanced towards Malden (July 13). After a successful encounter with British and Indians (see *Battle at Aux Canards*), Hull fell back to Sandwich, without attacking Malden. His troops were disappointed and mutinous. Then information came of the capture of Mackinaw by the British. (See *Mackinaw, Capture of.*) News also came that General Proctor, of the British army, had arrived at Malden with reinforcements. This was followed by an intercepted despatch from the northwest announcing that twelve hundred white men and several hundred Indians were coming down to assist in the defence of Canada. General Brock was approaching from the east, with a force gathered on his way. (See *Van Horne's Defeat*, and *Battle at Maguagua.*) These events, and other causes, impelled Hull to recross the river to Detroit with his army, and take shelter in the fort there (Aug. 8, 1812). The British congregated in force at Sandwich, and from that point opened a cannonade upon the fort at Detroit. On Sunday morning, the 16th, the British crossed the river to a point below Detroit, and moved upon the fort. Very little effort was made to defend it, and, on that day, Hull surrendered the fort, army, and Territory of Michigan into the hands of the British. (See *Detroit, Surrender of.*)

BARRACKS AT SANDWICH.

Canada, ATTITUDE OF (1775). When news of the surrender of Ticonderoga (which see) reached Governor Carleton, of Canada, he issued a proclamation (June 9, 1775) in which he declared the captors to be a band of rebellious traitors; established martial law; summoned the French peasantry to serve under the old colonial nobility; and instigated the Indian tribes to take up the hatchet against the people of New York and New England. This proclamation neutralized the effects of the address of Congress to the Canadians. The Quebec Act (which see) had soothed the French nobility and Roman Catholic clergy. The English residents were offended by it, and these, with the Canadian peasantry, were disposed to take sides with the Americans. They denied the right of the French nobility, as magistrates, or the seigniors, to command their military services. They welcomed invasion, but had not the courage to join the invaders. At the same time, the French peasantry did not obey the order of the Roman Catholic bishop, which was sent to the several parishes, and read by the local clergy, to come out in defence of the British government. It was known that the bishop was a stipendiary of the crown.

Canada, COMMISSIONERS TO. (See *Commissioners to Canada.*)

Canada, CONQUEST OF (1629). David Kertk (the English write it Kirk), a Huguenot refugee, received a royal commission from King Charles I. to seize the French forts in Acadia (which see) and on the river St. Lawrence. With a dozen ships he overcame the small French force at Port Royal, and took possession of Acadia in 1629. Later in the summer, he entered the St. Lawrence, burned the hamlet of Tadousac, at the mouth of the Saguenay, and sent a summons for the surrender of Quebec. It was refused, and Kirk resolved to starve out the garrison. He cruised in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and captured the transports conveying winter provisions for Quebec. The sufferings there were intense, but they endured them until August the next year, when, English ships-of-war, under a brother of Admiral Kirk, appearing before Quebec, instead of the expected supply ships, the place was surrendered, and the inhabitants, not more than one hundred in all, were saved from starvation. By a treaty, Canada was restored to the French in 1632.

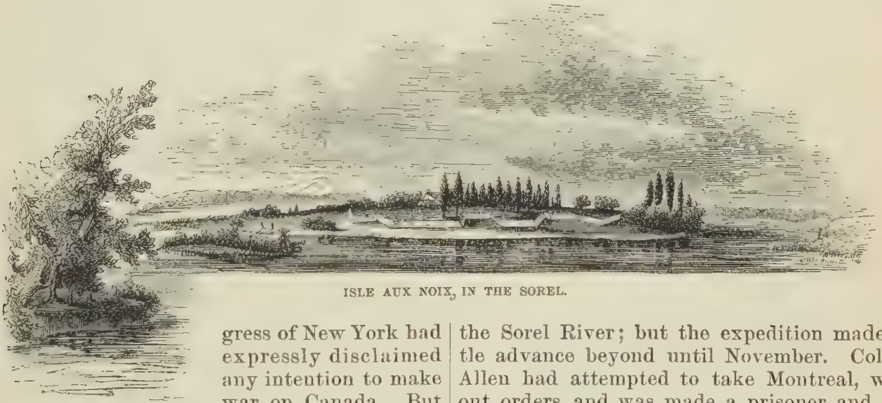
Canada, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1746). The easy conquest of Louisburg revived a hope that Canada might be conquered. Governor Shirley proposed to the ministers to have the task performed by a colonial army alone. They would not comply, for the colonists, thus perceiving their own strength, might claim Canada by right of conquest, and become too independent; so they authorized an expedition for the purpose after the old plan of attacking that province by land and sea. An English fleet was prepared to go against Quebec; a land force, composed of troops from Connecticut, New York, and colonies farther south, gathered at Albany to march against Montreal. Governor Clinton assumed the chief command of the land expedition. His unpopularity thwarted his plans. The corporation of Albany refused to furnish quarters for his troops, and his drafts on the British treasury could not purchase provisions. Meanwhile, Massachusetts and Rhode Island had raised nearly four thousand troops, and were waiting for an English squadron. Instead of a British armament, a French fleet of forty war vessels, with three thousand veteran troops, was coming over the sea. New England was greatly alarmed. It was D'Anville's armament, and it was dispersed by storms. (See *Louisburg.*) Ten thousand troops gathered at Boston for its defence; the fort on Castle Island was made very strong, and the land expedition against Montreal was abandoned. Again the expenses of Massachusetts ($1,000,000) in making these preparations were reimbursed by Parliament.

Canada, FINAL CONQUEST OF. When Quebec fell, in the autumn of 1759, the French held Montreal, and were not dismayed. In the spring of 1760, Vaudreuil, the governor-general of Canada, sent M. Levi, the successor of Montcalm, to recover Quebec. He descended the St. Lawrence with six frigates and a powerful land force. The English, under General Murray, marched out of Quebec, and met him at Sillery, three miles above the city; and there was fought (April 4) one of the most sanguinary battles of the war. Murray was defeated. He lost about one thousand men, and all his artillery, but succeeded in retreating to the city with the remainder of his army. Levi laid siege to Quebec, and Murray's condition was becoming critical, when an English squadron appeared (May 9) with reinforcements and provisions. Supposing it to be the whole British fleet, Levi raised the siege (May 10), and fled to Montreal, after losing most of his shipping. Now came the final struggle. Three armies were soon in motion towards Montreal, where Vaudreuil had gathered all his forces. Amherst, with 10,000 English and provincial troops, and 1000 Indians of the Six Nations, led by Johnson, embarked at Oswego, went down Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence to Montreal, where he met Murray (Sept. 6), who had come up from Quebec with 4000 men. The next day, Colonel Haviland arrived with 3000 troops from Crown Point, having taken possession of Isle aux Noix on the way. Resistance to such a crushing force would have been in vain, and, on Sept. 8, 1760, Vaudreuil signed a capitulation surrendering Montreal and all French posts in Canada and on the border of the lakes to the English. General Gage was made military governor of Montreal, and General Murray, with 4000 men, garrisoned Quebec. The conquest of Canada was now completed.

Canada, GRAND PLAN FOR ITS EMANCIPATION. A grand campaign for liberating Canada from British rule was conceived late in 1778. From Boston, D'Estaing, in the name of Louis XVI., had summoned the Canadians to throw off British rule. Lafayette exhorted (December) the barbarians of Canada to look upon the English as their enemies. The Congress became inflamed with zeal for the projected measure, formed a plan, without consulting a single military officer, for the "Emancipation of Canada," in co-operation with an army from France. One American detachment from Pittsburgh was to capture Detroit; another from Wyoming was to seize Niagara; a third from the Mohawk Valley was to capture Oswego; a fourth from New England was to enter Montreal by way of the St. Francis; a fifth to guard the approaches from Quebec; while to France was assigned the task of reducing Halifax and

Quebec. Lafayette offered to use his influence at the French court in furtherance of this grand scheme; but the cooler judgment and strong common-sense of Washington interposed the objection that the part which the United States had to perform in the scheme was far beyond its resources. It was abandoned, as was another scheme for a like result, early in the year. (See *Canada, Scheme for a Winter Expedition against.*)

Canada, Invasion of (1775). There was a decided war spirit visible in the second Continental Congress, yet it was cautious and prudent. Immediately after the seizure of Ticonderoga and Crown Point (May 10–12, 1775), the Congress was urged to authorize the invasion and seizure of Canada. That body hoped to gain a greater victory by making the Canadians their friends and allies. To this end they sent a loving address to them, and resolved, on the 1st of June, "that no expedition or incursion ought to be undertaken or made by any colony or body of colonists against or into Canada." The Provincial Congress of New York had expressly disclaimed any intention to make war on Canada. But Gage's proclamation (June 10) that all Americans in arms were rebels and traitors, and especially the battle on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, made a radical change in the feelings of the people and in Congress. It was also ascertained that Guy Carleton, governor of Canada, had received a commission to muster and arm the people of the province, and to march them into any province in America to arrest and put to death, or spare, "rebels" and other offenders. Here was a menace that could not go unheeded. Colonels Ethan Allen, Benedict Arnold, and others renewed their efforts to induce the Congress to send an expedition into Canada. The latter perceived the importance of securing Canada either by alliance or by conquest. At length the Congress prepared for an invasion of Canada. Major-general Philip Schuyler had been appointed to the command of the Northern Department, which included the whole province of New York. General Richard Montgomery was his chief lieutenant. The regiments raised by the province of New York were put in motion, and General Wooster, with Connecticut troops, who were stationed at Harlem, was ordered to Albany. The New-Yorkers were joined by "Green Mountain Boys." Schuyler sent into Canada an address to the inhabitants, in the French language, informing them that "the only views of Congress were to restore to them those rights which every subject of the British empire, of whatever religious sentiments he may be, is entitled to;" and that, in the execution of these trusts, he had received the most positive orders to "cherish every Canadian, and every friend to the cause of liberty, and sacredly to guard their property." It was now too late. Had the Congress listened to Allen and Arnold at the middle of May, and moved upon Canada, its conquest would have been easy, for there were very few troops there. When, near the close of August, an expedition against Canada, under Schuyler, was ready to move, preparations had been made to thwart it. The clergy and seigniors of Canada, satisfied with the Quebec Act (which see), were disposed to stand by the British government. The invading army first occupied Isle aux Noix, on the Sorel River; but the expedition made little advance beyond until November. Colonel Allen had attempted to take Montreal, without orders, and was made a prisoner and sent to England. A detachment of Schuyler's army captured Fort Chambly, twelve miles from St. Johns, on the Sorel (Nov. 3), and, on the same day, the fort at the latter, which Montgomery had besieged for some time, cut off from supplies, also surrendered. Montreal fell before the patriots on the 13th, and Montgomery, leaving a garrison at both places, prepared to move on Quebec. Meanwhile Colonel Arnold had led an expedition by way of the Kennebec and Chaudière rivers, through a terrible wilderness, to the banks of the St. Lawrence (Nov. 9) opposite Quebec. He crossed the river, ascended to the Plains of Abraham (Nov. 13), and, at the head of only seven hundred and fifty half-naked men—with not more than four hundred muskets—demanded the surrender of the city. Intelligence of an intended sortie caused Arnold to move twenty miles farther up the river, where he was soon joined by Montgomery. The combined forces returned to Quebec, and began a siege. At the close of the year (1775), in an attempt to take the city by storm, the invaders were repulsed, and Montgomery was killed. Arnold took the com-



ISLE AUX NOIX, IN THE SOREL.

mand, and was relieved by General Wooster, in April (1776). A month later, General Thomas took the command, and, hearing of the approach of a large armament, land and naval, to Quebec, he retreated up the river. Driven from one post to another, the Americans were finally expelled from Canada, the wretched remnant of the army, reduced by disease, arriving at Crown Point in June, 1776.

Canada, INVASION OF (1814). At the opening of the third year of the second war for independence, a favorite project with the United States government was the conquest of Canada. The principal military forces in Upper Canada were under Lieutenant-general Drummond. When the Army of the North, commanded by Major-general Brown, reached the Niagara frontier, Drummond's headquarters were at Burlington Heights, at the western end of Lake Ontario. General Riall was on the Niagara River, at Fort George and Queenstown; but when he heard of the arrival of the Americans at Buffalo, under General Scott, he advanced to Chippewa and established a fortified camp. At the close of June, General Brown arrived at Buffalo, and assumed chief command, and, believing his army to be strong enough, he proceeded to invade Canada. His army consisted of two brigades, commanded respectively by Generals Scott and Ripley, to each of which was attached a train of artillery, commanded by Captain N. Towson and Major J. Hindman. He had also a small corps of cavalry, under Captain S. D. Harris. These regulars were well disciplined and in high spirits. There were also volunteers from Pennsylvania and New York, one hundred of them mounted, and nearly six hundred Seneca Indians—almost the entire military force of the Six Nations remaining in the United States. These had been stirred to action by the venerable Red Jacket, the great Seneca orator. The volunteers and Indians were under the chief command of General Peter B. Porter, then quartermaster-general of the New York militia. Major McRee, of North Carolina, was chief-engineer, assisted by Major E. D. Wood. On the Canada shore, nearly opposite Buffalo, stood Fort Erie, then garrisoned by one hundred and seventy men, under the command of Major Buck. On the 1st of July Brown received orders to cross the Niagara, capture Fort Erie, march on Chippewa, menace Fort George, and, if he could have the co-operation of Chauncey's fleet, to seize and fortify Burlington Heights. Accordingly, Brown arranged for General Scott and his brigade to cross on boats and land a mile below the fort, while Ripley, with his brigade, should be landed a mile above it. This accomplished, the boats were to return and carry the remainder of the army, with its ordnance and stores, to the Canada shore. The order for this movement was given on the 2d of July. It was promptly obeyed by Scott, and tardily by Ripley, on the 3d. When Scott had pressed forward to invest the fort, he found Ripley had not crossed, and no time was lost in crossing the ordnance and selecting positions for batteries. These preparations alarmed the garrison, and the fort, which was in a weak condition, was surrendered. Nearly two hundred men, including officers, became prisoners of war, and were sent across the river.

Canada, SCHEME FOR A WINTER INVASION OF. The Board of War, General Gates president, arranged a plan, late in 1777, for a winter campaign against Canada, and appointed Lafayette to the command. (See *Conspiracy against Washington*.) The Marquis was cordially received at Albany by General Schuyler, then out of the military service. General Conway, who had been appointed inspector-general of the army, was there before him. Lafayette was utterly disappointed and disgusted by the lack of preparation and the delusive statements of Gates. "I do not believe," he wrote to Washington, "I can find twelve hundred men fit for duty—and the quarter part of these are naked—even for a summer campaign." The Marquis soon found the whole affair to be only a trick of Gates to detach him from Washington. General Schuyler had, in a long letter to Congress (Nov. 4, 1777), recommended a winter campaign against Canada, but it was passed unnoticed by the Congress, and Gates appropriated the thoughts as his own in forming the plan, on paper, which he never meant to carry out.

Canadian Rebellion. A movement for a separation of the Canadas from the Crown of Great Britain, and their political independence, was begun simultaneously in Upper and Lower Canada in 1837. In the former province, the most conspicuous leader was William Lyon McKenzie, a Scotchman, a journalist of rare ability and a great political agitator; in the Lower Province, the chief leader was Joseph Papineau, a large land-owner, and a very influential man among the French inhabitants. Both leaders were republican in sentiment. The movements of the revolutionary party were well planned, but local jealousies prevented unity of action, and the effort failed. It was esteemed highly patriotic, and elicited the warmest sympathy of the American people, especially of those of the Northern States. Banded companies and individuals joined the "rebels," as they were called by the British government, and "patriots" by their friends; and so general became the active sympathy on the northern frontier, that peaceful relations between the United States and Great Britain were endangered. President Van Buren issued a proclamation, calling upon all persons engaged in the schemes of invasion of the Canadian territory to abandon the design, and warning them to beware of the penalties that must assuredly follow such infringement of international laws. General Winfield Scott was finally sent to the northern frontier to preserve order, and was assisted by a proclamation by the governor of New York. Yet secret associations, known as "Hunters' Lodges," continued quite active for some time. Against the members of these lodges, President Tyler issued an admonitory proclamation, which prevented further aggressive movements. For four years this ominous cloud hung upon our horizon. It disappeared in 1842, when the leaders of the movement were either dead or in exile.

Canadians, ADDRESS TO THE. On May 1, 1775, the Quebec Act (which see) went into operation, and on the 29th the Continental Congress adopted an address to the Canadians, prepared by John Jay. It was deemed highly important to secure their co-operation. The address appealed to their pride, their affection for France, their courage, and the regard for their common welfare, and saying, "By your present form of government, or rather present form of tyranny, you and your wives and your children are made slaves." The Canadians, as Frenchmen, feared the haughty rule of the British, and the Protestant portion of them cherished the exclusive rule of Protestants; but as Congress offered them no hope of a union for independence, or a promise of institutions of their own, nor any adequate motive for rising, they were unmoved by the address. To the French Canadians the Quebec Act was really an improvement on their former condition.

Canal System (IN THE UNITED STATES). General Philip Schuyler may justly be regarded as the father of our canal system. So early as 1761, when he was in England settling the accounts of General John Bradstreet with the government, he visited the famous canal which the Duke of Bridgewater had just completed, and he became profoundly impressed with the importance of such aqueous highways in the work of developing the internal resources of our country. On his return, he urged the matter upon the attention of his countrymen. Meanwhile, the active mind of Elkanah Watson (which see) had been deeply interested in the subject. In 1785 he visited Mount Vernon, where he found Washington engaged in a project for connecting the waters of the Potomac with those west of the Alleghany Mountains. He and General Schuyler projected canals between the Hudson River and lakes Champlain and Ontario, and in 1792 the Legislature of New York chartered two companies, known, respectively, as the "Western Inland Lock Navigation Company" and "Northern Inland Lock Navigation Company," of both of which Schuyler was made president, and, at his death, in 1804, he was actively engaged in the promotion of both these projects. The Western Canal was never completed, according to its original conception, but was supplemented by the great Erie Canal, suggested by Governeur Morris about the year 1801. In a letter to David Parish, of Philadelphia, that year, he distinctly foreshadowed that great work. So early as 1774 Washington favored the passage of a law by the Legislature of Virginia for the construction of works — canals and good wagon-roads — by which the Potomac and Ohio rivers might be connected by a chain of commerce. After the Revolution, the States of Virginia and Maryland took measures which resulted in the formation of the famous Potomac Company, to carry out Washington's project. In 1784 Washington revived a project for making a canal through the Dismal Swamp, not only for drainage, but for navigation between the Elizabeth River and Albemarle Sound. The oldest work of the kind in the United States is a canal, begun in 1792, five miles in extent, for passing the falls of the Connecticut River at South Hadley. The earliest completed and most important of the great canals of our country is the Erie, connecting the waters of Lake Erie with those of the Hudson River. It was built by the State of New York at a cost of $7,602,000, from the operation of which untold wealth has been derived by the City and State of New York. It was completed and formally opened by Governor De Witt Clinton, its great advocate, in 1825. The canal changed the whole aspect of commercial affairs in the Lake region. The total area of these five great inland seas is about 9000 square miles, and their inlets drain a region estimated at about 336,000 square miles.

Canby, EDWARD RICHARD SPRIGG, was born in Kentucky, 1819; killed by Indians, April 11, 1873. He graduated at West Point in 1839; served in the Seminole War (which see) and the war with Mexico. He was twice breveted for eminent services in the latter war. He was promoted to major in 1855, and colonel in 1861. In 1861 he was in command in New Mexico until late in 1862, and, in March of that year, was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He was promoted to major-general of volunteers in May, 1864, and took command of the Department of West Mississippi. He captured Mobile, April 12, 1865 (see *Mobile*), and afterwards received the surrender of the Confederate armies of Generals Taylor and E. Kirby Smith. On July 28, 1866, he was commissioned a brigadier-general in the regular army, and in 1869 took command of the Department of the Columbia, on the Pacific coast. He devoted himself to the settlement of difficulties with the Modoc Indians (which see), and, while so doing, was treacherously murdered by Captain Jack, their leader.

E. R. S. CANBY.

Canonicus, sachem or king of the Narragansets, treated the Pilgrims, at first, with much arrogance. He was born about 1565; died June 4, 1647. His tribe had been exempted from the scourge which swept away Massasoit's people, and the latter stood in awe of him. Canonicus, by way of defiance, sent to Plymouth a bundle of arrows, tied with a rattlesnake's skin. Bradford immediately sent the skin back, stuffed with gunpowder and bullets. The superstitious Indians took it for some fatal charm, and, in terror, passed it from village to village until it returned to Plymouth. The authorities of the latter, however, took the precaution to surround the village with palisades. (See *Plymouth.*) Canonicus became the firm friend of the English, especially of Roger Williams, who found a retreat in his dominions. Before Williams's arrival, there had been war between the Narragansets and Pequods, concerning the ownership of lands, in which a son of Canonicus was slain. In his grief, the king burned his own house and all his goods in it. Roger Williams, who often experienced his kindness, spoke of Canonicus as "a wise and peaceable prince." He was uncle of Miantonomoh, who succeeded him as sachem of the Narragansets in 1638. (See *Miantonomoh.*)

Canonicus and his Challenge. The haughty chief of the Narragansets, living on Canonicus Island, opposite the site of Newport, R. I., was at first unwilling to be friendly with the Pilgrims at New Plymouth. To show his contempt and defiance of the English, he sent a message to Governor Bradford with a bundle of arrows in a rattlesnake's skin. That was at the dead of winter, 1622. It was a challenge to engage in war in the spring. Like the venomous serpent that wore the skin, the symbol of hostility gave warning before the blow should be struck —a virtue seldom exercised by the Indians. Bradford acted wisely. He accepted the challenge by sending the significant quiver back filled with gunpowder and shot. "What can these things be?" inquired the ignorant and curious savage mind, as the ammunition was carried from village to village, in superstitious awe, as objects of evil omen. They had heard of the great guns at the sea-side, and they dared not keep the mysterious symbols of the governor's anger, but sent them back to Plymouth as tokens of peace. The chief and his associates honorably sued for the friendship of the white people.

Cape Ann (now Gloucester) was chosen as a place of settlement for a fishing colony by Rev. John White (a long time Rector of Trinity Church, Dorchester, Eng.) and several other influential persons. Through the exertions of Mr. White, a joint-stock association was formed, called the "Dorchester Adventurers," with a capital of about $14,000. Cape Anne was purchased, and fourteen persons, with live-stock, were sent out in 1623, who built a house and made preparations for curing fish. Affairs were not prosperous there. Roger Conant was chosen governor in 1625, but the Adventurers became discouraged and concluded on dissolving the colony. Through the encouragement of Mr. White, some of the colonists remained, but, not liking their seat, they went to Naumkeag, now Salem, where a permanent colony was settled. (See *Salem.*)

Cape Fear, CONFEDERATES DRIVEN FROM. Bragg was in general command in the Cape Fear region at the time of the fall of Fort Fisher, and General Hoke was his most efficient leader. He held Fort Anderson, a large earthwork about half-way between Fort Fisher and Wilmington. Terry did not think it prudent to advance on Wilmington until he should be reinforced. To effect this, General Grant ordered Schofield from Tennessee to the coast of North Carolina, where he arrived, with the Twenty-third Corps, on Feb. 9, 1865, and swelled Terry's force of 8000 to 20,000. Schofield, outranking Terry, took the chief command. The Department of North Carolina had just been created, and he was made its commander. The chief object now was to occupy Goldsborough, in aid of Sherman's march to that place. Terry was pushed forward towards Hoke's right, and, with gunboats, attacked Fort Anderson (Feb. 18) and drove the Confederates from it. The fleeing garrison were pursued, struck, and dispersed, with a loss of 375 men and two guns. The National troops pressed up both sides of the Cape Fear River, pushed Hoke back, while gunboats secured torpedoes in the stream and erected batteries on both banks. Hoke abandoned Wilmington Feb. 22, 1865, after destroying all the steamers and naval stores there. Among the former were the Confederate privateers *Chickamauga* and *Tallahassee.* Wilmington was occupied by National troops, and the Confederates abandoned the Cape Fear region.

Capital of Maryland, CHANGE OF LOCATION OF. In 1694 the seat of government in Maryland was removed from St. Mary to Anne Arundel Town (afterwards Annapolis), for the better accommodation of the great majority of the people of Maryland. This was the ostensible motive; the controlling object doubtless was for the punishment of the adherents of Lord Baltimore, who constituted a greater portion of the population of St. Mary. In 1695 the name of Anne Arundel Town was changed to Annapolis, and the naval station of the province was established there. The United States Naval Academy is also located there.

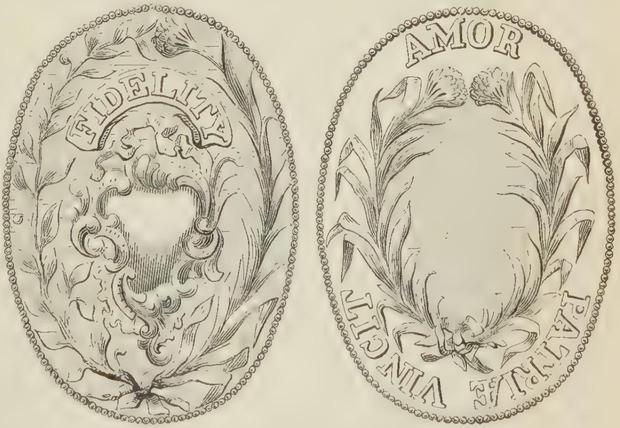
Capital of Maryland Founded. In the spring of 1634 Leonard Calvert and his little band of colonists went up a pleasant tributary of the Potomac, called Wicomico, twelve miles, anchored at an Indian village of the same name, and there held a friendly conference with the ruler of the barbarians. The interpreter explained the object of Calvert's visit. The latter, pleased with the situation and the country around, purchased the site of the village, giving in payment English cloth, axes, hoes, rakes, knives, and some trinkets for the women, of little value. The domain thus bought included about thirty square miles of territory, which was named Augusta Carolina, in compliment to King Charles. On March 27 (O. S.) Calvert took formal possession of the land. The emigrants left behind at another place came there. They built a store-house; and on a warm day in April the governor, with his followers, went to a spot, fragrant with wild flowers, about a mile from the little river, and there laid out a town, which they named St. Mary's, and dedicated it to the Virgin Mary, as the capital of the new province. The friendly Indians assisted the settlers in building houses. (See *Maryland.*)

Capital, THE, IN DANGER (1861). Washington was swarming with Secessionists. They were yet, in large numbers, in the public offices; and after the evacuation of Sumter and the possession of Harper's Ferry and Norfolk by the insurgents, their friends in the national capital were buoyant with hope that the Confederate government would soon be transferred from the banks of the Alabama to those of the Potomac. The minute-men of Maryland and Virginia were unusually active. The leading Secessionists in Baltimore, comprising the "States Rights Association," were in conference every evening; and Governor Hicks was continually importuned to call an extraordinary session of the Legislature, that a secession convention might be authorized. The government was soon made painfully aware that the President's call for troops was not made an hour too soon. There was a general impression in the free-labor states that the capital would be the first point of attack, and towards that city volunteers instantly began to march in hourly increasing numbers. Within three days after the President's call for troops (April 15, 1861) probably not less than one hundred thousand young men had left their avocations and were preparing for war. The movement was simultaneous all over the free-labor states.

Capitol, REBUILDING OF THE NATIONAL. When, early in 1815, an appropriation for rebuilding the Capitol at Washington (burned by the British) was proposed, there were bursts of indignant eloquence on the floor of Congress, not unmixed with interested motives. Mr. Rhea, a member from Pennsylvania, proposed to encircle the blackened walls of the Capitol with an iron balustrade; to let the ivy grow over them; and to place on their front, in letters of brass, this inscription: "Americans! this is the effect of British barbarism! Let us swear eternal hatred to England!" This display of patriotic indignation electrified the audience; but when it was considered that the Pennsylvanians wished to remove the seat of government to Philadelphia, there was less enthusiasm displayed, and an appropriation was made for rebuilding the Capitol on the ruins of the old.

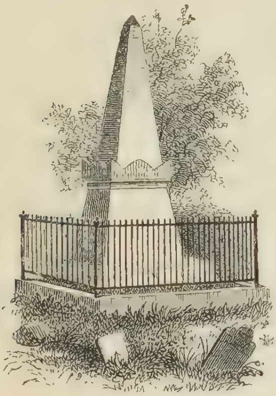
Capitol, THE, at Washington, was built of white freestone. It is upon an eminence, about eighty feet above tide-water, in the centre of a large square. It is composed of a central edifice, with two wings. The north wing was begun in 1793, and finished in 1800, at a cost of $480,000. The corner-stone was laid by President Washington. The south wing was commenced in 1803, and completed in 1808, at an expense of about $309,000. The central building was not begun when the two wings were burned by the British in 1814. The length of the front, including the two wings, was 352 feet. The construction of the central building was begun in 1818, and completed in 1827, at a cost of $958,000. The wings were rebuilt, and were ready for occupancy and were first occupied by the two Houses of Congress Dec. 6, 1819. The whole edifice covered the space of an acre and a half, exclusive of the circular enclosure for fuel, which forms an elegant area and glacis on the western front. An enlargement of the Capitol was begun in 1851, when the Grand Master Mason (B. B. French) used the apron and trowel, in laying the corner-stone of the enlargement (July 4, 1851), made use of by Washington in 1793. The corner-stone was then laid by President Fillmore. The extension, made at each end of the old Capitol, was finished in 1867. The old building now forms its centre, with a grand portico composed of twenty-four Corinthian columns. The entire length of the Capitol is now 751 feet, and the greatest depth, including porticos and steps, 348 feet. From the centre rises a cast-iron dome, 135½ feet in diameter, to a height of 287½ feet above the basement floor of the building. The dome is surmounted by a bronze statue of Liberty, by Crawford, 19½ feet in height. Beneath the dome is the rotunda, 96 feet in diameter, containing several historical paintings.

Captors of André, THE, were John Paulding, David Williams, and Isaac Van Wart. Washington recommended Congress to reward them for their fidelity. They were each presented with a silver medal, and they were voted a pension of two hundred dollars a year each in silver or its equivalent. Monuments have been erected to the memory of the captors—to Paulding (which see), in St. Peter's church-yard, near Peekskill; to Van Wart, by the citizens



THE CAPTORS' MEDAL.

of Westchester County, in 1829, in the Presbyterian church-yard at Greenburg, of which church the captor was an active officer and chorister for many years; and to Williams, in Schoharie County, N.Y.


VAN WART'S MONUMENT.

Capture of General Charles Lee. On the morning of Dec. 13, 1776, General Lee, who had persistently disobeyed the orders of Washington to join him, was captured at an inn at Baskingridge, New Jersey, where he was lodging, nearly three miles from his army. Lee had just finished a letter to General Gates, in which he had spoken disparagingly of Washington, when Colonel Harcourt, at the head of a British scouting party, surrounded the house and made him a prisoner. He had gone out of the house, on hearing a tumult, unarmed, bareheaded, in slippers, without a coat, in a blanket-cloak, his shirt-collar open, and his linen much soiled, and gave himself up. In this plight he was hurried, on horseback, to the camp of Cornwallis, at New Brunswick, and was sent by him to New York. (See *Treason of General Charles Lee.*)

Captured Vessels DURING THE WAR OF 1812–15. The whole number of captured British vessels during the war, on the lakes and on the ocean, including those taken by privateers (of which there remained forty or fifty at sea when peace was proclaimed), and omitting those recaptured, was reckoned at 1750. There were captured or destroyed by British ships 42 American national vessels (including 22 gunboats), 133 privateers, and 511 merchant-vessels—in all 686, and manned by 18,000 seamen.

Card-cloth. The manufacture of cards for carding wool by hand was quite an important industry in our country before the Revolution, and was carried on successfully during that war. In 1787, Oliver Evans, the pioneer American inventor, then only twenty-two years of age, and engaged in making card-teeth by hand, invented a machine that produced three hundred a minute. Already Mr. Crittendon, of New Haven, Conn., had invented a machine (1784) which produced eighty-six thousand card-teeth, cut and bent, in an hour. These inventions led to the contrivance of machines for making card-cloth—that is, a species of comb used in the manufacture of woollen or cotton cloths, for the purpose of carding and arranging the fibres preparatory to spinning. It consists of stout leather filled with wire card-teeth, and is the chief part of the carding-machine in factories. A machine for making the card-cloth complete was invented by Eleazar Smith, of Walpole, Mass., at or near the close of the last century, for which invention Amos Whittemore received the credit and the profit. (See *Whittemore, Amos.*) This invention was imperfect. About 1836 William B. Earle made improvements, which were modified in 1843. The card-cloth made by this machine is the best now (1876) in use.

Carey, MATTHEW, was born in Dublin, Ireland, Jan. 28, 1760; died in Philadelphia, Sept. 16, 1839. He learned the business of printer and bookseller, and at the age of seventeen he wrote and published a pamphlet on duelling. This was soon followed by an address to the Roman Catholics in Ireland on their oppressions by the penal code. This was so seditious and inflammatory that he was compelled to fly to Paris, but returned in the course of a year, where, in 1783, he edited the *Freeman's Journal*, and established the *Volunteer's Journal.* Because of a violent attack on Parliament, he was confined in Newgate Prison; and after his release he sailed for America, arriving in Philadelphia Nov. 15, 1784. There he started the *Pennsylvania Herald*, the first newspaper in America that gave accurate reports of legislative proceedings. He was always aggressive with his pen. He fought a duel with Colonel Oswald, editor of a rival newspaper. He married in 1791, and began business as a bookseller. He was active in works of benevolence during the prevalence of yellow-fever in Philadelphia, and wrote and published a history of that epidemic. He was an associate of Bishop White and others in the formation of the first American Sunday-school society. While the War of 1812–15 was kindling he wrote much on political subjects, and in 1814 his *Olive Branch* appeared, in which he attempted to harmonize the contending parties in the United States. It passed through ten editions. In 1819 appeared his vindication of his countrymen, entitled *Vindicæ Hibernicæ.* In 1820 he published his *New Olive Branch*, which was followed by a series of tracts extending to more than two thousand pages, the object being to demonstrate the necessity of a protective system. His writings on political economy were widely circulated. In this field of literature he was succeeded by his son Henry Charles, who died in the autumn of 1879. His advocacy of internal improvements led to the construction of the Pennsylvania canals. He published Bibles, which, with others of his publications, were sold by the eminent early "book-agent," Rev. Mason L. Weems.

Carleton and the Indians. Personally Guy Carleton, Governor of Canada, was averse to the employment of Indians in war. He knew them too well; but he was compelled to obey the savage orders of his king through the secretary, Germain. The unusually mild Canadian winter of 1776–77 was employed by Carleton in preparations for the next campaign. On the 30th of April he gave audience to the deputies of the Six Nations, and accepted their services with thanks and gifts. Other large bodies of Indians were also engaged, and these afterwards joined the forces under Burgoyne. The Baron de Riedesel, the Brunswick general, who thought that campaign would end the war, and to whom King George appeared as "the adoration of all the universe," said, with a sigh, "Wretched colonists! if these wild souls are engaged in war." General Gates, at a council of the Mohawks, near the close of May, tried to counteract the influence of Joseph Brant, the young chief, by a speech in which he denounced the leaders who had attempted to lead them into the British service, and declared that "before many moons should pass away the pride of England would be laid low." But the Mohawks generally listened to Brant and took up arms against the American "rebels."

Carleton, GUY (Lord Dorchester), was born at Strabane, Ireland, in 1722; died Nov. 10, 1808. He entered the Guards at an early age, and became a lieutenant-colonel in 1748. He was aid to the Duke of Cumberland in the German campaign of 1757; was with Amherst in the siege of Louisburg in 1758; was with Wolfe at Quebec (1759) as quartermaster-general; and was a brigadier-general at the siege of Belle Isle, where he was wounded. He was also quartermaster-general in the expedition against Havana in 1762, and in 1767 he was made lieutenant-governor of Quebec. The next year he was appointed governor. In 1772 he was promoted to major-general, and in 1774 was made governor-general of the Province of Quebec. In an expedition against the forts on Lake Champlain in 1775 he narrowly escaped capture; and at the close of the year he successfully resisted a siege of Quebec by Montgomery. (See *Siege of Quebec.*) The next spring and summer he drove the Americans out of Canada, and totally defeated the American flotilla in an engagement on Lake Champlain in October. Burgoyne superseded him as military leader in 1777, when he received the order of knighthood. He was made lieutenant-general in 1778; was appointed commander-in-chief of the British forces in America in 1781; and sailed for England Nov. 25, 1783. In 1786 he was created Baron Dorchester, and from that year until 1796 he was governor of British North America.

GUY CARLETON.

Carleton Superseded in Command. Sir John Burgoyne had been in England during the earlier part of 1777, and managed, by the help of Sir Jeffrey Amherst, to obtain a commission to take command of all the British forces in Canada. To do this he played the sycophant to Germain, and censured Carleton. When Sir John arrived at Quebec (May 6, 1777), Carleton was amazed at despatches brought by him rebuking the governor for his conduct of the last campaign, and ordering him, "for the speedy quelling of the rebellion," to make over to Burgoyne, his inferior officer, the command of the Canadian army as soon as it should leave the boundary of the Province of Quebec. The unjust reproaches and the deprivation of his military command greatly irritated Carleton, but, falling back on his civil dignity as governor, he implicitly obeyed all commands and answered the requisitions of Burgoyne. As a soothing opiate to his wounded pride, Burgoyne conveyed to the governor the patent and the jewel of a baronet, and henceforth he was "Sir Guy Carleton."

Carleton's Retaliation. Governor Carleton was a strict disciplinarian, and always obeyed instructions to the letter. When Burgoyne, after the capture of Ticonderoga (July, 1777), pushing on towards the valley of the Hudson, desired Carleton to hold that post with the three thousand troops which had been left in Canada, the governor refused, pleading his instructions, which confined him to his own province. This unexpected refusal was the first of the embarrassments Burgoyne endured after leaving Lake Champlain. He was compelled, he said, to "drain the life-blood of his army" to garrison Ticonderoga and hold Lake George. No doubt this weakening of his army at that time was one of the principal causes of his defeat near Saratoga. If Carleton wished to gratify a spirit of retaliation because of Burgoyne's intrigues against him, the surrender of the latter must have fully satisfied him. (See *Carleton Superseded.*)

Carlin, WILLIAM P., was born in Greene County, Ill., Nov. 24, 1829. He graduated at West Point in 1850, and was in the Sioux expeditions under General Harney in 1855, and under General Sumner against the Cheyennes in 1857. He was in the Utah expedition in 1858; and did efficient service in Missouri for the Union in the early part of the Civil War, where he commanded a district until March, 1862. He commanded a brigade under Generals Steele and Pope, and it bore a prominent part in the battle of Stone River (which see). In the operations in northern Georgia late in 1863, and in the Atlanta campaign the next year, he was very active. In the famous march to the sea he commanded a division in the Fourteenth Corps; and was with Sherman in his progress through the Carolinas, fighting at Bentonville. He was breveted major-general in March, 1865.

Carlisle (FREDERICK HOWARD), FIFTH EARL OF, one of the three commissioners sent on a conciliatory errand to America in 1778. (See *Conciliatory Commissioners.*) He was born in May, 1748; died Sept. 4, 1825. He was lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1780–82. Lord Carlisle was a poet, and was the uncle and guardian of Lord Byron.

Carmichael, WILLIAM, diplomatist, born in Maryland, died early in 1795. He was a man of fortune. He was in Europe in 1776, and assisted Silas Deane in his political and commercial operations in France. He also assisted the American commissioners in Paris. In 1778–80 he was in Congress, and was secretary of legation to Jay's mission to Spain. When the latter left Europe (1782) Carmichael remained as *chargé d'affaires*, and retained the office about thirteen years.

Carnifex Ferry, BATTLE AT. The troops left by Garnett and Pegram in western Virginia in the summer of 1861 were placed in charge of General Robert E. Lee. (See *Rich Mountain* and *Carricksford.*) At the beginning of August he was at the head of sixteen thousand fighting men. John B. Floyd, the late Secretary of War, was placed in command of the insurgents in the region of the Gauley River. From him much was expected, for he promised much. He was to drive General Cox out of the Kanawha Valley, while Lee should disperse the army of ten thousand men under Rosecrans at Clarksburg, on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and so open a way for an invading force of Confederates into Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. Early in September Rosecrans marched southward in search of Floyd. He scaled the Gauley Mountains, and on the 10th found Floyd at Carnifex Ferry, on the Gauley River, eight miles from Summersville, the capital of Nicholas County, Va. Already a detachment of Floyd's men had surprised and dispersed (Aug. 26, 1861) some Nationals, under Colonel E. B. Taylor, not far from Summersville. At the summit of Gauley Mountain Rosecrans encountered Floyd's scouts and drove them before him; and on Sept. 10, Floyd's camp having been reconnoitred by General Benham, Rosecrans fell upon him with his whole force (chiefly Ohio troops), and for three hours a desperate battle raged. It ceased only when the darkness of night came on. Rosecrans intended to renew it in the morning, and his troops lay on their arms that night. Under cover of darkness, Floyd stole away, and did not halt in his flight until he reached Big Sewell Mountain, near New River, thirty miles distant. The battle at Carnifex Ferry was regarded as a substantial victory for the Nationals. The latter lost fifteen killed and seventy wounded; the Confederates lost one killed and ten wounded.

Carolina, GRANT OF. Charles I. granted the immense tract south of Virginia to Robert Heath in 1630. (See *North Carolina.*) It remained unsettled, and the charter was declared void in 1663. In March, 1663, the king granted this domain to several of his courtiers. (See *Grantees of North Carolina.*) The domain was defined as lying between latitude 30° and 36° north. The grantees were made absolute lords and proprietors of the country, the king reserving to himself and his successors sovereign dominion. They were empowered to enact and publish laws, with the advice and consent of the freemen; to erect courts of judicature, and appoint civil judges, magistrates, and other officers; to erect forts, castles, cities, and towns; to make war, and, in cases of necessity, to exercise martial law; to construct harbors, make ports, and enjoy custodies and subsidies on goods loaded and unloaded, by consent of the freemen. The charter granted freedom in religious worship, and so made Carolina an asylum for the persecuted.

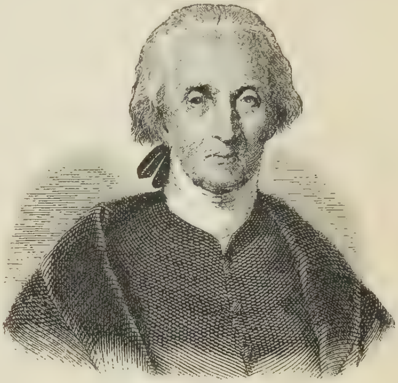
Carolinas, SHERMAN'S MARCH THROUGH THE. Sherman appointed the 15th of January, 1865, as the day for beginning his march northward from Savannah. The Seventeenth Corps was sent by water to a point on the Charleston and Savannah Railway, where it seriously menaced Charleston. The left wing, under Slocum, accompanied by Kilpatrick's cavalry, was to have crossed the Savannah on a pontoon bridge at that city; but incessant rains had so flooded the swamps and raised the streams that the army was compelled to cross higher up, and did not effect the passage until the first week in February. Savannah and its dependencies were transferred to General Foster, then in command of the Department of the South, with instructions to co-operate with Sherman's inland movements by occupying, in succession, Charleston and other places. Sherman notified General Grant that it was his intention, after leaving Savannah, "to undertake, at one stride," to make Goldsborough an open communication with the sea by the Newbern Railway. Feints of attacks on Charleston kept Hardee from interfering with Sherman's inland march. Wheeler had been putting obstructions in his pathway to Columbia; but the movements of the Nationals were so mysterious that it distracted the Confederates, who could not determine whether Sherman's objective was Charleston or Augusta. His invasion produced widespread alarm. Sherman's army steadily advanced in the face of every obstacle. They drove the Confederates from their position at Orangeburg and began destroying the railway there. On Feb. 18 they began a march directly to Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, driving the Confederates before them wherever they appeared. Sherman's march was so rapid that troops for the defence of the capital could not be gathered in time. He was in front of Columbia before any adequate force for its defence appeared. Beauregard was in command there, and had promised much, but did little. On Feb. 17 the Nationals entered Columbia; and on the same day Charleston, flanked, was evacuated by Hardee. (See *Charleston, Evacuation of.*) The rear guard of the Confederates, under Wade Hampton, on retiring, set fire to cotton in the streets; and the high wind sent the burning fibre into the air, setting fire to the dwellings, and in the course of a few hours that beautiful city was in ruins. (See *Columbia.*) Sherman, after destroying the arsenal at Columbia, left the ruined city and pressed on with his forces to Fayetteville, N. C., his cavalry, under Kilpatrick, fighting the Confederate cavalry led by Wheeler many times on the way. He left a black path of desolation through the Carolinas forty miles in width. The army "lived off the country." They crossed the rivers on pontoon bridges. Arriving at Fayetteville, Sherman opened communications with the National troops at Wilmington, and thenceforward they all joined in an effort to crush the great insurrection, which was done early in April, 1865.

Carr, EUGENE A., was born in Erie County, N. Y., March 20, 1830, and graduated at West Point in 1850. As a member of mounted rifles, he was engaged in Indian warfare in New Mexico, Texas, and the West; and in 1861 he served under Lyon, in Missouri, as colonel of Illinois cavalry. He commanded a division in the battle at Pea Ridge (which see), and was severely wounded. He was made a brigadier-general of volunteers. He commanded a division in the battle at Port Gibson (which see) and others preceding the capture of Vicksburg; also in the assaults on that place. He assisted in the capture of Little Rock (Ark.) and the defences of Mobile, and was breveted major-general.

Carricksford, BATTLE AT. After the battle on Rich Mountain (which see), Pegram, threatened by McClellan, stole away to Garnett's camp, when the united forces hastened to Carricksford, on a branch of the Cheat River, pursued by the Nationals. After crossing that stream, Garnett made a stand. He was attacked by Ohio and Indiana troops. After a short engagement, the insurgents fled. While Garnett was trying to rally them, he was shot dead. The Confederates fled to the mountains, and were pursued about two miles.

Carrington, EDWARD, was born in Virginia, Feb. 11, 1749; died in Richmond, Va., Oct. 28, 1810. Was made lieutenant-colonel of a Virginia artillery regiment in 1776; was sent to the South, and was made a prisoner at Charleston in 1780. He was Gates's quartermaster-general in his brief Southern campaign. Carrington prepared the way for Greene to cross the Dan, and was an active and efficient officer in Greene's famous retreat (which see). He commanded the artillery at Hobkirk's Hill (which see), and also at Yorktown. (See *Siege of Yorktown.*) Colonel Carrington was foreman of the jury in the trial of Burr (which see).—II. PAUL, a brother of the preceding, was born Feb. 24, 1733; died in Charlotte County, Va., June 28, 1818. He became an eminent lawyer; was a member of the House of Burgesses, and voted against Henry's Stamp Act resolutions (which see); but was patriotic, and helped along the cause of independence in an efficient manner.

Carroll, CHARLES, OF CARROLLTON, was born at Annapolis, Md., Sept. 20, 1737; died in Baltimore Nov. 14, 1832. His family were wealthy Roman Catholics, the first appearing in America at the close of the seventeenth century. He was educated at St. Omer's and at a Jesuit college at Rheims; and he studied law in France and at the Temple, London. He returned to America in 1764, when he found the colonies somewhat agitated by momentous political questions, into which he soon entered—a writer on the side of the liberties of the people. He inherited a vast estate, and was considered one of the richest men in the colonies. Mr. Carroll was a member of one of the first vigilance committees established at Annapolis, and a member of the Provincial Convention. Early in 1776, he was one of a committee appointed by Congress to visit Canada to persuade the Canadians to join the other colonies in resistance to the measures of Parliament. His colleagues were Dr. Franklin and Samuel Chase. The committee were accompanied by Rev. John Carroll. The mission was fruitless; and when, in June, the Committee returned to Philadelphia, they found the subject of independence under consideration in Congress. Carroll and Chase induced Maryland to change its attitude. (See *Independence.*) Carroll took his seat in Congress in time to vote for the Declaration of Independence. He signed that document, and was the last survivor of that band of fifty-six patriots who bravely took the responsibility of dismembering the British empire. Mr. Carroll served his state in its Assembly, in the National Congress, and in other responsible offices, with fidelity and ability. At the age of over ninety years (July 4, 1828) he laid the corner-stone of the Baltimore and Ohio Railway, attended by an imposing civic procession. The story that he appended "of Carrollton" to his name defiantly, to enable the British crown to identify him, is a fiction. He was accustomed to sign it so to prevent confusion, as there was another Charles Carroll.



CHARLES CARROLL.

Carroll, JOHN, D.D., LL.D., was born at Upper Marlborough, Md., Jan. 8, 1735; died in Baltimore, Dec. 3, 1815. He was educated at St. Omer's, Liege, and Bruges; ordained a priest in 1769, and entered the order of Jesuits soon afterwards. He travelled through Europe with young Lord Staunton in 1770 as private tutor, and in 1773 became a professor in the college at Bruges. In 1775 he returned to Maryland, and the next year, by desire of Congress, he accompanied a committee of that body on a mission to Canada. That committee was composed of Dr. Franklin, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and Samuel Chase. He was appointed the papal vicar-general for the United States in 1786, and made Baltimore his fixed residence. In 1790 he was consecrated the first Roman Catholic bishop in the United States, and established the seat of his episcopal see at Baltimore. He founded St. Mary's College in 1791, and in 1804 he obtained a charter for Baltimore College. Liberal in his views, he maintained the friendship of all Protestant sects. A few years before his death he was made archbishop.

JOHN CARROLL.

Carronades were much used, during the War of 1812–15, on the ocean. They are a kind of short iron cannon, which is attached to its carriage by a joint and bolt underneath the piece, instead of trunnions. It is only in this respect and in its dimensions that it differs from other heavy guns and howitzers. The name is derived from Carron, a village in Stirlingshire, Scotland, where this gun was first made.

Carteret and Andros. Governor Andros, of New York, claimed political jurisdiction, in the name of the Duke of York, over all New Jersey. Philip Carteret, Governor of East Jersey, denied it, and the two governors were in open opposition. A friendly meeting of the two magistrates, on Staten Island, was proposed. Carteret declined it; and Andros warned him to forbear exercising any jurisdiction in East Jersey, and announced that he should erect a fort to aid him (Andros) in the exercise of his authority. Carteret defied him; and when, a month later, Andros went to New Jersey, seeking a peaceful conference, Carteret met him with a military force. As Andros came without troops, he was permitted to land. The conference was fruitless. A few weeks later Carteret was taken from his bed, in his house at Elizabethtown, at night, by New York soldiers, and carried to that city and placed in the hands of the sheriff. He was tried in May (1678), and though Andros sent the jurors out three times, with instructions to bring in a verdict of guilty, he was acquitted. But he was compelled to give security that he would not again assume political authority in New Jersey. The Assembly of New Jersey were asked to accept the duke's laws (which see), but they preferred their own. At the same time they accepted the government of Andros, but with reluctance. Carteret went to England with complaints, and the case was laid before the duke by the widow of Sir George Carteret. The Friends, of West Jersey, had already presented their complaints against Andros, and the case was referred to the duke's commissioners. These, advised by Sir William Jones, decided that James's grant reserved no jurisdiction, and that none could be rightly claimed. This decided the matter for East Jersey also, and in August and October, 1680, the duke signed documents relinquishing all rights over East and West Jersey (which see).

Carteret, Sir George, was an English naval officer of high repute, of imperious deportment, and "the most passionate man in the world." Charles I. appointed him governor of the Island of Jersey, in the English Channel; and when the civil war broke out he was controller of the navy, and esteemed by all parties. Leaving the sea, he went with his family to Jersey, but soon afterwards returned to help his royal master. In 1645 he was created a baronet, and returned to his government of Jersey, where he received and sheltered the Prince of Wales (afterwards Charles II.) when the royal cause was ruined in England. Other refugees of distinction were there, and he defended the island gallantly against the forces of Cromwell. At the Restoration he rode with the king in his triumphant entry into London. Carteret became one of the privy council, vice-chamberlain, and treasurer of the navy. Being a personal friend of James, Duke of York, to whom Charles II. granted New Netherlands, Carteret and Berkeley (another favorite) easily obtained, for a money consideration, a grant of the territory between the Hudson and Delaware rivers, which, in gratitude for his services in the Island of Jersey, was called New Jersey. Carteret retained his share of the province until his death, which occurred in 1680, leaving his widow, Lady Elizabeth, executrix of his estate. Sir George was one of the grantees of the Carolinas, and a portion of that domain was called Carteret colony.

Carthage, Battle of (1861). General Lyon sent Colonel Franz Sigel in pursuit of the Confederates under Governor Price in southeastern Missouri. (See *Missouri, Early Military Operations in.*) His force consisted of nearly one thousand loyal Missourians (of his own and Salomon's regiments) with two batteries of artillery of four field-pieces each—in all about fifteen hundred men. Though the insurgents were reported to be more than four thousand in number, Sigel diligently sought them. On the morning of July 5, 1861, he encountered large numbers of mounted riflemen, who seemed to be scouting, and a few miles from Carthage, the capital of Jasper County, he came upon the main body of the Confederates, under General Jackson, who was assisted by General Rains and three other brigadiers. They were drawn up in battle order on the crown of a gentle hill. A battle commenced at a little past 10 o'clock, by Sigel's field-pieces, and lasted about three hours, when, seeing his baggage in danger and his troops in peril of being outflanked, Sigel fell back and retreated, in perfect order, to the heights near Carthage, having been engaged in a running fight nearly all the way. The Confederates pressed him sorely, and he continued the retreat (being outnumbered three to one) to Springfield, where he was joined by General Lyon (July 13), who took the chief command of the combined forces. This junction was timely, for the combined forces of Generals McCulloch, Rains, and others had joined those of Price, making the number of insurgents in that region about twenty thousand.

Cartier, JACQUES, a French navigator, was born at St. Malo, France, Dec. 31, 1494. He was commissioned by Francis I., King of France, to command an expedition to explore the Western Continent. On the 20th of April, 1534, after appropriate ceremonies in the cathedral at St. Malo, he sailed from that port with two ships, having each a crew of one hundred and twenty men, and, after a prosperous voyage of twenty days, they arrived at Newfoundland. Sailing northward, he entered the Strait of Belle Isle, and, touching the coast of Labrador, he formally took possession of the country in the name of his king, and erected a cross, upon which he hung the arms of France. Turning southward, he followed the west coast of Newfoundland to Cape Race. Then he explored the Bay of Chaleurs, landed in Gaspé Bay, held friendly intercourse with the natives, and induced a chief to allow two of his sons to go with him to France, promising to return them the next year. There, also, he planted a cross with the French arms upon it, and, sailing thence northeast across the Gulf of St. Lawrence, entered the branch of the St. Lawrence River north of Anticosti Island. Unconscious of having discovered a magnificent river, he turned and sailed for France to avoid the autumn storms, and arrived at St. Malo on the 5th of September, 1534. Encouraged by the success of this voyage, the king placed Cartier in command of three ships, which left St. Malo at the middle of May, 1535, bearing some of the young nobility of France. Separated by storms, they met at the appointed rendezvous, in the Strait of Belle Isle, in July, and sailed up the St. Lawrence to the mouth of a river (now St. Charles) at the site of Quebec, which they reached on the 14th of September. His squadron consisted of the *Great Hermine*, 120 tons; *Little Hermine*, 60 tons; and *L'Emérillon*, a small craft. On the day after their arrival, they were visited by Donnaconna, "King of Canada," who received them with the greatest kindness, and, through the two young men whom Cartier had brought back, they were enabled to converse. Mooring the larger vessels in the St. Croix (as Cartier named the St. Charles), he went up the river in the smaller one, with two or three volunteers, and, with a small boat, they reached the Huron (see *Hurons*) Indian village called Hochelaga, on the site of Montreal. He called the mountain back of it Mount Real (Royal Mountain), hence the name of Montreal. There he enjoyed the kindest hospitality, and bore away with him a pretty little girl, eight years old, daughter of one of the chiefs, who lent her to him to take to France. Returning to Stadacona (now Quebec) early in October, the Frenchmen spent a severe winter there, during which twenty-five of them died of scurvy. Nearly every one of them had the disease. When Cartier was prepared to leave for France, in the spring, the *Little Hermine* was found to be rotten and unseaworthy, and, as the other two vessels could carry his reduced company, she was abandoned. He formally took possession of the country in the name of his king, and, just before his departure (May 9, 1536), he invited Donnaconna and eight chiefs on board the flag-ship to a feast. They came, and Cartier treacherously sailed away with them to France as captives, where they all died of

JACQUES CARTIER.

grief. Cartier reached St. Malo July 16. There was now a pause in this enterprise, but finally Francis de la Roque, Lord of Roberval, Picardy, prevailed upon the king to appoint him viceroy and lieutenant-general of the new territory, and Cartier captain-general and chief-pilot of the royal ships. Five vessels were fitted out, and Cartier, with two of them, sailed from St. Malo in May, 1541. Late in August these reached Stadacona. The people there eagerly pressed to the ships to welcome their monarch, whom Cartier had promised to bring back. They shook their heads incredulously when he told them Donnaconna was dead. To show his good faith, he showed them the pretty little Huron maiden whom he was to return to her friends at Hochelaga. But they grew more sullen every hour, and became positively hostile. After visiting Hochelaga, Cartier returned to Stadacona, and, on an island (Orleans) just below, he caused a fort to be built for protection through the ensuing winter, where he waited patiently for the viceroy, but he came not. Towards the end of May the ice moved out of the St. Lawrence, and Cartier departed for France. He ran into the harbor of St. Johns, N. F., where he found De la Roque on his way to the St. Lawrence. Cartier tried to induce him to turn back by giving him most discouraging accounts of the country, but he ordered the navigator to go back with him to the great river. Cartier disobeyed and sailed for France. The viceroy went above the site of Quebec, where he built a fort and spent the next winter in great suffering, returning to France in the autumn of 1543. Cartier had arrived the previous summer, and did not make another voyage. He died in 1555, at the age of about sixty-one years. De la Roque started on another voyage to Canada in 1549, and was never heard of afterwards.

Carver, JOHN, first governor of New Plymouth (which see), was born in England; died at New Plymouth, Mass., April 5, 1621. He spent a considerable estate in forwarding the scheme of the "Pilgrims" (which see) for emigrating to America, and accompanied them in the *Mayflower*. He was a deacon or elder in Robinson's church at Leyden, and was one of the committee sent to London to effect a treaty with the Virginia Company (which see) concerning colonization in America. When the written instrument for the government of the colony was subscribed on board the *Mayflower*, Mr. Carver was chosen to be governor. His wife died during the succeeding winter, and, in the first warm days of the spring, he, too, departed. Governor Carver's chair (the first throne of a chief magistrate set up in New England) is preserved by the Massachusetts Historical Society.

GOVERNOR CARVER'S CHAIR.

Carver, JONATHAN, traveller, was born at Stillwater, Conn., in 1752; died in London in 1780. He served in the French and Indian War, and afterwards attempted to explore the vast region in America which the English had acquired from the French. He penetrated the country to Lake Superior and its shores and tributaries, and, after travelling about seven thousand miles, he returned to Boston (whence he departed in 1766) and sailed for England, to communicate his discoveries to the government, and to petition the king for a reimbursement of his expenses. His *Travels* were published in 1778. He was badly used in England, and, by utter neglect, was reduced, early in 1780, to a state of extreme destitution, and was prostrated with dysentery.

Casey, SILAS, was born at East Greenwich, R. I., July 12, 1807, and graduated at West Point in 1826. He served with Worth in Florida (1837–41) and under Scott in the war with Mexico (1847–48). He was also in the operations against the Indians on the Pacific coast in 1856. Early in the Civil War he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and organized and disciplined the volunteers at and near the capital. He was made major-general in May, 1862, and commanded a division in General Keyes's corps on the Peninsula, and received the first attack of the Confederates in the battle of Five Oaks (which see). General Casey was breveted major-general United States Army in March, 1865, for "meritorious service during the rebellion," and the Legislature of Rhode Island gave him a vote of thanks in 1867. General Casey is the author of a *System of Infantry Tactics* (1861) and *Infantry Tactics for Colored Troops* (1863).

Cass, LEWIS, was born at Exeter, N. H., Oct. 9, 1782; died in Detroit, June 17, 1866. He entered upon the practice of law about 1802, in Zanesville, Ohio, and at the age of twenty-five was a member of the Legislature. He was colonel of an Ohio regiment, under General Hull, in 1812, and was with the troops surrendered at Detroit (which see). In March, 1813, he was made a brigadier-general, and was voluntary aid to General Harrison at the battle of the

LEWIS CASS.

Thames (which see), when he was appointed governor of Michigan Territory. As Superintendent of Indian affairs in that region, he negotiated nineteen treaties with the barbarians. In 1829 he organized a scientific expedition to explore the Upper Mississippi. In 1831 he resigned the governorship and became Secretary of War, under President Jackson. From 1836 to 1842 he was United States Minister to France, and from 1845 to 1848 United States Senator. He received the Democratic nomination for President of the United States in 1848, but was defeated, and was again in the United States Senate from 1851 to 1857, when President Buchanan called him to his cabinet as Secretary of State; but when the President refused to reinforce the garrison in Fort Sumter, he resigned. General Cass favored the compromise of 1850 (which see), and also favored a compromise with the disunionists until they became insurgents, when he favored the supporters of the Union. He was author of a work entitled *France; its King, Court, and Government.*

Castine, CAPTURE OF. A British fleet, consisting of four 74-gun ships, 2 frigates, 2 sloops-of-war, and 1 schooner, with 10 transports, sailed from Halifax (Aug. 26, 1814), the latter bearing almost four thousand troops, under the command of Lieutenant-general Sir John Cope Sherbrooke, Governor of Nova Scotia, assisted by Major-general Gerard Gosselin. The fleet was in command of Rear-admiral Edward Griffith. The destination of the armament was the Penobscot River, with a design to take possession of the country between that river and Passamaquoddy Bay. Sherbrooke intended to stop and take possession of Machias, but, learning that the corvette *John Adams*, 24 guns, had entered the Penobscot, he hastened to overtake her. On the morning of Sept. 1 they arrived in the harbor of Castine (which see). There was a small American force there, under Lieutenant Lewis, occupying a little battery. Lewis, finding resistance would be in vain, spiked the guns, blew up the battery, and fled. About six hundred British troops landed and took quiet possession of the place. The *John Adams* had just returned from a long cruise, much crippled by striking on a rock on entering the bay. It was with difficulty that she was kept afloat until she reached Hampden, far up the river, to which she fled. The British immediately detached a land and naval force to seize or destroy her. Sherbrooke and Griffith issued a joint proclamation assuring the inhabitants of their intention to take possession of the country between the Penobscot and Passamaquoddy Bay, and offering them protection on condition of their acquiescence. All persons taken in arms were to be punished, and all who should supply the British with provisions were to be paid and protected. General Gosselin was appointed military governor.

REMAINS OF FORT CASTINE.

Castine, VINCENT, BARON DE, was born at Orleans, France, a scion of a noble family. At the age of seventeen years, he was colonel of the king's body-guard, and when the regiment to which he belonged was sent to Canada (1665) he came with it and remained after it was disbanded. In 1667 he established a trading-post and built a fort at or near the mouth of the Penobscot River, and married the daughter of a Penobscot chief. By him Christianity was first introduced among the natives of that region. He gained great influence over them. During his absence in 1688, his establishment was pillaged by the English, and he became their bitter foe. He taught the Indians around him the use of fire-arms, and he frequently co-operated with them in their attacks on the northeastern frontier. In 1696, with two hundred Indians, he assisted Iberville in the capture of the fort at Pemaquid. In 1706–7 he assisted in the defence of Port Royal, and was wounded. He lived in America thirty years, when he returned to France, leaving Fort Castine and the domain around it to his half-breed son and successor in title. The young baron was really a friend to the English, but, being at the head of the Penobscot Indians, and suspected of being an enemy, he was surprised and captured, in 1721, taken to Boston, and imprisoned several months. His name is perpetuated in the town of Castine, at which place slight traces of his fort are yet visible.

Castle Thunder was a Confederate prison at Richmond during the Civil War, in which civilians who were suspected or known to be in opposition to the insurgents were confined. It was to the offenders against Confederate authority what Forts Lafayette and Warren were to like offenders against the National government. Castle Thunder was a tobacco warehouse on the corner of Carey and Nineteenth Streets. It was burned early in September, 1879. (See following page.)

Castle William, SURRENDER OF. In September, 1770, the harbor of Boston was made the place of rendezvous of all the British war ships stationed in America, and Hutchinson was ordered by Gage to deliver Castle William, at the entrance of the harbor, to Colonel Dalrymple. This was by order of the king in council, contrary to the provisions of the charter, which emphatically reserved to the Governor of Massachusetts the command of all the militia of the province and of its forts. The castle had been built and garrisoned at the expense of the colony; and to take it from the governor and place it at the disposal of the military chief was a gross violation of the charter. It was a part of a new system of action to prevent American independence, planned by the king in council in the previous July.

CASTLE THUNDER.

Caswell, RICHARD, was born in Maryland, Aug. 3, 1729; died at Fayetteville, N. C., Nov. 20, 1789. He went to North Carolina in 1746, and practised law there, serving in the Assembly from 1754 to 1771, and being speaker in 1770. In the battle of the Allamance (which see) he commanded Tryon's right wing, but soon afterwards identified himself with the cause of the patriots, and was a member of the Continental Congress (1774–75). For three years he was president of the Provincial Congress of North Carolina, and was governor of the state from 1777 to 1779. In February, 1776, he was in command of the patriot troops in the battle of Moore's Creek Bridge (which see), and received the thanks of Congress and the commission of major-general for the victory there achieved. He led the state troops in the battle near Camden (August, 1780); and was controller-general in 1782. He was again governor in 1784–86; and a member of the Convention that framed the National Constitution. While presiding as speaker in the North Carolina Assembly he was struck with paralysis.

Catawbas. One of the eight Indian nations of North America discovered by the Europeans in the seventeenth century, when they had fifteen hundred warriors. They occupied the beautiful region between the Yadkin and Catawba Rivers, on each side of the boundary-line between North and South Carolina. They were southward of the Tuscaroras, and were generally on good terms with them. They were brave, but not warlike, and generally acted on the defensive. In 1672 they expelled the fugitive Shawnoese; but their country was desolated by bands of the Five Nations in 1701. They assisted the Carolinians against the Tuscaroras and their confederates in 1711; but four years afterwards they joined the powerful league of the Southern Indians in endeavors to extirpate the white people. They were again the active allies of the Carolinians in 1760, when the Cherokees made war upon them, and were friends of the "pale faces" ever afterwards. In the Revolution they joined the Americans, though few in numbers. They have occupied a reservation only a few miles square upon the Catawba River, near the mouth of Fishing Creek, and are now nearly extinct.

Catawbas and Iroquois, TREATY BETWEEN THE. A long and virulent war was carried on between the Catawbas in South Carolina and the Iroquois. The English endeavored to bring about peace between them, and succeeded. When, in 1751, William Bull, commissioner for South Carolina, attended a convention at Albany, he was attended by the chief sachem of the Catawbas and several chiefs. The hatred between the two nations was so bitter that the English commissioners deemed it prudent to keep the Catawbas alone in a chamber until the opening of the convention, to prevent violence. In the convention, after a speech by Mr. Bull, attended by the usual presents of wampum, the Catawba "king" and his chiefs approached the grand council, singing a song of peace, and bearing their ensigns — colored feathers carried horizontally. A seat was prepared for them at the right hand of the English company. The singers continued their song, half fronting the old sachems to whom their words were addressed, pointing their feathers, and shaking their musical calabashes, while their "king" was preparing and lighting the calumet, or pipe of peace. The king first smoked, and then presented the pipe to King Hendrick, of the Mohawks, who gracefully accepted and smoked it. Then each sachem smoked it in turn, when the Catawba monarch addressed the Six Nations—the singers having fastened their feathers, calabashes, and pipes to their tent-pole.

Cathay. The old name of China, so called by the Venetian traveller Marco Polo, who, in the employ of the Khan of Tartary, visited it early in the 13th century. It was the land Columbus expected to find by sailing westward from Spain. (See *Zipangi.*)

Cattle, FIRST, IN NEW ENGLAND. In 1623, Edward Winslow went back to England to obtain a supply of goods for the colony, and, returning in March, 1624, he brought with him a few cattle. The story of John Alden taking his bride home on a bull is a pleasant romance —nothing more.

Cattle-stealing Governor. Dr. John Potts was chosen by the Council of Virginia temporary governor, in 1629, which office he held until the arrival of Sir John Harvey. Soon after Harvey came Potts was tried by a jury of thirteen (of whom three were councillors) for cattle-stealing, and found guilty; but, "in regard of his quality and practice," the record says (he was the only physician at Jamestown), sentence was respited until the pleasure of the king should be known.

Caucus. This word in the vocabulary of the politics of the United States was probably a corruption of the word *calkers*—men who drive oakum or old ropes untwisted into the seams of vessels. These men naturally associated much with rope-makers in seaports. In Boston they had formed an association of which the father of Samuel Adams, and Samuel Adams himself afterwards, were members. After the Boston Massacre (which see), this society at their meetings, in speeches and resolutions, took strong grounds against the British government, its acts, and its instruments in America, and planned schemes for relieving their country of oppression. The Tories, in derision, called these assemblies "*calkers'* meetings," which became corrupted to "caucus meetings"—gatherings at which politicians of the same creed meet, consult, and lay plans for political action.

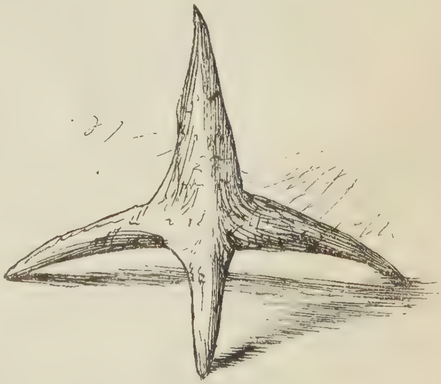
Cavaliers in Virginia. The cavaliers were the adherents of the fortunes of the Stuarts—the nobility, and the bitter opposers of the Puritans. On the death of Charles I. (1649), they fled to Virginia by hundreds, where only, in America, their church and their king were respected. They made an undesirable addition to the population, excepting their introduction of more refinement of manner than the ordinary colonist possessed. They were idle, inclined to luxurious living, and haughty in their deportment towards the "common people." It was they who rallied around Berkeley in his struggles with Bacon (see *Bacon's Rebellion*), and gave him all his strength in the Assembly. They were extremely social among their class, and gatherings and feastings and wine-drinking were much indulged in until poverty pinched them. They gave a stimulus to the slave-trade, for, unwilling to work themselves, they desired servile tillers of their broad acres; and so were planted the seeds of a landed oligarchy in Virginia that ruled the colony until the Revolution in 1775, and in a measure until the close of the Civil War in 1865.

Cavalry Obstructions. Among the devices used in the old war for independence for obstructing the progress of cavalry was an ugly sharp four-pronged piece of iron, so arranged that whatever way it might fall upon the ground one of the sharp prongs would be erect to penetrate the foot pressed upon it. These were scattered over the ground in the direction of the approach of an enemy's cavalry to attack.

Cave Life in Vicksburg. The city is built upon hills of clay, through which streets are cut. At these places, when Grant began the siege of Vicksburg (which see), caves were dug in the steep sides of the streets, in which whole families, bond and free, took shelter from shot and shell rained upon the city day and night, from land and water, during the long siege. In these, men, women, and children found protection, while their houses were perforated and the streets ploughed by balls and shells. It was a terrible ordeal for the inhabitants. These caves were made large enough to accommodate whole families, and, in several instances, one communicated with others by means of a subterranean corridor. In these caves, two or three children were born during the siege. It is a remarkable fact that during that siege only a few people in the city, not in the army, lost their lives.

CAVE LIFE IN VICKSBURG.

Cayugas. These composed the fourth nation of the Iroquois Confederacy (which see), and called themselves *Goiogwen*, or "Men of the Woods." Tradition says that at the formation of the confederacy, *Hi-a-wat-ha* said to the Cayugas: "You, Cayugas, a people whose habitation is the 'Dark Forest,' and whose home is everywhere, shall be the fourth nation, because of your superior cunning in hunting." They inhabited the pleasant country about Cayuga Lake in central New York, and numbered about three hundred warriors when first discovered by the French at the middle of the seventeenth century. The nation was composed of the fam-



CAVALRY OBSTRUCTIONS.

ilies of the Turtle, Bear, and Wolf, like the other cantons, and also those of the Beaver, Snipe, Heron, and Hawk. They were represented in the congress of the league by ten sachems. Through Jesuit missionaries the French made fruitless attempts to Christianize the Cayugas and win them over to the French interest, but found them uniformly enemies. During the old war for independence the Cayugas were against the colonists. They fought the Virginians at Point Pleasant in 1774. They hung upon the flank and rear of the army under Sullivan that invaded the territory of the Senecas in 1779; but they soon had their own villages destroyed, which greatly annoyed them. After the war they ceded their lands to the State of New York, excepting a small reservation, which they abandoned in the year 1800, when some of them joined the Senecas, some went to the Grand River in Canada, and some to Sandusky, Ohio, when they were removed to the Indian Territory (which see). In 1876 they numbered only a little over two hundred.

Cedar Creek, BATTLE OF. In October, 1864, the National army, commanded by General Wright, in the temporary absence of Sheridan (see *Fisher's Hill*) at the capital, were so strongly posted behind Cedar Creek that they had no expectation of an attack. They were mistaken. Early felt keenly his misfortune, and, having been reinforced by Kershaw's division and six hundred cavalry sent by Lee, he determined to make a bold movement, swiftly and stealthily, against the Nationals. He secretly gathered his forces at Fisher's Hill behind a mask of thick woods, and formed them in two columns to make a simultaneous attack upon both flanks of the Nationals. He moved soon after midnight (Oct. 19, 1864), with horse, foot, and artillery, along rugged paths over the hills, for he shunned the highways for fear of discovery. The divisions of Gordon, Ramseur, and Pegram formed his right column; his left was composed of the divisions of Kershaw and Wharton. At dawn these moving columns fell upon the right, left, and rear of the Nationals. It was a surprise. So furious was the assault before the Nationals had time to take battle order, that in fifteen minutes Crook's corps, that held a position in front, and had heard mysterious sounds like the dull, heavy tramp of an army, was broken into fragments, and sent flying back in disorder upon the corps of Emory and Wright. Crook left seven hundred men as prisoners, with many cannons, small-arms, and munitions of war in the hands of the Confederates. Emory tried in vain to stop the fugitives, but very soon his own corps gave way, leaving several guns behind. These, with Crook's, eighteen in all, were turned upon the fugitives with fearful effect, while Early's right column, led by Gordon, continued their flanking advance with vigor, turning the Nationals out of every position where they attempted to make a stand. Seeing the peril of his army, Wright ordered a general retreat, which was covered by the Sixth Corps, under the command of Ricketts, and which remained unbroken. The whole army retreated to Middletown, a little village five miles north of Strasburg, where Wright rallied his broken columns, and, falling back a mile or more, left Early in possession of Middletown. The Nationals had lost since daybreak (it was now ten o'clock) twelve hundred men made captive, besides a large number killed and wounded; also camp equipage, lines of defence, and twenty-four cannons. There being a lull in the pursuit, Wright had re-formed his troops and changed his front, intending to attack or retreat to Winchester as circumstances might dictate. At that critical moment Sheridan appeared on the field. He had returned from Washington, and had slept at Winchester. Early in the morning he heard the booming of cannon up the valley, and supposed it to be only a reconnoissance. After breakfast he mounted his horse—a powerful black

VIEW AT CEDAR CREEK BATTLE-GROUND.

charger—and moved leisurely out of the city southward. He soon met the van of fugitives, who told a dreadful tale of disaster. He immediately ordered the retreating artillery to be parked on each side of the turnpike. Then, ordering his escort to follow, he put his horse on a swinging gallop, and at that pace rode nearly twelve miles to the front. The fugitives became thicker and thicker every moment. He did not stop to chide or coax, but, waving his hat as his horse thundered on over the magnificent stone road, he shouted to the cheering crowds, "Face the other way, boys! face the other way! We are going back to our camp. We are going to lick them out of their boots!" Instantly the tide of retreating troops turned and followed after the young general. As he dashed along the lines and rode in front of forming regiments, he gave a word of cheer to all. He declared they should have all those camps and cannons back again. They believed the prophecy, and fought fiercely for its fulfilment. The re-formed army advanced in full force. Already (ten o'clock A.M.) Emory had quickly repulsed an attack, which inspirited the whole corps. A general and severe struggle ensued. The whole Confederate army were soon in full and tumultuous retreat up the valley towards Fisher's Hill, leaving guns, trains, and other hinderances to flight behind. Early's army was virtually destroyed; and, with the exception of two or three skirmishes between cavalry, there was no more fighting in the Shenandoah Valley. That night the Nationals occupied their old position at Cedar Creek. The promise of Sheridan, "We will have all the camps and cannons back again" was fulfilled. Sheridan was rewarded by the commission of a major-general in the regular army, dated Nov. 4, 1864. "Sheridan's Ride" was made the theme of poetry and painting.

Cedar Mountain, Battle of. Pope's main army (see *Army of Virginia*) was near Culpepper Court-house, and "Stonewall Jackson" was at Gordonsville, with a heavy force, at the close of July, 1862. Pope had taken command on June 28, and assumed the control in the field on the 29th of July. Both armies advanced early in August. Jackson, reinforced, had thrown his army across the Rapid Anna River on the morning of the 8th, and driven the National cavalry back on Culpepper Court-house. General S. W. Crawford was sent with his brigade to assist the latter in retarding Jackson's march, and to ascertain his real intentions, if possible. The movements of the Confederates were so mysterious that it was difficult to guess where they intended to strike. On the morning of Aug. 9, Pope sent General Banks forward with about eight thousand men to join Crawford near Cedar Mountain, eight miles southward of Culpepper Court-house, and Sigel was ordered to advance from Sperryville at the same time to the support of Banks. Jackson had now gained the commanding heights of Cedar Mountain, and he sent forward General Ewell under the thick mask of the forest. Early's brigade of that division was thrown upon the Culpepper road. The Confederates planted batteries, and opened fire upon Crawford's batteries. Before Crawford and Banks were about twenty thousand veteran soldiers in line of battle. Against these Banks moved towards evening, and almost simultaneously fell upon Jackson's right and left. The attacking force was composed of the division of General Auger (the advance led by General Geary) and the division of General Williams, of which Crawford's brigade was a part. The battle now became general, and raged for an hour and a half, during which deeds of great valor were performed on both sides. The Nationals, outnumbered, were pushed back after much loss by both parties. At dusk Ricketts's division of McDowell's corps came upon the field, and checked the pursuit. Artillery firing was kept up until near midnight. Later in the evening Sigel's corps arrived, and these reinforcements kept Jackson in check. On the night of the 11th, informed of the approach of National troops from the Rappahannock, and alarmed for the safety of his communications with Richmond, he fled beyond the Rapid Anna, leaving a part of his dead unburied.

Cedars, Affair at the (1776). There was a small American party posted at the Cedars Rapids of the St. Lawrence River, under Colonel Bedel, of New Hampshire. While the colonel was sick at Lachine, Captain Foster, with some regulars, Canadians, and five hundred Mohawks, under Brant, came down the river and attacked and captured this post without resistance. Arnold went out from Montreal with a force to attack the captors; but, to prevent the Indians murdering the prisoners, he consented to a compromise for an exchange. Congress refused to ratify this agreement, and trouble ensued.

Céloron's Expedition. The treaty of peace at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 did not touch the subject of boundaries between the French and English colonies in America. The Ohio Company was formed partly for the purpose of planting English settlements in the disputed territory. (See *Ohio Company*.) The French determined to counteract the movement by pre-occupation; and in 1749 the Governor of Canada, the Marquis de la Galissonière, sent Bienville de Céloron with subordinate officers, cadets, twenty soldiers, one hundred and eighty Canadians, thirty Iroquois, and twenty-five Abenakes, with instructions to go down the Ohio River and take formal possession of the surrounding country in the name of the King of France. Contrecœur, afterwards in command at Fort Duquesne (see *Fort Duquesne*), and Coulon de Villiers accompanied him as chief lieutenants. Céloron was provided with a number of leaden tablets, properly inscribed (see *Proces Verbal*), to bury at different places as a record of pre-occupation by the French. The expedition left Lachine on the 15th of June, ascended the St. Lawrence, crossed Lake Ontario, arrived at Niagara July 6, coasted some distance along the southern shores of Lake Erie, and then made an overland journey to the head-waters of the Alleghany River. Following that stream to its junction with the Monongahela, they went down the Ohio to the mouth of the Great Miami, below Cincinnati, proclaiming French sovereignty, and burying six leaden tablets at as many different places. From the mouth of the Miami they made an overland journey to Lake Erie, and reached Fort Niagara Oct. 19, 1749.—*Monograph of O. H. Marshall.*

Census, THE FIRST. The Constitution having prescribed that an enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States should be made, and that the representation should be apportioned in the manner specified in Section 2, Article I., the House of Representatives appointed a committee (May 18, 1789) to prepare and bring in a bill for the purpose. That committee never reported. On Jan. 11, 1790, another committee was appointed; and on the 18th Mr. Foster from this committee reported a bill, and it became law, March 1, 1790. The census was taken, and the returns were laid before Congress by the President, Oct. 27, 1791, showing that in the fifteen states (Vermont and Kentucky having been added to the original thirteen), and in the "Northwest" and "Southwest" Territory, there were 3,921,326 persons (excepting Indians not taxed), of whom 697,697 were slaves.

Centennial Exhibition. A "World's Fair" was held at Philadelphia for six months in 1876, the centennial year of the political existence of the North American Republic. The first suggestion for such a celebration was made several years before, and the city of Philadelphia, where the Continental Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776), and so laid the corner-stone of our national structure, was chosen as the most appropriate place for the exhibition. The Legislature of Pennsylvania asked Congress to take action in favor of a centennial celebration to be held in Philadelphia. A bill to that effect received the signature of President Grant and became a law March 3, 1871. It was at first proposed to make it a purely national affair—the occasion of a display of the products of the United States only. The bill provided for a national commission, to be composed of one commissioner and one alternate commissioner from every state and territory in the Union. These were appointed by the President. On March 24, 1872, such representatives, from twenty-four states, three territories, and the District of Columbia, assembled at Philadelphia and organized a "Centennial Commission," with General Joseph R. Hawley, President; Orestes Cleveland, John D. Creigh, Robert Lowrey, Thomas Caldwell, John McNeil, and William Gurney, Vice-Presidents; Alfred T. Goshorn, Director-general; John L. Campbell, Secretary; and John L. Shoemaker, Solicitor. On June 1, 1872, Congress passed an act providing for a Centennial Board of Finance. The members of this board were authorized to procure subscriptions to a capital stock not exceeding $10,000,000, in shares of $10 each. William Welsh, of Philadelphia, was chosen president of this board. William Sellers and John S. Barbour were appointed vice-presidents, and Frederick Freleigh treasurer. An official seal was adopted, simple in design. The words UNITED STATES CENTENNIAL COMMISSION were placed in concentric circles around the edge of the seal. In the centre was a view of the old State-house in Philadelphia; and beneath the building were the words (cast on the State-house bell ten years before the Revolution) "PROCLAIM LIBERTY THROUGHOUT THE LAND, AND TO ALL THE INHABITANTS THEREOF." It was soon decided to make the affair international, instead of national—an exhibition of the products of all nations. Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, was chosen as the place to hold the great fair. Suitable buildings were erected, five in number—namely, Main Exhibition Building, Memorial Hall (or Art Gallery), Machinery Hall, Horticultural Hall, and Agricultural Hall. The aggregate cost of these buildings was about $4,444,000. The space occupied by them was about forty-nine acres of ground, and their annexes covered twenty-six acres more, making a total of seventy-five acres. The main building alone covered over twenty-one acres. The national government issued invitations to the exhibitors of all foreign nations having diplomatic relations with the United States to participate in the exhibition by sending the products of their industries. There was a generous response, and thirty-three nations, besides that of the United States, were represented by products of their industry—namely, Argentine Republic, Austria, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Chili, China, Denmark, Egypt, France, Germany, Great Britain and Ireland, India and British colonies, Hawaiian Islands, Hungary, Italy, Japan, Liberia, Luxemburg Grand Duchy, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Orange Free State, Peru, Portugal, Rus-

CENTENNIAL BUILDINGS.

sia, Santo Domingo, Spain and Spanish colonies, Siam, Sweden, Switzerland, Tunis, Turkey, and Venezuela. A "Woman's Executive Committee" was formed, composed of Philadelphians, who raised money sufficient among the women of the Union for the erection of a building for the exhibition exclusively of women's work—sculpture, painting, engraving, lithography, literature, telegraphy, needlework of all kinds, etc.—at a cost of $30,000. The women of the republic also contributed to the general fund of the Centennial Commission more than $100,000. The building was called the "Women's Pavilion." In it were exhibited beautiful needlework from England and etchings from the hand of Queen Victoria. The great exhibition was opened May 10, 1876, and was closed Nov. 10, the same year. The opening ceremonies were grand and imposing. Representatives of many nations were present. Dom Pedro II., Emperor of Brazil (with his empress), was the only crowned head present. The American Congress and foreign diplomats were largely represented. The President of the United States (General Grant), in the presence of full one hundred thousand people, appeared upon the great platform erected for the occasion, accompanied by his wife, when the "Grand Centennial March," composed by Richard Wagner, the great German musical composer, was performed by the orchestra of Theodore Thomas. Then Bishop Simpson, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, uttered a comprehensive prayer, with praise and thanksgiving, and was followed by a thousand voices chanting an impressive "Centennial Hymn," composed by John Greenleaf Whittier, accompanied by a grand organ and the whole orchestra. When the chanting was ended the chairman of the "Centennial Board of Finance" formally presented the building to the "United States Centennial Commission." Then a cantata, composed by Sidney Lanier, of Georgia, was sung; when General Hawley, President of the Commission, in a short speech, presented the exhibition to the President of the United States, after which the latter made a brief response. The American flag was then unfurled over the Main Building, which gave notice to the multitude that the Centennial Exhibition was opened. The government of the United States, separate states, foreign governments, different industries, corporations, and individuals erected buildings on the grounds, making the whole number of structures 190. The exhibition was open for pay admissions 159 days, the pay-gates being closed on Sundays. The total number of cash admissions at fifty cents each was 7,250,620; and at twenty-five cents, 753,654. The number of free admissions was 1,906,692, making the grand total of admissions 9,910,966. The largest number of admissions in a full month was in October, when it reached 2,663,911. The largest number admitted in a single day—"Pennsylvania Day"—was 274,919. The total amount of cash receipts was $3,813,725.50. The exhibition closed, with imposing ceremonies, on Nov. 10, 1876.

Central America was discovered by Columbus, in his fourth voyage, in 1502. He discovered the bay of Honduras, where he landed; then proceeded along the main shore to Cape Gracias a Dios; and thence to the Isthmus of Darien, hoping, but in vain, to obtain a passage to the Pacific Ocean. At the isthmus he found a harbor, and, on account of its beauty and security, he called it Porto Bello. At another place in that country, on the Dureka River, he began a settlement with sixty-eight men; but they were driven off by a warlike tribe of Indians—the first repulse the Spaniards had ever met with. But for this occurrence, caused by the rapacity and cruelty of the Spaniards, Columbus might have had the honor of planting the first European colony on the continent of America.

Central America, FIRST ATTEMPT AT SETTLEMENT IN. In 1509 Alonzo de Ojeda, with three hundred soldiers, began a settlement on the east side of the Gulf of Darien. At the same time Diego Nicuessa, with six vessels and seven hundred and eighty men, began another settlement on the west side. Both were broken up by the fierce natives; and thus the Spaniards, for the first time, were taught to dread the dusky people of the New World. This was the first attempt of Europeans to make a permanent lodgment on the *continent* of America.

Cerro Gordo, BATTLE OF. Cerro Gordo is a difficult mountain pass, at the foot of the eastern slope of the Cordilleras, on the great national road from Vera Cruz to the city of Mexico. Santa Aña, by extraordinary efforts after the battle of Buena Vista (which see), had gathered a force of about 12,000 men from among the sierras of Orizaba, concentrated them upon the heights of Cerro Gordo, and strongly fortified the position. When the capture of Vera Cruz (which see) was completed, General Scott prepared to march upon the Mexican capital, along the national road. He left General Worth as temporary governor of Vera Cruz, with a sufficient garrison for the Castle of San Juan de Ulloa, and moved forward (April 8, 1847) with about 8000 men, the division of General D. A. Twiggs in advance. Twiggs approached Cerro Gordo on the 13th, and found Santa Aña in his path. Scott arrived the next morning and prepared to attack the stronghold. On the 17th he issued a remarkable general order, directing, in detail, the movements of the army in the coming battle. These directions followed, secured a victory. That order appeared almost prophetic. On the 18th the attack commenced, and very severe was the struggle. It was fought in a wild place in the mountains. On one side was a deep, dark river; on the other was a frowning declivity of rock a thousand feet in height, bristling with batteries; while above all arose the strong fortress of Cerro Gordo. The place had to be taken by storm; and the party chosen to do the work was composed of the regulars of Twiggs's division, led by Colonel Harney. Victory followed the efforts of skill and bravery, and strong Cerro Gordo fell. Velasquez, the commander of the fortress, was killed; and the Mexican standard was hauled down by Sergeant Thomas Henry. Santa Aña, with Almonte and other generals, and 8000 troops, escaped; the remainder were made prisoners. Santa Aña attempted to fly with his carriage, which contained a large amount of specie; but it was overturned, when, mounting a mule taken from the carriage harness, he fled to the mountains, leaving behind him his wooden leg—a substitute for the real one which was amputated after a wound received in the defence of Vera Cruz in 1837. In the vehicle were found his papers, clothing, and a pair of woman's satin slippers. The victory of the Americans was complete and decisive. The trophies were 3000 prisoners (who were paroled), 43 pieces of bronze artillery (cast in Seville, Spain), 5000 stand of arms (which were destroyed), and a large quantity of munitions of war. The fugitives were pursued towards Jalapa with vigor. In that battle the Americans lost 431 men. The loss of the Mexicans was about 1200 killed and wounded and 3000 prisoners. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

Cession of Territory by South Carolina. In 1787 the Legislature of South Carolina passed an act for ceding to the United States the western territory of that state towards the Mississippi.

Chain and Boom at Fort Montgomery. In 1776 the Committee of Safety of New York caused a chain and boom, eighteen hundred feet in length, of about half the strength of one which was afterwards placed at West Point, to be stretched across the Hudson between Anthony's Nose, on the eastern side, and Fort Montgomery, on the western shore. Twice the river currents swept away these obstructions; but a third one, constructed in the spring of 1777, endured until the capture of forts Clinton and Montgomery, in the autumn of that year, by the British, who destroyed it, thus permitting British vessels to pass up the Hudson bearing the marauders who burned Kingston. (See *Kingston, Burning of.*) Most of the obstacles placed in the Hudson were put there under the superintendence of Captain Thomas Machin.

Chamberlain, Joshua Lawrence, LL.D., governor of Maine in 1866–70, was born at Bangor, Sept. 8, 1828, and graduated at Bowdoin College in 1852. He had attended a military academy in his boyhood. He was a professor in his *alma mater* from 1855 to 1862, when he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of a Maine regiment, and rose to brigadier-general in the summer of 1864. He was severely wounded in the siege of Petersburg, and again at Quaker Road in March, 1865. In the final operations ending in Lee's surrender he commanded a division of the Fifth Corps. General Chamberlain was a most active and efficient officer, and was in twenty-four pitched battles. He was six times wounded—three times severely. He was designated to receive the formal surrender of the weapons and colors of Lee's army. He resumed his professional duties in the college in 1865; was elected governor of Maine in 1866; and in 1871 was chosen president of Bowdoin College.

Chambly, Fort, Capture of (1775). It was supposed by General Carleton that the fort at Chambly, twelve miles below St. John, at the rapids of the Sorel, the outlet of Lake Champlain, could not be reached by the republicans so long as the British held the post above and kept only a feeble garrison there. Informed of this by Canadian scouts, Montgomery, besieging St. John, sent Colonel Bedel, of New Hampshire, with troops to capture the post. He was assisted by Majors Brown and Livingston. The attack was planned by Canadians familiar with the place. Artillery was placed in batteaux, and, during a dark night, was conveyed past the fort at St. John to the head of Chambly Rapids, where the guns were mounted and taken to the place of attack. The garrison surrendered after making slight resistance. The spoils were a large quantity of provisions and military stores; also the colors of the Seventh Regiment of British regulars, which were sent to the Continental Congress, and were the first trophies of war received by that body. This disaster hastened the downfall of St. John. (See *St. John, Siege of.*)

FORT AT CHAMBLY.

Champion Hills, Battle of. Grant, at Jackson (which see), hearing of the arrival of Johnston and his order for Pemberton to strike his rear, perceived the reason for the sudden evacuation of their post by the troops at the capital. No doubt they had been sent to join Pemberton that the latter might crush Grant by the weight of superior numbers. The latter comprehended his peril, and instantly took measures to meet Pemberton before such junction could take place. He ordered a concentration of his forces at Edwards's Station, two miles from the railway bridge over the Big Black River. While Sherman tarried in Jackson long enough to destroy the railways, military factories, arsenal, bridges, cotton factories, stores, and other public property, the remainder of the army turned their faces towards Vicksburg. Pemberton was at or near Edwards's Station, with about 25,000 troops and ten batteries of artillery. Blair moved towards the station, followed by McClernand and Osterhaus; while McPherson, on another road, kept up communication with McClernaud. Pemberton had advanced to Champion Hills, when a note from Johnston caused him to send his trains back to the Big Black River; and he was about to follow with his troops, when Grant, close upon him, compelled him to remain and fight (May 16, 1863). General Hovey's division now held the advance directly in front of Pemberton. At eleven o'clock a battle began, Hovey's division bearing the brunt, and, after a severe contest of an hour and a half, his infantry were compelled to fall back half a mile to the position of his artillery. Reinforced, he renewed the battle with great energy. Finally Pemberton's left began to bend under Logan's severe pressure, and, at five o'clock, gave way. The rest of his army became so confused and disheartened that they began to fly. Seeing this, Pemberton ordered his whole army to retreat towards the Big Black River; when Grant ordered the fresh brigades of Osterhaus and Carr to follow with all speed, and cross the river, if possible. In the retreat Pemberton lost many of his troops, made prisoners. This battle was fought mainly by Hovey's division of McClernand's corps and Logan's and Quinby's divisions (the latter commanded by Crocker) of McPherson's corps. The National loss was 2457, of whom 426 were killed. The loss of the Confederates was estimated to have been quite equal to that of the Nationals in killed and wounded, besides almost 2000 prisoners, 18 guns, and a large quantity of small-arms. Among the killed was General Tilghman, who was captured at Fort Henry (which see) the year before.

SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN.

Champlain, Samuel de, a French navigator, was born at Brouage, France, in 1567; died Dec. 25, 1635. His family had many fishermen and mariners, and he was carefully educated for a navigator. In early life he was in the cavalry of Brittany, and was with his uncle, pilot-general of the fleets of Spain, when that officer conducted back to that country the troops who had served in France. In 1599 he commanded a vessel of the Spanish fleet that sailed to Mexico, and he drew up a faithful account of the voyage. On his return he received a pension from Henry IV. of France; and he was induced by M. de Chastes, Governor of Dieppe, to explore and prepare the way for a French colony in America. Chastes had received a charter from the king to found settlements in New France (which see), and the monarch commissioned Champlain lieutenant-general of Canada. With this authority, he sailed from Honfleur on the 5th of March, 1603, with a single vessel, commanded by Pont-Grevé, a skilful navigator. In May they ascended the St. Lawrence and landed near the site of Quebec, from which place Pont-Grevé and five men ascended the river in a canoe to La Chine Rapids, above Montreal. The Indians at Stadacona yet remembered Cartier's perfidy (see *Cartier*), but were placable. Champlain, on his return to France in the autumn, found Chastes dead and his concessions transferred by the king to Pierre de Gast, the Sieur de Monts, a wealthy Huguenot, who had received the commission of viceroy of New France. (See *De Monts.*) The latter made a new arrangement with Champlain, and in March, 1604, he sailed with the navigator from France with four vessels. They landed in Nova Scotia, and remained there some time planting a settlement and exploring the neighboring regions; and when De Monts returned to France, he left Champlain to explore the New England coast. (See *New England.*) He went as far south as Cape Cod, and in 1607 returned to France. Having suggested to De Monts that a point on the St. Lawrence would be a more eligible site for the seat of the projected new empire, Champlain was sent to the river in 1608 with Pont-Grevé, and, at Stadacona, founded Quebec, the Indian name for "the narrows," and pronounced *Kebec.* There the colonists built cabins and prepared to plant. In 1609 Champlain, who had made the Montagnais Indians on the St. Lawrence his friends, marched with them against their enemies, the Iroquois. (See *Iroquois Confederacy.*) They were joined by a party of Hurons and Algonquins (see *Algonquins*), and ascended the Sorel to the Chambly Rapids, whence Champlain proceeded in a canoe and discovered a great lake, and gave it his own name. On its borders he fought and defeated the Iroquois, who fled in terror before the fire of his arquebuses. He returned to France, but came back in 1610, and the same year was wounded by an arrow in a fight with the Iroquois. Again returning to France, he, at the age of forty-four years, married a girl of twelve; and in 1612 he went back to Canada, with the title and powers of lieutenant-governor, under the Prince of Condé, who had succeeded De Soissons, the successor of De Monts, as viceroy. He explored the Ottawa River and lakes Huron and Ontario; made good arrangements for carrying on the fur-trade with the Indians; attacked the Onondagas; and, returning to France, organized a fur-company in 1616. He took back with him to Canada some Recollet priests to minister to the colonists and the pagans. The colony languished until 1620, when a more energetic viceroy gave it a start. Champlain got permission to fortify it, and he returned with the title and power of governor, taking with him his child-wife. Jesuit priests were sent to Canada as missionaries (see *Jesuits in America*), and Champlain worked energetically for the cause of religion and the expansion of French dominion. In 1628 Sir David Kertk appeared with an English fleet before Quebec and demanded its surrender. Champlain's bold refusal made Kertk retire, but on his way down the St. Lawrence he captured the French supply-ships. This produced great distress in Quebec; and in July of next year Champlain was compelled to surrender to Kertk's brothers, and was carried to England. By a treaty in 1632, Canada was restored to the French. Champlain was reinstated as governor, and sailed for the St. Lawrence in 1633. He did not long survive, but worked energetically and faithfully until the last. His wife survived him. She was a Protestant when she was married, but died an Ursuline nun. Champlain's zeal for the propagation of Christianity was intense. A college was established at Quebec, in which the children of the savages were taught and trained in the habits of civilization. In 1603 Champlain published an account of his first voyage, and, in 1613 and 1619, a continuation of his narrative. In 1632 they were included in a work of his then published, which comprised a history of New France from the time of Verrazani's discoveries to 1631, entitled *Les Voyages à la Nouvelle France Occidentale et Canada.* In 1870 a complete collection of his works, including his voyage to Mexico, with fac-similes of his maps, was published in Quebec, edited by Abbés Laverdière and Casgrain.

Champlain's Expedition to the Onondagas (1615). Champlain had followed Father Le Caron and his party to Lake Huron (see *First French Missionary in America*), to which he gave the name of Mer Douce. Returning across the great forests, he sailed with several hundred canoes down a stream into the Bay of Quinté, and entered the broad Lake Ontario, which Champlain named Lac St. Louis. With a considerable war party, chiefly Hurons, he crossed the lake into the country of the Iroquois, in (present) New York. Hiding their canoes in the forest, they pressed onward to the Indian post on the shore of Onondaga Lake. It was at the time of the maize harvest, and the Iroquois were attacked in the fields. They retired to their town, which was fortified with four rows of palisades. On the inside of these were galleries furnished with stones and other missiles, and a supply of water to extinguish a fire if kindled beneath these wooden walls. The Hurons were rather insubordinate, and the attack was ineffectual. Champlain had constructed a wooden tower, which was dragged near the palisades, and from the top of which his marksmen swept the galleries filled with naked Iroquois. But he could not control the great body of the Hurons, and, in their furious and tumultuous assault upon the palisades, they were thrown back in confusion, and could not be induced to repeat the onset, but resolved to retreat. Champlain, wounded in the leg, was compelled to acquiesce, and he made his way back to Quebec (1616), after a year's absence.—See *O. H. Marshall's Monograph on this topic.*

Champlin, STEPHEN, United States Navy, was born at South Kingston, R. I., Nov. 17, 1789; died at Buffalo, N. Y., Feb. 20, 1870. He went to sea when sixteen years old, and commanded a ship at twenty-two. In May, 1812, he was appointed sailing-master in the navy, and was first in command of a gunboat under Perry, at Newport, R. I., and was in service on Lake Ontario in the attacks on Little York (Toronto) and Fort George, in 1813. He joined Perry on Lake Erie, and commanded the sloop-of-war *Scorpion* in the battle on Sept. 10, 1813, firing the first and last gun in that action. He was the last surviving officer of that engagement. In the following spring, while blockading Mackinaw with the *Tigress*, he was attacked in the night by an overwhelming force, severely wounded, and made prisoner. His wound troubled him until his death, and he was disabled for any active service forever afterwards. From 1834 he was a resident of Buffalo.

Chancellorsville, BATTLE OF. Early in April, Hooker, in command of the Army of the Potomac, became impatient, and resolved to put it in motion towards Richmond, notwithstanding his ranks were not full. Cavalry under Stoneman were sent to destroy railways in Lee's rear, but were foiled by the high water in the streams. After a pause, Hooker determined to attempt to turn Lee's flank, and, for that purpose, sent ten thousand mounted men to raid in his rear. Then he moved thirty-six thousand of the troops of his right wing across the Rappahannock, with orders to halt and intrench at Chancellorsville, between the Confederate army near Fredericksburg and Richmond. This movement was so masked by a demonstration on Lee's front by Hooker's left wing, under General Sedgwick, that the right was well advanced before Lee was aware of his peril. These troops reached Chancellorsville, in a region known as "The Wilderness," on the evening of April 30, 1863, when Hooker expected to see Lee, conscious of danger, fly towards Richmond. He did no such thing, but proceeded to strike the National army a heavy blow, for the twofold purpose of seizing the communications between the two parts of that army and compelling its commander to fight at a disadvantage, with only a part of his troops in hand. Hooker had made his headquarters in the spacious brick house of Mr. Chancellor, and sent out Pleasanton's cavalry to reconnoitre. A part of these encountered the Confederate cavalry, under Stuart, and were defeated. Lee had called "Stonewall" Jackson's large force to come up when he perceived Sedgwick's movements. Lee left General Early with 9000 men and 30 cannons to hold his fortified position at Fredericksburg against Sedgwick, and, at a little past midnight (May 1, 1863), he put Jackson's column in motion towards Chancellorsville. It joined another force under General Anderson at eight o'clock in the morning, and he, in person, led the Confederates to attack the Nationals. Hooker had also disposed the latter in battle order. Aware of the peril of fighting with the Wilderness at his back, he had so disposed his army as to fight in the open country, with a communication open with the Rappahannock towards Fredericksburg. At eleven o'clock, the divisions of Griffin and Humphreys, of Meade's corps, pushed out to the left, in the direction of Banks's Ford, while Sykes's division of the same corps, supported by Hancock's division, and forming the centre column, moved along a turnpike. Slocum's entire corps, with Howard's, and its batteries, massed in its rear, comprising the right column, marched along a plank road. The battle was begun about a mile in advance of the National works at Chancellorsville, by the van of the centre column and Confederate cavalry. Sykes brought up his entire column, with artillery, and, after a severe struggle with McLaws, he gained an advantageous position, at noon, on one of the ridges back of Fredericksburg. Banks's Ford, which Lee had strenuously sought to cover, was now virtually in possession of the Nationals, and the distance between Sedgwick, opposite Fredericksburg, and the army at Chancellorsville was shortened at least twelve miles. Meanwhile, Slocum and Jackson had met and struggled fiercely on the plank road. Perceiving Jackson endeavoring to flank Slocum, and his strong column overlapping Sykes's flank, Hooker, fearing his army might be beaten in detail before he could successfully resist the furious onslaught of Jackson, ordered its withdrawal behind his works at Chancellorsville, the Confederates following close in the rear of the retreating troops. So ended the movements of the day. Hooker's position was a strong one. The National line extended from the Rappahannock to the Wilderness church, two miles west of Chancellorsville. Meade's corps, with Couch's, formed his left; Slocum's, and a division of Sickles's, his centre, and Howard's his right, with Pleasanton's cavalry near. Lee's forces had the Virginia cavalry of Owen and Wickham on the right, and Stuart's and a part of Fitzhugh Lee's on the left. McLaws's forces occupied the bridge on the east of the Big Meadow Swamp, and Anderson's continued the line to the left of McLaws. Such was the general disposition of the opposing armies on the morning of May 2d. Lee was unwilling to risk a direct attack on Hooker, and Jackson advised a secret flank movement with his entire corps, so as to fall on Hooker's rear. Lee hesitated, but so much did he lean on Jackson as adviser and executor, that he consented. With twenty-five thousand men Jackson made the perilous movement, marching swiftly and steadily through the thick woods, with Stuart's cavalry between his forces and those of the Nationals. But the movement was early discovered; the Nationals, however, believing it to be a retreat of the Confederates towards Richmond. Sickles pushed forward Birney's division to reconnoitre, followed by two brigades of Howard's corps. Birney charged upon the passing column, and captured a Georgia regiment, five hundred strong, but was checked by Confederate artillery. The Nationals now held the road over which Jackson was moving. Disposition was made to pursue the supposed fugitives, when Jackson made a quick and startling movement towards Chancellorsville, concealed by the thick woods, at six o'clock in the evening, suddenly burst from the thickets with his whole force, like an unexpected and terrible tornado, and fell with full force upon Howard's corps (eleventh), with tremendous yells, just as they were preparing for supper and repose. Devens's division, on the extreme right, received the first blow, and, almost instantly, the surprised troops, panic stricken, fled to the rear, communicating their emotions of alarm to the other divisions of the corps. The Confederates captured men and guns and a commanding position, while the fugitives, in evident confusion, rushed towards Chancellorsville, upon the position of General Schurz, whose division had already retreated. The tide of affrighted men rolled back upon General Steinwehr. While the divisions of Devens and Schurz were re-forming, Steinwehr quickly changed front, threw his men behind some works, rallied some of Schurz's men, and checked the pursuit for a brief space. But the overwhelming number of the Confederates speedily captured the works. These disasters on the right were partially relieved by Hooker, who sent forward troops at the double-quick, under Generals Berry and French, and also a courier to apprise Sickles, who had pushed some distance beyond the National lines, of the disaster to the eleventh corps and his own peril. He was directed to fall back and attack Jackson's left flank. He was in a critical situation, but Pleasanton saved him by a quick and skilful movement, greatly assisting in checking the pursuit. This was done long enough for Pleasanton to bring his own horse-artillery and more than twenty of Sickles's guns to bear upon the Confederates, and to pour into their ranks a destructive storm of grape and canister shot. Generals Warren and Sickles soon came to Pleasanton's assistance, when there was a severe struggle for the possession of cannons. Meanwhile, Lee was making a strong artillery attack upon Hooker's left and centre. Soon a great misfortune befell the Confederate commander, in the loss of "Stonewall" Jackson, the strong right arm of his power. Jackson had sent for Hill, and was anxious to follow up the advantage he had gained, by extending his lines to the left and cutting off Hooker's communication with the United States Ford. While waiting for Hill, he pushed forward with his staff, on a personal reconnoissance, and, when returning, in the gloom of evening, his men, mistaking them for National cavalry, fired upon them and mortally wounded the great leader. No more fighting occurred in that part of the field. Birney's division drove back the Confederates at midnight, recovered some lost ground, and brought back some abandoned guns and caissons. During the night a new line of intrenchments was thrown up by the Nationals; but Hooker's forces were in a very perilous position on Sunday morning, May 3d. When he heard of the movement of Jackson on Saturday morning, he had called from Sedgwick Reynolds's corps, 20,000 strong, and it arrived the same evening. Hooker's force was now 60,000 strong, and Lee's 40,000. The former ordered Sedgwick to cross the river and seize and hold Fredericksburg and the heights behind it, and then, pushing along the roads leading to Chancellorsville, crush every impediment and join the main army. Each army made disposition for a battle on Sunday morning. Stuart advanced to the attack with Lee's left wing, and when he came in sight of the Nationals he shouted, "Charge, and remember Jackson!" With thirty pieces of artillery presently in position on an elevation, his men made a desperate charge under cover of their fire, and were soon struggling with Sickles's corps and four other divisions. These were pushed back, and a fearful battle ensued, the tide of success ebbing and flowing for more than an hour. During this struggle Hooker had been prostrated, and Couch took command of the army. Almost the whole National army became engaged in the battle, at different points, excepting the troops under Meade and Reynolds. Couch fell back towards the Rappahannock, and, at noon, Hooker, having recovered, resumed chief command. Lee's army was now united, but Hooker's was divided. Sedgwick had seriously menaced Lee's flank, but had not joined Hooker. After a hard conflict and the loss of one thousand men, Sedgwick had captured the Confederate works on the heights back of Fredericksburg, and sent Early, their defender, flying southward with his shattered columns. Intelligence of these events made Lee extremely cautious. Sedgwick, leaving Gibbon in command at Fredericksburg, marched for Chancellorsville, when Lee was compelled to divide his army to meet this new peril. He sent McLaws with four brigades to meet Sedgwick. At Salem church they had a sanguinary conflict. The Confederates won, and the losses of Sedgwick, added to those sustained in the morning, amounted to about five thousand men. Hooker, at the same time, seemed paralyzed in his new position, for his army appeared being beaten in detail. On the following morning, perceiving that Hooker's army had been much strengthened, Lee thought it necessary to drive Sedgwick across the Rappahannock before again attacking the main body. Early was sent to retake the Heights of Fredericksburg, and he cut Sedgwick off from the city. Early was reinforced by Anderson, by which Sedgwick was enclosed on three sides. At six o'clock in the evening the Confederates at-

RUINS OF CHANCELLORSVILLE.

tacked him. His forces gave way and retreated to Banks's Ford, and before morning the remains of Sedgwick's corps had crossed the Rappahannock over pontoon bridges. Gibbon also withdrew from Fredericksburg to Falmouth that night, and, on Tuesday, Lee had only Hooker to contend with. He concentrated his forces to strike Hooker a crushing blow before night, but a heavy rain-storm prevented. Hooker prepared to retreat, and did so on the night of May 5th and morning of the 6th, crossing the Potomac and returning to the old quarters of the army opposite Fredericksburg. The losses of each army had been very heavy. That of the Confederates was reported at 12,277, including 2000 prisoners, and that of the Nationals was 17,197, including about 5000 prisoners. The latter also lost thirteen heavy guns, about 20,000 small-arms, seventeen colors, and a large amount of ammunition. The Union Generals Berry and Whipple were killed.

Chancery Jurisdiction. In all the crown colonies, excepting New Hampshire, the chancery court had been introduced, in spite of the colonists, who dreaded its prolix proceedings and heavy fees. Wherever it had been introduced, it was retained, in the state governments, after the Revolution. In New Jersey and South Carolina the governor was made chancellor, as in colonial times. In New York and Maryland a separate officer was appointed with that title. In Virginia there were several distinct chancellors. In North Carolina and Georgia the administration both of law and equity was intrusted to the same tribunals. In Pennsylvania a limited chancery power was conferred upon the Supreme Court. In Connecticut the Assembly vested the judicial courts with chancery powers in smaller cases, reserving to itself the decision in matters of more importance. In New England there was such a strong prejudice against chancery practice that for many years there was a restriction to the system of common law remedies.

Chandler, John, was born at Monmouth, Mass., in 1760; died at Augusta, Me., Sept. 25, 1841. His pursuit was that of blacksmith, and he became wealthy. With much native talent, he rose to the position of councillor and senator (1803–5); member of Congress (1805–8); and, in July, 1812, was commissioned a brigadier-general. Wounded and made prisoner in the battle at Stony Creek, in Canada (which see), he was soon afterwards exchanged. From 1820 to 1829, he was United States Senator from Maine—one of the first appointed from that new state. From 1829 to 1837 he was collector of the port of Portland. He became a major-general of militia, and held several civil local offices.

Channing, William Ellery, an eminent divine, was born in Newport, R. I., April 7, 1780; died at Bennington, Vt., Oct. 2, 1842. He graduated at Harvard in 1798 with highest honors; was a teacher in a private family in Richmond, Va., for a year afterwards; and, returning in feeble health in 1802, he studied theology, and became pastor of the Federal Street Church in Boston, June 1, 1803. All through his laborious life he suffered from ill-health. In 1822 he sought physical improvement by a voyage to Europe, and in 1830 he went to St. Croix, W. I., for the same purpose. With a colleague he occasionally officiated in the pulpit until 1840, when he resigned. In August, 1842, he delivered his last public address at Lenox, Mass., in commemoration of the abolition of slavery in the West Indies. Mr. Channing, with the purest Christian spirit, did more than any man of his time towards disenthralling the human mind from the bonds of theological systems as inflexible as cast-iron. Benevolence and love for his fellow-men appear in all his utterances. His writings preach as with a living tongue.

WILLIAM ELLERY CHANNING.

Chantilly, Battle of. On the morning after the second battle at Bull's Run (which see), Pope was joined at Centreville by the corps of Franklin and Sumner. The next day (Sept. 1, 1862), Lee, not disposed to make a direct attack upon the Nationals, sent Jackson on another flanking movement, the latter taking with him his own and Ewell's division. With instructions to assail and turn Pope's right, he crossed Bull's Run at Sudley Ford, and, after a while, turning to the right, turned down the Little River pike, and marched towards Fairfax Court-house. Pope had prepared to meet this movement. Heintzelman and Hooker were ordered to different points, and just before sunset Reno met Jackson's advance (Ewell and Hill) near Chantilly. A cold and drenching rain was falling, but it did not prevent an immediate engagement. Very soon McDowell, Hooker, and Kearney came to Reno's assistance. A very severe battle raged for some time, when General Isaac J. Stevens (see *Port Royal Ferry*), leading Reno's second division in person, was shot dead. His command fell back in disorder. Seeing this, General Kearney advanced with his division and renewed the action, sending Birney's brigade to the front. A furious thunder-storm was then raging, which made the use of ammunition very difficult. Unheeding this, Kearney brought forward a battery, and planted it in position himself.

Then, perceiving a gap caused by the retirement of Stevens's men, he pushed forward to reconnoitre, and was shot dead a little within the Confederate lines, just at sunset, and the command of his division devolved on Birney, who instantly made a bayonet charge with his own brigade of New York troops, led by Colonel Eagan. The Confederates were pushed back some distance. Birney held the field that night, and the broken and demoralized army was withdrawn within the lines at Washington the next day. After the battle at Chantilly, the Army of Virginia was merged into the Army of the Potomac, and General Pope returned to service in the west. The loss of Pope's army, from Cedar Mountain (which see) to Chantilly, in killed, wounded, prisoners, and missing, was estimated at 30,000. Lee's losses during the same time amounted to about 15,000. He claimed to have taken 7000 prisoners, with 2000 sick and wounded, thirty pieces of artillery, and 20,000 small-arms. Of the 91,000 veteran troops from the Peninsula, lying near, Pope reported that only 20,500 men had joined him in confronting Lee.

Chapultepec, BATTLE OF. The city of Mexico stands on a slight swell of ground, near the centre of an irregular basin, and encircled by a broad and deep navigable canal. The approaches to the city are over elevated causeways, flanked by ditches. From these the capital is entered by arched gateways; and these, when the victorious Americans approached the city (August, 1847), were strongly fortified. When El Molino del Rey and Casa de Mata (which see) had been captured (Sept. 8, 1847), the Castle of Chapultepec alone remained as a defence for the city — this and its outworks. The hill, steep and rocky, rises one hundred and fifty feet above the surrounding country. The castle was built of heavy stone masonry. The whole fortress was nine hundred feet in length, and the *terre-plein* and main buildings six hundred feet. The castle was about ten feet in height, and presented a splendid specimen of military architecture. A dome, rising about twenty feet above the walls, gave it a grand appearance. Two strongly built walls surrounded the whole structure, ten feet apart and twelve or fifteen feet high. The works were thoroughly armed, and the garrison, among whom were some expert French gunners, was commanded by General Bravo. The whole hill was spotted with forts and outworks. To carry this strong post with the least loss of men, Scott determined to batter it with heavy cannons. Accordingly, on the night of Sept. 11, four batteries of heavy cannons were erected on a hill between Tucabaya and Chapultepec, commanded respectively by Captains Drew, Haynes, and Brooks, and Lieutenant Stone. They were placed in position by the engineer officers Huger and Lee (the latter afterwards commander-in-chief of the Confederate army). On the morning of the 12th these batteries opened fire, every ball crashing through the castle and every shell tearing up the ramparts. The fire of the Mexicans was not less severe, and this duel of great guns was kept up all day. The next morning (13th) troops moved to assail the works, at their weakest point, in two columns, one led by General Pillow and the other by General Quitman. Pillow marched to assail the works on the west side, while Quitman made a demonstration on the easterly part. Both columns were preceded by a strong party—that of Pillow by two hundred and fifty of Worth's division, commanded by Captain McKenzie; and that of Quitman by the same number, commanded by Captain Carey. Each storming party was furnished with scaling-ladders. While the troops were advancing the American batteries kept up a continuous fire over their heads upon the works to prevent reinforcements reaching the Mexicans. Pillow's column bore the brunt of the battle. It first carried a redoubt, and drove the Mexicans from shelter to shelter. At length the ditch and wall of the main work were reached; the scaling-ladders and fascines were brought up and planted by the storming parties; and the work was soon taken and the American flag unfurled over the ramparts amid prolonged shouts. Meanwhile Quitman's column had moved along a causeway, captured two batteries, and joined Pillow's column in time to share in the work of accomplishing a final victory. Together they took the strong Castle of Chapultepec and scattered its defenders in every direction. It was literally torn in pieces; and within, a crowd of prisoners of all colors were seized, among them fifty general officers. There were also one hundred cadets of the Military College, the latter "pretty little boys," wrote an American officer, "from ten to sixteen years of age." Several of their little companions had been killed, "fighting like demons." The fugitives fled to the city, along an aqueduct, pursued by General Quitman to the very gates, engaged all the way in a running fight, which was sometimes severe.

Character of the Treaty of Peace with Great Britain (1782). Bancroft says (x. 591): "The treaty was not a compromise, nor a compact imposed by force, but a free and perfect solution and perpetual settlement of all that had been called in question. By doing an act of justice to her former colonies, England rescued her own liberties at home from imminent danger, and opened the way for their slow but certain development."

Charles I. of England, son of James I., was born at Dunfermline, Fifeshire, Scotland, Nov. 19, 1600; beheaded in London, Jan. 30, 1649. The death of his elder brother, Henry, in 1612, made him heir apparent to the throne, which he ascended as king in 1625. He sought the hand of the infanta of Spain, but finally married (1625) Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France. She was a Roman Catholic, and had been procured for Charles by the infamous Duke of Buckingham, whose influence over the young king produced disasters to England and to the monarch himself. Charles was naturally a good man, but his education, especially concerning the doctrine of the divine right of kings and the sanctity of the royal prerogative, led to an outbreak in England, which cost him his life. Civil war began in 1641, and ended with his execution at the beginning of 1649. His reign was at first succeeded by the rule of the "Long Parliament," and then by Cromwell—a half-monarch, called the "Protector." After various vicissitudes during the civil war, he was captured, and imprisoned in Carisbrooke Castle, in the Isle of Wight, from whence he was taken to London at the close of 1648. He was brought to trial before a special high court in Westminster Hall on Jan. 20, 1649, and on the 27th was condemned to death. He was beheaded on a scaffold in front of the banqueting-house at Whitehall on the 30th. Charles had eight children by his queen, Henrietta, six of whom survived him. His family was driven into exile; but a little more than eleven years after his death his eldest son, Charles, ascended the throne as King of Great Britain. The son held much more intimate relations, as monarch, with the English-American colonies than the father.

CHARLES II.*

Charles II., son and successor of Charles I. of England, who was beheaded in 1649. His mother was Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France, and sister of the then reigning king of that realm. As the fortunes of his father waned, his mother returned to France, where he joined her; and, at the Hague, he heard of the death of his parent by the axe, when he assumed the title of king, and was proclaimed such at Edinburgh, Feb. 3, 1649. He was crowned at Scone, Scotland, Jan. 1, 1651. After an unsuccessful warfare with Cromwell for the throne, he fled to Paris; and finally he became a resident of Breda, in Belgium, whence he was called to England by a vote of Parliament, and restored to the throne of his father, May 8, 1660. He was a very profligate monarch—indolent, amiable, and unscrupulous. He misgoverned England twenty-five years in an arbitrary manner, and disgraced the nation. He became a Roman Catholic, although professing to be a Protestant; and, when dying from a stroke of apoplexy (Feb. 6, 1685), he confessed to a Roman Catholic priest, and received extreme unction at his hands. The throne descended to his brother James, an avowed Roman Catholic. (See *James II.*)

Charles R

Charles II. AND HIS RAPACIOUS COURTIERS. In March, 1663, Charles II. granted to several of his courtiers the vast domain of the Carolinas in America. (See *Grantees of North Carolina.*) They were men, most of them past middle life in years, and possessed of the "easy virtues" which distinguished the reign of that profligate monarch. They begged the domain under pretence of a "pious zeal for the propagation of the Gospel among the heathen," while their real object was to rob the "heathen" of these valuable lands, and to accumulate riches and honors for themselves. It is said that when these petitioners appeared before Charles in the gardens at Hampton Court, and presented their memorial so full of pious pretensions, the monarch, after looking each man in the face for a moment, with a merry twinkle in his eyes, burst into loud laughter, in which his audience joined involuntarily. Then taking up a little shaggy spaniel, with large meek eyes, and holding it at arm's-length before them, he said, "Good friends, here is a model of piety and sincerity which it might be wholesome for you to copy." Then, tossing the little pet to Clarendon, he said, "There, Hyde, is a worthy prelate; make him archbishop of the domain I shall give you." With grim satire, Charles introduced into the preamble of their charter that the petitioners, "excited with a laudable and pious zeal for the propagation of the Gospel, have begged a certain country in the parts of America not yet cultivated and planted, and only inhabited by some barbarous people, who have no knowledge of God."

Charles II., PROCLAMATION OF, AS KING, in Maryland. When news reached Maryland that Charles I. had been beheaded, and his son Charles proclaimed king in Scotland, Green, acting governor of Maryland, caused him to be proclaimed king by that colony. He was also so proclaimed in Virginia. This act perplexed the time-server Lord Baltimore. He was evidently seconded by the young heir to England's throne, who, disregarding the proprietary rights of his lordship, appointed Sir William Davenant, then an exile in France, where the young monarch soon sought shelter.

Charleston. (See *Siege of Charleston*, 1780.)

Charleston, ATTEMPT TO CAPTURE (1863). Although Charleston had become a comparatively unimportant point in the grand theatre of war at the beginning of 1863, its possession was coveted by the National government because of the salutary moral effect which such a conquest would produce. A strong effort to accomplish that end was made in the spring of 1863. On April 6 Admiral Dupont crossed Charleston bar with nine "monitors," or turreted iron vessels, leaving five gunboats outside as a reserve, and proceeded to attack Fort Sumter—the most formidable object in the way to the city. At the same time, a land force near at hand, four thousand strong, under General Truman Seymour, took a masked position on Folly Island, ready to co-operate, if necessary. The military works that defended Charleston were numerous and formidable. Between forts Sumter and Moultrie the sea was strewn with torpedoes, and there were other formidable obstructions. On Morris Island, abreast of Fort Sumter, was a strong work, called Fort Wagner. Dupont's squadron lay quietly within the bar until noon of April 7, when it advanced directly upon Sumter, intending not to reply to any attack from Fort Wagner. The *Weehawken* led. Dupont was ignorant of the torpedoes, but the discovery of these soon explained the ominous silence of Sumter and Fort Wagner as he advanced. Suddenly, when the *Weehawken* had become entangled in a network of cables, the barbette guns of Sumter opened upon her with plunging shot. Then the other "monsters of the deep" commanded by Dupont came forward and delivered tremendous discharges of heavy metal on Sumter, and at the same time that fortress, Fort Wagner, and other batteries, with an aggregate of nearly three hundred guns, poured heavy shot and shell upon the squadron—then within the focus of their concentric fire—at the rate of one hundred and sixty a minute. A greater portion of these missiles glanced off harmlessly from the mailed "monitors." The weaker *Keokuk* was nearly destroyed; all of the other vessels were more or less injured. The flag-ship was in peril, and Fort Sumter was but slightly hurt, when Dupont, after a terrible fight of forty minutes, signalled the squadron to withdraw. In that time it was estimated the Confederates fired thirty-five hundred shells and shots. The attack was a failure, but not a disaster. Dupont lost but a few men, and only one vessel. It was now seen that a land force on Morris Island to keep Fort Wagner employed was necessary to secure a successful attack on Sumter. After this attack, Dupont watched the Confederates on Morris Island, and did not allow them to erect any more works on it. General Quincy A. Gillmore was assigned to the command of the Department of the South June 2, 1863. The government determined to renew the attack on Fort Sumter by a land and naval force. Gillmore was at the head of eighteen thousand men, with a generous supply of great-guns, small-arms, and ordnance stores. He determined to seize Morris Island preliminary to an attack on Sumter and Charleston. That island and the military works in his possession, he might batter down Fort Sumter from Fort Wagner, with the aid of the navy, and lay Charleston in ashes by firing shells, if it should not be surrendered. As Dupont did not approve this plan, Admiral Dahlgren took his place in July. Gillmore had batteries constructed, under the direction of General Vogdes, on the northern end of Folly Island. This work was completely masked by a pine forest. When all was in readiness, General Alfred H. Terry was sent, with nearly four thousand troops, up the Stono River, to make a demonstration against James Island to mask Gillmore's real intentions, and Colonel T. W. Higginson, with some negro troops, went up the Edisto to cut the railway communication between Charleston and Savannah. Thirty hours after Terry's departure General George C. Strong silently embarked two thousand men in small boats, and crossed over to Morris Island before dawn (July 13), unsuspected by the Confederates. At that hour Vogdes's masked batteries opened a tremendous cannonade, and Dahlgren's four "monitors," at the same time, opened a cross-fire upon the Confederates, who saw the amazing apparition of a strong National force ready to attack them. After a sharp battle, Strong gained possession of the powerful Confederate works on the southern end of Morris Island, with eleven guns. The occupants were driven away, and took shelter in Fort Wagner, the garrison of which had been kept quiet by Dahlgren's guns. Meanwhile, Terry had fought and repulsed Confederate assailants at Secessionville, on James Island, in which he lost about one hundred men, and his adversary two hundred. He then hastened to Morris Island to join in the attack on Fort Wagner. Five batteries were speedily erected across the island to confront Wagner, and at noon (July 13) Gillmore opened a bombardment of that fort. Dahlgren, at the same time, moved his "monitors" nearer to it, and poured a continuous stream of shells upon it. From noon until sunset one hundred guns were continually assailing the fort, which replied with only two guns at long intervals. When night fell, a tremendous thunder-storm swept over the harbor and the islands, when General Strong, with a heavy storming party, moved upon the fort. It was composed of a Massachusetts regiment of colored troops, under Colonel R. G. Shaw, and one regiment each from Connecticut, New Hampshire, New York, and Pennsylvania. The storming party advanced against a shower of shot and shell from Wagner, Sumter, and Battery Gregg. When at the fort they were met by a furious tempest of musketry, while howitzers swept the ditch where the assailants were crossing.

---

* This likeness, in India ink, is at the head of the old charter of Connecticut, given by Charles II. It is said to be from the hand of a celebrated English miniature-painter (Samuel Cooper, a native of London), who painted likenesses of Oliver Cromwell, John Milton, and other distinguished men. Cooper died in 1672.

BOMB AND SPLINTER PROOF, FORT WAGNER.

Hand-grenades were also thrown upon the Unionists. Colonel Shaw was shot dead, and fell among the slain of his dusky followers. General Strong, and also Colonel Chatfield, of the Connecticut regiment, were mortally wounded. The Nationals were repulsed, when another brigade pushed forward to the assault, led by Colonel H. L. Putnam. It was composed of Ohio and New York troops. Some of Putnam's men actually got into the fort, but were expelled. Finally their leader was killed, and the second storming party was repulsed. The loss on the part of the Nationals was fearful. The Confederates said they buried six hundred of them in front of the fort. Among the bodies of the slain so buried was that of Colonel Shaw, which was cast into a trench, and upon it were piled those of his slain colored troops. He was hated by the Confederates because he commanded negro troops. Gillmore now abandoned the idea of assaults, and began a regular siege. He planted batteries of heavy siege and breaching guns at different points, and mounted a 200-pound Parrott gun upon a battery constructed of timber in a marsh between Morris and James Islands, which might hurl shell upon the city, or, at least, upon the shipping and wharves of Charleston. This gun was named "The Swamp Angel." It was about five miles from Charleston. On the morning of Aug. 17, Gillmore, having completed his arrangements for attack, opened the guns from twelve batteries and from Dahlgren's naval force on Forts Sumter and Wagner and Battery Gregg. Fort Sumter, two miles distant, was the chief object of attack—to make it powerless as an assistant of Fort Wagner. This was continued until the 24th, when Gillmore telegraphed to Washington, "Fort Sumter is to-day a shapeless and harmless mass of ruins." "The Swamp Angel" sent some 150-pound shells that fell in Charleston—one penetrating St. Michael's Church—and greatly alarmed the people. On the fall of Sumter, the attack centred on Fort Wagner; and at two o'clock on the morning of Sept. 7, General Terry, with three thousand troops, in three columns, was about to advance to assail that strong fortification, when it was found that the Confederates had evacuated it and Battery Gregg before midnight. During forty hours no less than one hundred and twenty thousand pounds of iron had been rained upon the fort. Dahlgren, believing the channel to be strewn with torpedoes, did not venture to pass the silent forts with his vessels and appear before Charleston. Indeed, Sumter was not dead, but slumbering. On the night of Sept. 8 a portion of the men of the squadron went in thirty row-boats to take possession of Sumter. They scaled the ruins, where, as they supposed, the decimated garrison were sleeping, but were met by determined men, and repulsed. They were assailed not only by the garrison, but by neighboring batteries, a gunboat, and a "ram," and lost two hundred men, four boats, and three colors. Finally, on Oct. 26, perceiving the garrison mounting cannons on the southeast face of Sumter, to command Fort Wagner, Gillmore opened heavy rifled cannons on the former, which soon reduced it to an utterly untenable ruin. From that time until near the close of the year Gillmore kept up an irregular fire on Charleston, when, seeing no prospect of the fleet entering the harbor, he kept silent. (See *Charleston, Evacuation of*, 1865.)

Charleston, DEFENCE OF (1776). In the spring of 1776 a considerable fleet, under Admiral Sir Peter Parker, sailed from England with troops, under Earl Cornwallis, to operate against the coasts of the Southern provinces. This armament joined that of Sir Henry Clinton at Cape Fear. After some marauding operations in that region, the united forces proceeded to Charleston Harbor, to make a combined attack by land and water upon Fort Sullivan, on Sullivan's Island, and then to seize the city and province. The Southern patriots had cheerfully responded to the call of Governor Rutledge to come to the defence of Charleston, and about six thousand armed men were in the vicinity when the enemy appeared. The city and eligible points near had been fortified. Fort Sullivan was composed of Palmetto logs and earth, armed with twenty-six cannons, and garrisoned by about five hundred men, chiefly militia, under Colonel William Moultrie. It commanded the channel leading to the town. General Charles Lee, who had been ordered by Washington to watch the movements of Clinton, had made his way southward, and arrived at Charleston on the 4th of June, but was of no service whatever. Late in the month Clinton had landed troops on Long Island, which was separated from Sullivan's Island by a shallow creek. There he erected batteries to confront those on Sullivan's Island, and awaited the signal for attack by Parker. It was given on the morning of the 28th (June), and a terrible storm of shot and shell was poured upon the fort, with very little effect, for the spongy Palmetto logs would not fracture, and the balls were embedded in them. The conflict raged for almost ten hours between the fort and the fleet, and the latter was terribly shattered. Meanwhile Clinton had endeavored to pass over to Sullivan's Island with two thousand men, but was kept back by the determined troops under Colonel Thompson with two cannons and deadly rifles. The fire from the fleet slackened at sunset, and ceased at nine o'clock. The admiral's flag-ship (*Bristol*) and another were nearly a wreck. The flag-ship was pierced by not less than seventy balls. All but two of the vessels (which were destroyed) withdrew. The British lost in the engagement two hundred and twenty-five men killed and wounded, while the Americans lost but two killed and twenty-one wounded. Three days afterwards the British all departed for New York; and the fort, so gallantly defended, was called Fort Moultrie in honor of its commander.

Charleston, EVACUATION OF (1782), took place on Dec. 14. Leslie had levelled the fortifications around the city, and demolished Fort Johnson, on St. John's Island, near by, on the morning of the 13th. The American army slowly approached the city that day, and at dawn the next morning the British marched to Gadsden's wharf and embarked. An American detachment took formal possession of the town. At three o'clock P.M. General Greene escorted Governor Mathews and other civil officers to the Town-hall, the troops greeted on their way by cheers from windows and balconies, and even from housetops. Handkerchiefs waved, and thousands of voices exclaimed, "God bless you, gentlemen! Welcome! welcome!" Before night the British squadron (about three hundred vessels) crossed the bar, and the last sail was seen like a white speck just as the sun went down.

Charleston, Evacuation of (1865). When Hardee, in command of the Confederate troops at Charleston, heard of the fall of Columbia (which see), he perceived the necessity for his immediate flight, by the only railway then left open for his use, and of endeavoring to join Beauregard, with the remnant of Hood's army (see *Nashville, Battle of*), then making their way into North Carolina, where Johnston was gathering all of his available forces in Sherman's path. Hardee at once fired every building, warehouse, or shed in Charleston stored with cotton, and destroyed as much other property that might be useful to the Nationals as possible. The few remaining inhabitants in the city were filled with consternation, for the flames spread through the town. An explosion of gunpowder shook the city to its foundations and killed full two hundred persons. Four whole squares of buildings were consumed. That night (Feb. 17, 1865) the last of Hardee's troops left Charleston. On the following morning Major Hennessy, sent from Morris Island, raised the National flag over ruined Fort Sumter. The mayor surrendered the city, and some National troops, with negroes in Charleston, soon extinguished the flames that threatened to devour the whole town. On that day (Feb. 18, 1865) the city of Charleston was "repossessed" by the National government, with over four hundred and fifty pieces of artillery, a large amount of gunpowder, and eight locomotives and other rolling-stock of a railway. General Gillmore took possession of the city, and appointed Lieutenant-colonel Stewart L. Woodford military governor.

Charleston Founded. The first capital of the colony of South Carolina was erected on a bluff of the Ashley River; but in 1680 it was abandoned, and a new city founded on Oyster Point, at the junction of the Ashley and Cooper Rivers, and named Charles Town (now Charleston) in compliment to the king, Charles II.

Charleston Harbor, Invasion of, by Spaniards and Frenchmen. Provoked by the attack on St. Augustine by the South Carolinians, the Spaniards fitted out an expedition to retaliate. It consisted of five vessels of war, under the command of the French admiral Le Feboure, bearing a large body of troops from Havana. It was proposed to conquer the province of South Carolina and attach it to Spanish territory in Florida. The squadron crossed Charleston Bar (May, 1706), and about eight hundred troops were landed at different points. Then the commander made a peremptory demand for the surrender of the city, threatening to take it by storm in case of refusal. Governor Moore, apprised of the expedition, was prepared for it. When the flag arrived with the demand for a surrender, he had so disposed the provincial militia and a host of Indian warriors that it gave an exaggerated idea of the strength of the Carolinians. Before the messenger had made any extended observations he was dismissed with the defiant reply that the people were ready to meet the promised attack. That night was passed in quiet; but at dawn a strong party of Carolinians on the shore, led by the governor and Colonel Rhett, made a furious assault upon the invaders; killed many, captured more, and drove the remnant back to their ships. Meanwhile the little provincial navy, lying in the harbor, prepared to attack the invading squadron, when the French admiral, amazed by this display of valor, hoisted his anchors and fled to sea. A French war-ship, uninformed of these events, soon afterwards sailed into the harbor with troops, and was captured. The victory was complete, and the Spaniards became circumspect.

Charlestown (Mass.) **Burned.** At the beginning of the battle on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, Charlestown, a handsome village of about four hundred houses, situated near that eminence, was, by order of the British commander, set on fire. The houses were chiefly of wood, and in a very short time the town was enveloped in flames and smoke.

Charlestown (Mass.), Founding of. Dissatisfied with the situation at Salem, Thomas Graves, with some of the servants of the Massachusetts Bay Company under his charge, removed to Mishawun in 1629, laid out a town in two-acre lots, one of which he assigned to each inhabitant, and called the place Charlestown.

Charter, New Royal, for Massachusetts. (See *Massachusetts.*)

Charter Oak, The, stood upon the northern slope of the Wyllys Hill, in Hartford, a beautiful elevation on the south side of Charter Oak Street, a few rods east from Main Street. When the author visited and made a sketch of the tree in October, 1848, it was a "gnarled oak" indeed. The trunk was twenty-five feet in circumference near the roots. A large cavity, about two feet from the ground, was the place of concealment of the original charter of Connecticut from the summer of 1687 until the spring of 1689, when it was brought forth, and under it Connecticut resumed its charter government. (See *Charter of Connecticut.*) In the year 1800, a daughter of Secretary Wyllys, writing to Dr. Holmes, the annalist, said of this tree: "The first inhabitant of that name [Wyllys] found it standing in the height of its glory. Age seems to have curtailed its branches, yet it is not exceeded in the height of its coloring or the richness of its foliage. The cavity which was the asylum of our charter was near the roots, and large enough to admit a child. Within the space of eight years that cavity has closed, as if it had fulfilled the divine purpose for which it had been reared."

THE CHARTER OAK.

This tree was blown down by a heavy gale at a little past midnight Aug. 21, 1856. The Wyllys Hill has been graded to a terrace, called "Charter Oak Place," fronting on old Charter Oak Street, running east from Main Street, and now called Charter Oak Avenue. On the terrace, a few feet from the entrance to Charter Oak Place, a white-marble slab marks the exact spot where the famous tree stood.

Charter of Connecticut. Sir Edmund Andros was appointed governor-general of all New England in 1686, and on his arrival he demanded the surrender of all the colonial charters under his jurisdiction. Connecticut alone resisted the demand. The viceroy proceeded to Hartford in the autumn of 1687 with an armed force to seize the charter and extinguish the government. This movement seems to have been expected for several months. On the 15th of June, 1687, the following entry was made on the journal of the Connecticut Assembly: "Sundry of the court desiring that the patent or charter might be brought into the court, the secretary sent for it, and informed the governor and court that he had the charter, and showed it to the court; and the governor bid him put it into the box again and lay it on the table, and leave the key in the box, which he did forthwith." This was the original charter granted by Charles II. (see *Connecticut*), and was sent over in a neat mahogany box. The records of the Assembly show that a duplicate of that charter was made before Andros came, and this fact offers an explanation of the mysterious action of the Assembly. The box was undoubtedly left on the table, with the key in it, for somebody to take the charter out without the knowledge or apparent connivance of the Connecticut authorities. Somebody did so, and caused a duplicate of the charter to be made on parchment, when, probably, the original charter was concealed in the hollow tree from whence it was taken in 1689, and the duplicate placed in the box, so that if Andros should seize the charter he would not have the original. Andros arrived at Hartford with sixty armed men, Oct. 31 (O. S.), 1687, and found the Assembly in session in the meeting-house. The members received him with the courtesy due to his rank. He went before that body and demanded the surrender of the charter. Tradition says that it was near sunset when he entered the room. A debate in progress was purposely prolonged until the candles were lighted, when the box containing the charter was brought in and placed on the table. A preconcerted plan was now executed. Captain Joseph Wadsworth, whose train-bands were near to protect the Assembly from violence, was in the room. When Andros put forth his hand to take the charter, the lights were put out, and the box was carried away by Wadsworth. That it was the *duplicate* charter that Wadsworth carried away is attested by the same colonial records. An entry in the journal of the Assembly in 1715 shows that the sum of "twenty shillings" was granted to Captain Wadsworth "out of the colonial treasury" as a token of their grateful remembrance of "such faithful and good service" in "securing the *duplicate* charter of the colony in a very troublesome season." Probably it was Captain Wadsworth who took the original out of the box in June, 1687, caused a duplicate copy to be made of it, and deposited that original in the hollow tree that preserved it. After the accession of William and Mary, and the fall of Andros (see *Andros*), the charter was taken from the hollow oak, and Connecticut resumed its charter government under it. The *duplicate* was in the possession of Captain Wadsworth so late as 1698. Andros, foiled in his attempt to seize the charter, caused Secretary Allyn to enter upon the journal a statement that the viceroy, by order of King James, had on that day (Oct. 31, 1687) taken into his hands the government of Connecticut, annexing it to Massachusetts and other colonies. This record concluded with the word, in bold letters, "FINIS." (See *Charter Oak.*)

Charter of Massachusetts Vacated. (See *Randolph, Edward.*)

Charter of Privileges for New Netherland. The Dutch wisely took measures to encourage emigration to New Netherland. By a new "Charter of Privileges and Exemptions," adopted July 17, 1640, patroonships were limited, for the future, to four miles of frontage on navigable waters, with a depth of eight miles; and every person transporting himself and five others to the colony was allowed two hundred acres of land; and such villages and towns as might be formed were to have magistrates of their own choosing. A proclamation was issued offering free trade to New Netherland (in the ships of the West India Company) and transportation thither to all who wished to go; and emigrants were offered lands, houses, cattle, and farming tools at a very moderate annual rent, and a supply of clothes and provisions on credit. At that time, of the ten large patroonships originally established, only Rensselaerwick remained. Immigrants, composed chiefly of persecuted persons or indentured servants who had served out their time (see *Redemptionists*), flocked into New Netherland, where they might enjoy freedom such as existed in Holland. They came from New England and Virginia, and very soon there was a considerable English element in society in New Netherland.

Chase, Judge, IMPEACHMENT OF. In the session of Congress in the early part of 1804, it was determined by the leaders of the dominant, or Democratic, party to impeach Judge Samuel Chase, then Associate-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. He was an ardent Federalist, and warmly attached to the principles of Washington's administration. At the instance of John Randolph, of Virginia, Democratic leader of the House of Representatives, he was impeached for his conduct during the trial of Callender and Fries, solely on political grounds. Eight articles of impeachment were agreed to, most of them by a strict party vote. One was founded on his conduct at the trial of Fries (see *Fries's Insurrection*), five on the trial of Callender (see *Callender, J. T.*), and two on a late charge to a Maryland grand jury. Having been summoned by the Senate to appear for trial, he did so (Jan. 2, 1805), and asked for a delay until the next session. The boon was refused, and he was given a month to prepare for trial. His case excited much sympathy and indignation, even among the better members of the administration party. His age, his Revolutionary services, and his pure judicial character, all pleaded in his favor, and not in vain, for he was acquitted. The Senate — the tribunal before which he was tried—was presided over by Aaron Burr, Vice-President of the United States, who had returned from his flight southward after his duel with Hamilton. He had taken a seat in the Senate, notwithstanding his reputation was permanently blasted and an indictment for murder was impending over him. Chase's trial served to check the overbearing demeanor of the judges on the bench which prevailed in his time.

Chase, PHILANDER, D.D., was born at Cornish, N. H., Dec. 14, 1775; died at Jubilee College, Ill., Sept. 20, 1852. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1795, and was ordained a minister of the Protestant Episcopal Church, in New York, in 1798. His first charge was at Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson River. He labored zealously in the missionary cause in various parts of the State of New York, and in 1805, on account of his wife's ill-health, he went to New Orleans. Returning to the North in 1811, he became rector of a church in Hartford, Conn. In 1817 he went to Ohio, and entered vigorously upon the work of building up the Church in the West. In 1819 he was consecrated bishop, and, in the midst of many trials and difficulties, he succeeded in founding Kenyon College and Gambier Theological Seminary, in Ohio, collecting, by his individual and personal exertions, in England and this country, about $30,000 for the purpose. Intent upon missionary labor, he moved farther west, and, in 1835, he was chosen bishop of the diocese of Illinois. He again visited England, and collected about $10,000 for educational purposes; and in 1838 he founded Jubilee College, at Robin's Nest, Ill., where he spent the remainder of his life.

Chase, SALMON PORTLAND, statesman, was born at Cornish, N. H., Jan. 13, 1808; died in New York city, May 7, 1873. When twelve years of age he was placed in charge of his uncle, Bishop Chase, in Ohio, who superintended his tuition. He entered Cincinnati College; and after a year there he returned to New Hampshire and entered Dartmouth College, where he graduated in 1826. He taught school and studied law in Washington, D. C., and was admitted to the bar there in 1829. The next year he went to Cincinnati to practise his profession, where he became eminent. He prepared an edition of the statutes of Ohio, with copious notes, which soon superseded all others. In 1834 he became solicitor of the Bank of the United States in Cincinnati. Acting as counsel for a colored woman who was claimed as a slave (1837), he controverted the authority of Congress to impose any duties or confer any powers, in fugitive-slave cases, on state magistrates. The same year, in his defence of J. G. Birney (which see), prosecuted under a state law for harboring a fugitive slave, Mr. Chase asserted the doctrine that slavery was local, and dependent upon state law for existence, and that the alleged slave, being in Ohio, where slavery did not exist, was free. From that time he was regarded as the great legal champion of the principles of the Anti-slavery party. He entered the political field in 1841, on organizing the "Liberty party" (which see) in Ohio, and was ever afterwards active in its conventions, as well as in the ranks of the opposers of slavery. The Democrats of the Ohio Legislature elected him (1849) to a seat in the United States Senate, where he opposed the Fugitive Slave Bill and other compromise measures, and, on the nomination of Mr. Pierce for the Presidency, he separated from the Democratic party. He opposed the Kansas-Nebraska Bill (which see), and in 1855 was elected governor of Ohio. He was one of the founders of the Republican party in 1856, and was governor until 1859. In 1861 he

SALMON PORTLAND CHASE.

became Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, under President Lincoln, and managed the finances of the nation with great ability until October, 1864, when he was appointed Chief-justice of the United States in place of Judge Taney, deceased. In that capacity he presided at the trial of President Johnson in the spring of 1868. Being dissatisfied with the action of the Republican majority in Congress, Mr. Chase was proposed, in 1868, as the Democratic nominee for President. He was willing to accept the nomination, but received only four out of six hundred and sixty-three votes in the convention. He then withdrew from the political field, but in 1872 he opposed the re-election of General Grant to the Presidency.

Chase, Samuel, was born in Somerset County, Md., April 17, 1741; died June 19, 1811. Admitted to the bar in 1761, he entered upon the practice of law at Annapolis, and he soon rose to distinction. He was twenty years a member of the Colonial Legislature; was a strong opposer of the Stamp Act; a member of the Committee of Correspondence; and a delegate to the Continental Congress (1774–79). In 1776 he was a fellow-commissioner of Franklin and Carroll to seek an alliance with the Canadians, and was efficient in changing the sentiments of Maryland in favor of independence, so as to authorize him and his colleagues to vote for the Declaration, which he signed. In 1783 Mr. Chase was sent to England, as agent for Maryland, to redeem a large sum of money intrusted to the Bank of England, $650,000 of which was finally recovered. From 1791 to 1796 he was chief-justice of his state, and was a warm supporter of the administrations of Washington and Adams. In 1804 he was, at the instance of John Randolph, his political opponent, impeached for his conduct in the trial of Fries (see *Fries's Insurrection*) and Callender. He was acquitted by the Senate, sitting as a high court of impeachment. Judge Chase possessed a somewhat irascible temper, and was sometimes overbearing as a judge, but was honest, learned, able, and patriotic.

Chatham, Pitt created Earl of. When Pitt resigned the seals of office (1761) there was great public discontent. Bute soon felt it, and he said to a friend, "I am no stranger to the language held in this city—'Our darling's resignation is owing to Lord Bute, and he must answer for all the consequences.'" The king, too, felt unpleasant forebodings. He showered kind words upon the retiring statesman, and offered to confer a title of honor upon him, but it was then declined. He accepted for his wife the honorary title of Baroness of Chatham, with a pension for her, her husband, and their eldest son of $15,000 a year. Pitt remained in retirement until 1766, when he was created Viscount Chatham and called to the head of public affairs. He formed a cabinet of heterogeneous materials, which Burke wittily described as "a piece of diversified mosaic, a tesselated pavement without cement — here a bit of black stone, there a bit of white—patriots and courtiers, king's friends and republicans, Whigs and Tories, treacherous friends and open enemies—a very curious show, but utterly unsafe to touch and unsure to stand upon." Pitt's elevation to the peerage injured his popularity. Chesterfield said, "Pitt has gone to the hospital of incurable statesmen"—the House of Lords.

Chatham's Conciliation Scheme. After long absence from Parliament, the Earl of Chatham (William Pitt) appeared early in the year 1775, and proposed an address to the king advising the recall of the troops from Boston. It was rejected; but petitions for conciliation flowed in from all the great trading and manufacturing towns in the kingdom, for they felt the severe pressure of the operations of the American Association (which see). In February, 1775, Chatham brought forward a bill which required a full acknowledgment on the part of the colonists of the supremacy and superintending power of Parliament, but provided that no tax should ever be levied on the Americans except by consent of the colonial assemblies. It also contained a provision for a congress of the colonies to make the required acknowledgment; and to vote, at the same time, a free grant to the king of a certain perpetual revenue, to be placed at the disposal of Parliament. It was rejected, two to one, at the first reading. (See *North's Scheme.*)

Chattahoochee, Passage of the. On the morning of July 3, 1864, General Johnston's Confederate army passed in haste through Marietta, Ga., and on towards the Chattahoochee River, a deep and rapid stream, closely followed by Sherman with the National army, who hoped to strike his antagonist a heavy blow while he was crossing that stream. By quick and skilful movements, Johnston passed the Chattahoochee without much molestation and made a stand behind intrenchments on its left bank. Again Sherman made a successful flanking movement. Howard laid a pontoon bridge two miles above the ferry where the Confederates crossed. Demonstrations by the rest of the Nationals made Johnston abandon his position and retreat to another that covered Atlanta. The left of the Confederates rested on the Chattahoochee and their right on Peach-Tree Creek. There the two armies rested some time. On July 10, or sixty-five days after Sherman put his army in motion southward, he was master of the country north and west of the river on the banks of which he was reposing — nearly one half of Georgia—and had accomplished the chief object of the campaign, namely, the advancement of the National lines from the Tennessee to the Chattahoochee.

Chattanooga abandoned by the Confederates (1863). The Army of the Cumberland, under Rosecrans, after crossing the Cumberland Mountains in pursuit of the Confederates under Bragg, was stretched along the Tennessee River from a point above Chattanooga a hundred miles westward. Rosecrans determined to cross that stream at different points and, closing around Chattanooga, attempt to crush or starve the Confederate army there. General Hazen was near Harrison's, above Chattanooga (Aug. 20). He had made slow marches, displaying camp-fires at different points, and causing the fifteen regiments of his command to appear like the advance of an immense army. On the morning of Aug. 21 National artillery under Wilder, planted on the mountain-side across the river, opposite Chattanooga, sent screaming shells over that town and among Bragg's troops. The latter was startled by a sense of immediate danger; and when, soon afterwards, Generals Thomas and McCook crossed the Tennessee with their corps and took possession of the passes of Lookout Mountain on Bragg's flank, and Crittenden took post at Wauhatchie, in Lookout Valley, nearer the river, the Confederates abandoned Chattanooga, passed through the gaps of Missionaries Ridge, and encamped on Chickamauga Creek, near Lafayette, in northern Georgia, there to meet expected National forces when pressing through the gaps of Lookout Mountain and threatening their communications with Dalton and Resaca. From the lofty summit of Lookout Mountain Crittenden had seen the retreat of Bragg. He immediately led his forces into the Chattanooga Valley and encamped at Ross's Gap, in Missionaries Ridge, within three miles of the town.

ISAAC CHAUNCEY.

Chauncey, Isaac, was born at Black Rock, Conn., Feb. 20, 1772; died in Washington, Jan. 27, 1840. In early life he was in the merchant service, and commanded a ship at the age of nineteen years. He made several voyages to the East Indies in the ships of J. J. Astor. In 1798 he was made a lieutenant of the navy, and was acting captain of the *Chesapeake* in 1802. He became master in May, 1804, and captain in 1806. During the War of 1812–15 he was in command of the American naval force on Lake Ontario, where he performed efficient service. After that war he commanded the Mediterranean squadron, and, with Consul Shaler, negotiated a treaty with Algiers. In 1820 he was naval commissioner at Washington, and the same from 1833 until his death. Commodore Chauncey's remains were interred in the Congressional Burying-ground at Washington, and at the head of his grave stands a fine white-marble monument, suitably inscribed.

CHAUNCEY'S MONUMENT.

Cherokee Alphabet. A native Cherokee (Se-quoy-ah), whom the white people called George Guess, and who was ignorant of any language but his own, seeing books in the missionary-schools, and being told that the characters represented the words of the spoken English language, conceived the idea of forming a written language for his people. He first made a separate character for each word. But this made the whole matter too voluminous, and he made a syllabic alphabet of eighty-five characters. It was soon ascertained that this was sufficient, even for the copious language of the Cherokees.

Cherokee Towns Burned (1781). The Cherokees having made a hostile incursion into the Ninety-six District, in South Carolina, murdered some families, and burned several houses, General Andrew Pickins, at the head of about four hundred mounted militia, penetrated into their country, and, in fourteen days, burned thirteen towns and villages, killed more than forty barbarians, and took a number of prisoners, without losing a man.

Cherokee War. While the Cherokees who accompanied the expedition against Fort Duquesne in 1758 were returning home along the mountains on the western borders of Virginia and the Carolinas, they quarrelled with the settlers, and several white men and Indians were killed. Some Cherokee chiefs were sent to Charleston to arrange the dispute, when they were treated almost with contempt by the governor of South Carolina. This was soon followed by an invasion of the Cherokee country by Governor Littleton (October, 1759) with 1500 men, contributed by Virginia and the Carolinas, who demanded the surrender of the murderers of the English. He found the Cherokees ready for war, and was glad to make the insubordination of his soldiers and the prevalence of small-pox among them an excuse for leaving the country. He accepted twenty-two Indian hostages as security for peace and the future delivery of the murderers, and retired in haste and confusion (June, 1760). These hostages, which included several chiefs and warriors, were placed in Fort St. George, at the head of the Savannah River. The Cherokees attempted their rescue as soon as Littleton and his army had gone. A soldier was wounded, when his companions, in fiery anger, put all the hostages to death. The Cherokee nation was aroused by the outrage. They beleaguered the fort, and war-parties scourged the frontiers. The Assembly of South Carolina voted 1000 men and offered £25 for every Indian scalp. North Carolina voted a similar provision, and authorized the holding of Indian captives as slaves. General Amherst, petitioned for assistance, detached 1200 men, chiefly Scotch Highlanders, for the purpose, under Colonel Montgomery, with orders to chastise the Cherokees, but to return in time for the next campaign against Canada. Montgomery left Charleston early in April, with regular and provincial troops, and laid waste a portion of the Cherokee country. They were not subdued. The next year Colonel Grant led a stronger force against them, burned their towns, desolated their fields, and killed many of their warriors. Then the Indians humbly sued for peace (June, 1761), and were ever afterwards comparatively quiet.

Cherokees. This Indian nation, inhabiting the hilly regions of Georgia, Western Carolina, and Northern Alabama, were called the Mountaineers of the South. They were among high hills and fertile valleys, and have ever been more susceptible of civilization than any of the Indian tribes within the domain of the United States. They were the determined foes of the Shawnoese, and, after many conflicts, drove those fugitives back to the Ohio. They united with the Carolinians and Catawbas against the Tuscaroras in 1711, but joined the great Indian league against the Carolinians in 1715. The Cherokees and the Five Nations had bloody contests for a long time; but the English effected a reconciliation between them about the year 1750, when the Cherokees became the allies of the British against the French, and allowed the former to build forts on their domain. About that time they were at the height of their power, and inhabited sixty-four villages along the streams; but soon afterwards nearly one half the population were swept off by the small-pox. The Cherokees assisted in the capture of Fort Duquesne in 1758; but their unruly conduct on the borders of Virginia caused collisions between them and the white settlers, and some of the Cherokees were slain. They retaliated by desolating the frontiers of Virginia and the Carolinas, and for three years a war between the races ensued. Peace was permanently established in 1761. During the Revolution the Cherokees adhered to the British, but were afterwards reconciled to the Americans by treaties made in 1785 and 1791. They were friends of the United States in the War of 1812, and helped to subjugate the Creeks. Civilization took root among them and produced contention, a portion of them wishing to adhere to their former mode of living, while others wished to engage in the industries of civilized life. They were so absolutely divided in sentiment that in 1818 a portion of the nation emigrated to wild land assigned to them west of the Mississippi. The Cherokees, in turn, had ceded large portions of their lands, and their domain was mostly confined to northern Georgia. They were then making rapid progress in civilization; but the Georgians coveted their lands, and insisted upon their removal beyond the Mississippi. Finally, in 1838, they were all (twenty-seven thousand) removed to a reservation (now known as the Indian Territory) west of Arkansas, excepting about one thousand, who remained, undisturbed, in North Carolina. A feud that had long existed among them was healed in 1839, and they lived harmoniously and prospered until a portion of them were seduced by agents of the "Confederates" in the late Civil War to take up arms against the government. It was a disastrous movement. Their country was ravaged, and losses amounting to full two million dollars were incurred. Their slaves were emancipated, and they were required to give a portion of their lands to the freedmen among them. The Cherokees now number about fifteen thousand souls, and their share of the Indian Territory comprises about five million acres, of which two thirds is unfitted for cultivation. The Cherokee nation is divided into seven families, or clans, and, as among the Iroquois, members of the same family are not allowed to intermarry.

Cherokees and Georgians. At the beginning of the administration of President Jackson the Georgians renewed their demand for the removal of the Cherokee nation from their state. The Cherokees were yet powerful in numbers, and were then considerably advanced in the arts and customs of civilization. They had churches and schools and a printing-press, issuing a newspaper; and they were disposed to defend their rights against the encroachments of their white neighbors. President Jackson favored the Georgians, and the white people then proceeded to take possession of the lands of the Cherokees. Trouble ensued, and the southern portion of the republic was menaced with civil war for a while. The United States troops had been withdrawn from Georgia, and the national government offered no obstacle to the forcible seizure of the Indian territory by the Georgians. Some missionaries laboring among the Cherokees were arrested and imprisoned for residing in their country contrary to the laws of the state, and for refusing to take an oath of allegiance to Georgia. The Cherokees then numbered between fourteen and fifteen thousand east of the Mississippi. The matter in dispute was adjudicated by the Supreme Court of the United States, and on March 30, 1832, that tribunal decided against the claims of the Georgians. The Georgians, still favored by the President, resented this decision. An amicable settlement was finally arrived at; and, in 1838, under the mild coercion of Major-general W. Scott and several thousand troops, the Cherokees left their beautiful country in Georgia with sorrow, and went to wild lands assigned them, well towards the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains, where they yet remain, with Choctaws, Creeks, and others for their neighbors. Again the swelling tide of westward-flowing civilization is beating against their borders. (See *Indian Territory.*)

Cherokees and the Civil War. John Ross, the renowned principal chief of the Cherokees, who had led them wisely for almost forty years, took a decided stand against the Secessionists. He issued a proclamation (May 17, 1861), in which he reminded his people of their treaty obligations with the United States, and urged them to be faithful to them, and to take no part in the stirring events of the day. But he and his loyal associates among the Cherokees and Creeks were overborne by the tide of secession and insurrection, and were swept on, powerless, by the current. The betrayal of the United States troops by General Twiggs into the hands of the Texas authorities left their territory on the side of that state open to invasion. False rumors continually disturbed them. Their neighbors, and the wild tribes on their borders, were rallying to the standard of the Confederates. The National troops in Missouri could not check the rising insurrection there. The chief men of the Cherokees held a mass-meeting at Tahlequah in August, when, with great unanimity, they declared their allegiance to the "Confederate States." Ross still held out, but was finally compelled to yield. At a council held on Aug. 20, he recommended the severance of the connection with the National government. Ross's wife, a young and well-educated woman, still held out; and when an attempt was made to raise a Confederate flag over the council-house, she opposed the act with so much spirit that the Secessionists desisted. During the Civil War the Cherokees suffered much. The Confederates would not trust Ross, for his Union feelings were very apparent. When, in 1862, they were about to arrest him, he and his family escaped to the North, and resided in Philadelphia for a while.

Cherokees, End of War with the. In 1761 a new expedition was made into the country of the hostile Cherokees by a Highland regiment under Colonel Grant. The Indians were subdued, and humbly sued for peace. This was granted on the sole condition that they should bring four warriors to be shot at the head of the English army, or furnish four green Indian scalps, within twenty days. An old chief, long known for his attachment to the English, personally applied to Governor Bull and procured a relinquishment of this barbarous demand. Peace was established without further bloodshed.

Cherokees, Treaty with the (1721). When, early in 1721, Governor Francis Nicholson arrived in South Carolina, he proceeded to take measures for securing the peace of the colony. He tried to cultivate the good-will of the Spaniards and Indians in Florida. He also held a conference with the chiefs of thirty-seven different cantons of Cherokees. He gave them presents, smoked with them the pipe of peace, marked the boundaries of the lands between them and the English settlers, regulated weights and measures, and appointed an agent to superintend their affairs. He then concluded a treaty of commerce and peace with the Creeks.

Cherokees, Treaty with the (1730). About the year 1730 the projects of the French for uniting Canada and Louisiana by a cordon of posts through the Ohio and Mississippi valleys began to be developed. To counteract this scheme, the British wished to convert the Indians on the frontiers into allies or subjects, and, to this end, to make with them treaties of union and alliance. The British government accordingly sent out Sir Alexander Cumming to conclude such a treaty with the powerful Cherokees on the western border of South Carolina. They occupied the region about the head-waters of the Savannah River and back among the mountains; and it was estimated that they could then put six thousand warriors in the field. In April, 1730, Sir Alexander met the chief warriors of all the Cherokee towns in council; informed them by whose authority he was sent; demanded from them an acknowledgment of King George as their sovereign, and a promise of their obedience to his authority. The chiefs, falling on their knees, promised fidelity and obedience. By their consent, Sir Alexander nominated Moytoy, one of their best leaders, commander-in-chief of the Cherokee Nation. They brought a rude crown, five eagles' tails, and four scalps of their enemies to Sir Alexander, and desired him to lay them at the feet of the king when he should return to England. Six of the chiefs went to England with Sir Alexander, and, standing before his majesty, they promised, in the name of their nation, eternal fidelity to the English. A treaty was drawn up and signed by the Secretary to the Lords Commissioners of Trade and Plantations (which see) on one side, and to which the marks and tokens of the chiefs were affixed. The chiefs were amazed at the magnificence of the British court and nation. They said: "We came hither naked and poor as the worms of the earth; but you have everything; and we that have nothing must love you, and will never break the chain of friendship which is between us." They returned to Carolina with Robert Johnson, who came with a commission as governor.

Cherokees, TREATY WITH THE (1785). By a treaty concluded at Hopewell, on the Keowee, between the United States Commissioners and the head men and warriors of all the Cherokees, these barbarian representatives, for themselves and their respective tribes and towns, acknowledged all the Cherokees to be under the protection of the United States. The boundaries of their hunting-grounds were settled; several mutual and pacific conditions were agreed upon; and a solemn pledge was made that "the hatchet should be buried," and that the peace re-established should "be universal."

Cherokees, WAR WITH THE (1776). The Cherokees seriously threatened the frontier of South Carolina in 1776. As these Indians were the dread of the frontier settlers of Georgia, North Carolina, and Virginia, these three states joined in the defence of South Carolina. Colonel Andrew Williamson led an expedition into the Cherokee country, destroyed all their settlements eastward of the Appalachian Mountains, and effectually brought the natives to submission. This conquest was effected between July 15 and Oct. 11, 1776. A military work named Fort Rutledge was erected in the Cherokee country and garrisoned by two independent companies.

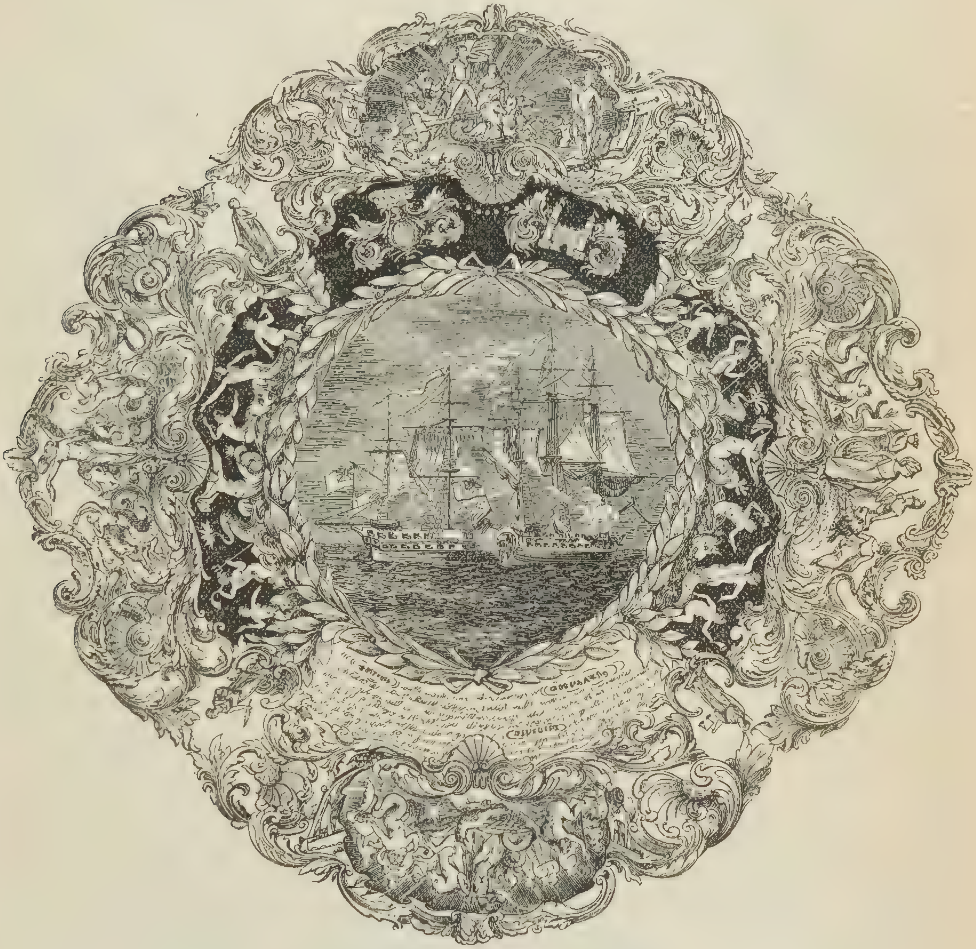
Cherry Valley, MASSACRE AT. During a heavy storm of sleet on Nov. 11, 1778, a band of Indians and Tories — the former led by Brant, and the latter by Walter N. Butler, son of Colonel John Butler — fell upon Cherry Valley, Otsego Co., N. Y., and murdered thirty-two of the inhabitants, mostly women and children, with sixteen soldiers of a little garrison there. Nearly forty men, women, and children were carried away captives. Butler was the arch-fiend on this occasion, and would listen to no appeals from Brant for mercy on the innocent and helpless. The captives were led away in the darkness and a cold storm; and when they rested they were huddled together, half naked, with no shelter but the leafless trees, and no resting-place but the wet ground.

Chesapeake and Leopard, THE. In the spring of 1807 a small British squadron lay (as they had lately) in American waters, near the mouth of Chesapeake Bay, watching some French frigates blockaded at Annapolis. Three of the crew of one of the British vessels (*Melampus*) and one of another (*Halifax*) had deserted, and enlisted on board the United States frigate *Chesapeake*, lying at the Washington navy-yard. The British minister made a formal demand for their surrender. The United States government refused compliance, because it was ascertained that two of them (colored) were natives of the United States, and there was strong presumptive evidence that the third one was, likewise. The commodore of the British squadron took the matter into his own hands. The *Chesapeake*, going to sea on the morning of June 22, 1807, bearing the pennant of Commodore Barron, was intercepted by the British frigate *Leopard*, whose commander, hailing, informed the commodore that he had a despatch for him. A British boat bearing a lieutenant came alongside the *Chesapeake*. The officer was politely received by Barron, in his cabin, when the former presented a demand from the captain of the *Leopard* to allow the bearer to muster the crew of the *Chesapeake*, that he might select and carry away the alleged deserters. The demand was authorized by instructions received from Vice-admiral Berkeley, at Halifax. Barron refused compliance, the lieutenant withdrew, and the *Chesapeake* moved on. The *Leopard* followed, and her commander called out through his trumpet, "Commodore Barron must be aware that the vice-admiral's commands must be obeyed." This insolent announcement was repeated. The *Chesapeake* moved on, and the *Leopard* sent two shots athwart her bow. These were followed by the remainder of the broadside, poured into the hull of the *Chesapeake*. Though Barron, suspecting mischief, had prepared his ship for action, he was unable to return the shots, for his guns had no priming-powder. After being severely injured by repeated broadsides, the *Chesapeake* was surrendered to the assailant. The vice-admiral's command was obeyed. The crew of the *Chesapeake* were mustered by British officers, and the deserters were carried away; one of them, who was a British subject, was hung at Halifax, and the lives of the Americans were spared only on condition that they should re-enter the British service. This outrage caused fiery indignation throughout the United States. The President issued a proclamation, at the beginning of July, ordering all British armed vessels to leave the waters of the United States, and forbidding any to enter until ample satisfaction should be given. A British envoy extraordinary was sent to Washington to settle the difficulty. Instructed to do nothing until the President's proclamation should be withdrawn, the matter was left open more than four years. In 1811 the British government disavowed the act. Barron, found guilty of neglect of duty in not being prepared for the attack, was suspended from the service for five years, without pay or emolument.

Chesapeake and Shannon. While the *Hornet*, Captain Lawrence, was on her homeward-bound voyage with her large number of prisoners (see *Hornet and Peacock*), the *Chesapeake*, 38 guns, Captain Evans, was out on a long cruise to the Cape de Verd Islands and the coast of South America. She accomplished nothing except the capture of four British merchant vessels; and as she entered Boston harbor in a gale her topmast was carried away, and with it several men who were aloft, three of whom were drowned. Among the superstitious sailors she acquired the character of an "unlucky" ship, and they were loath to embark in her. Evans was compelled to leave her on account of the loss of the sight of one of his eyes; and Lawrence, who had been promoted to captain for his bravery, was put in command of her, with the *Hornet*, Captain Biddle, as her consort. At the close of May the British frigate *Shannon*, 38 guns, Captain Philip Bowes Vere Broke, appeared off Boston harbor, in the attitude of a challenger. She then carried 52 guns. He wrote to Lawrence, requesting the *Chesapeake* to meet the *Shannon*, "ship to ship, to try the fortunes of their respective flags." He assured Lawrence that the *Chesapeake* could not leave Boston without the risk of being "crushed by the superior force of the British squadron," then abroad, and proposed that they should meet in single combat, without the interference of other vessels. Lawrence accepted the challenge, and, with Lieutenant Augustus Ludlow as second in command, he sailed out of Boston harbor to meet the *Shannon*, at midday, June 1, 1813. The same evening, between five and six o'clock, they engaged in a close conflict. After fighting twelve minutes, the *Shannon* so injured the spars and rigging of the *Chesapeake* that she became unmanageable. This misfortune occurred at the moment when the latter was about to take the wind out of the sails of her antagonist, shoot ahead, lay across her bow, rake her, and probably secure a victory. Her mizzen rigging was entangled in the fore-chains of the *Shannon*, in which position the decks of the *Chesapeake* were swept with terrible effect by the balls of her antagonist. Lawrence ordered his boarders to be called up. There was some delay, when a musket-ball mortally wounded the gallant young commander, and he was carried below. As he left the deck he said, "Tell the men to fire faster, and not to give up the ship; fight her till she sinks." These words of the dying hero, slightly paraphrased to "Don't give up the ship," became the battle-cry of the Americans, and the formula of an encouraging maxim in morals for those who are struggling in life's contests. Broke's boarders now swarmed upon the deck of the *Chesapeake*, and Lieutenant Ludlow, the second in command, was mortally wounded by a sabre cut. After a severe struggle, in which the Americans lost, in killed and wounded, one hundred and forty-six men, victory remained with the *Shannon*. The British lost eighty-four men. Broke sailed immediately to Halifax with his prize, and the day before his arrival there (June 7) Lawrence expired, wrapped in the flag of the *Chesapeake*. England rang with shouts of exultation because of this victory. An American writer remarked: "Never did any victory — not even of Wellington in Spain, nor those of Nelson — call forth such expressions of joy on the part of the British;" a proof that our naval character had risen in their estimation. Lawrence fought under great disadvantages. He had been in command of the ship only about ten days, and was unacquainted with the abilities of her officers and men; some of the former were sick or absent. His crew were almost mutinous because of disputes concerning prize-money, and many of them had only recently enlisted; besides, the feeling among the sailors that she was an "unlucky" ship was disheartening. The remains of Lawrence and Ludlow were conveyed to Salem, Mass., where funeral honors were paid to them on Aug. 23. Early in September they were conveyed to New York, and were deposited (Sept. 16) in Trinity church-yard. The corporation of the city of New York erected a marble

THE SHANNON AND CHESAPEAKE ENTERING THE HARBOR OF HALIFAX.

monument to Lawrence, which, becoming dilapidated, the vestry of Trinity Church erected a handsome mausoleum of brown freestone (1847), near the southeast corner of Trinity Church, close by Broadway, in commemoration of both Lawrence and Ludlow, and eight trophy cannons were placed around it. The freedom of the city of London and a sword were given to Captain Broke by the corporation; the Prince Regent knighted him; and the inhabitants of his native county (Suffolk) presented him with a gorgeous piece of silver as a testimonial of their sense of his eminent services.* The *Chesapeake* was taken to England and sold to the government for about $66,000, and in 1814 was put in commission. In 1820 she was sold to a private gentleman for a very small sum, who broke her up and sold her timbers for building purposes, much of it for making houses in Portsmouth, and a considerable portion for the erection of a mill at Wickham, nine miles from Portsmouth. The mill was standing in 1824. (See sketch of the *Chesapeake and Shannon*, by Rear-admiral Preble, in the *United Service*, October, 1879.)



SILVER PLATE PRESENTED TO CAPTAIN BROKE.

Chester, JOSEPH LEMUEL, LL.D., was born at Norwich, Conn., April 30, 1821. He is now (1880) an acknowledged leader of the antiquaries and genealogists of England, where he has resided more than twenty years. He began business life as a merchant in Philadelphia, in which pursuit he was engaged many years. Meanwhile he was a frequent contributor to literary publications, and the newspaper press often contained essays from his pen upon a variety of subjects. In 1843, when he was only twenty-two years of age, he published a small volume entitled *Greenwood Cemetery and other Poems.* His literary contributions were generally over the signature of "Julian Cramer." In 1853 he published *A Preliminary Treatise on the Law of Repulsion*, and, the next year, *Educational Laws of Virginia; the Personal Narrative of Mrs. Margaret Douglas.* The same year he published *John Rogers*, with a genealogy of the family. In 1858 Mr. Chester went to London, where he has ever since resided. He was soon recognized as an acute genealogist and most industrious antiquary. For ten years he was engaged in editing and annotating *The Marriage, Baptismal, and Burial Registers of the Collegiate Church, or Abbey, of St. Peter, Westminster* (Westminster Abbey). It was undertaken at the suggestion of Dean Stanley, and is a monument that commemorates the untiring industry and sound judgment of one of the most careful and conscientious delvers in the mine of antiquarian lore. More than one half of the six hundred royal octavo pages of the work is made up of biographical notes and personal identifications by the editor. It was published in 1876. In 1869 Dr. Chester assisted in forming, in London, the "Harleian Society," for the publication of inedited MSS. relating to genealogy, heraldry, etc. In 1870 he was made one of the council of the "Historical Society of Great Britain." He is a constant contributor to various historical and genealogical publications, and is an honorary member of several learned societies in England and America.

---

* The devices on the plate are described as follows: "The centre, enriched with a wreath of palm and laurel leaves, with groups of Nereids and Tritons, presents the spectacle of the battle between the *Shannon* and *Chesapeake*. A deep and highly finished border composes the exterior of the circle, in which are significant devices in four principal divisions. In the first compartment, in the form of an escalop-shell, is seen Neptune receiving the warrior. The former is issuing from the sea with his attendants, and presenting to the hero (who is borne in a triumphal car, attended by Britannia and Liberty bearing the British flag) the naval coronet. In the compartment opposite, Britannia is seen on a sea horse, holding the trident of Neptune in one hand, and with the other hurling the thunder of her power at the American eagle, which is expiring at her feet in the presence of ocean deities. In a third compartment the device represents the triumph of Victory. The winged goddess, bearing a coronal, approaches in her shell-car drawn by ocean steeds, and offers peace to the vanquished. In the fourth compartment are represented the four quarters of the world, in the form of figures assembled under the protection of the British lion, commerce having been secured to the world by British prowess. Besides these are the figures of Fortitude, Justice, Wisdom, and Peace, intended to represent the characteristics of the British nation."

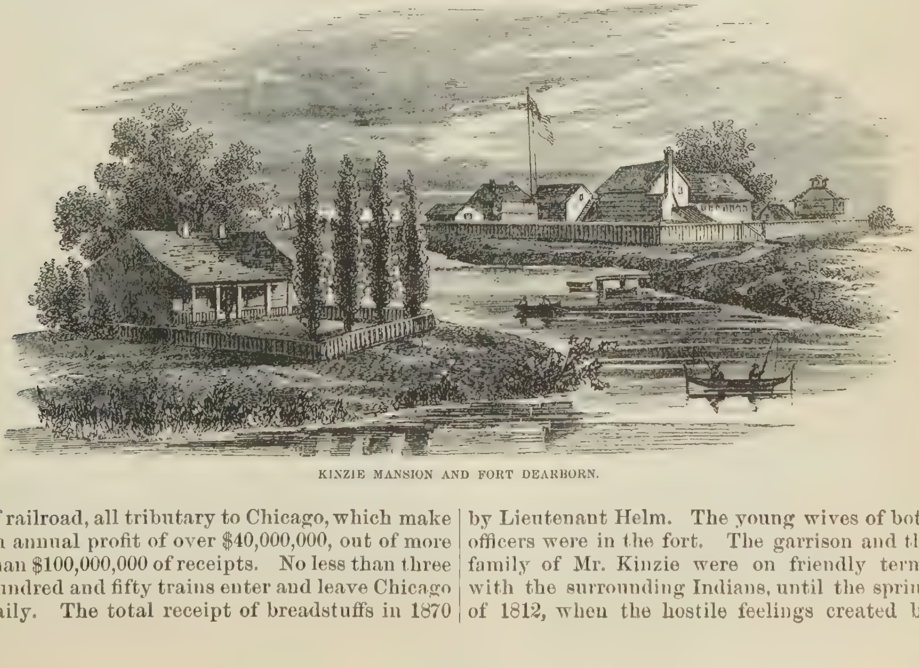
Cheves, LANGDON, LL.D., statesman, was born in Abbeville District, S. C., Sept. 17, 1776; died at Columbia, S. C., June 25, 1857. Admitted to the bar in 1800, he became eminent as a lawyer and a leader in the State Legislature, which he entered in 1808. He was attorney-general of the state, and was in Congress from 1811 to 1816, zealously supporting all war measures. When, in 1814, Henry Clay was sent to negotiate a treaty of peace with Great Britain, he succeeded the Kentuckian as Speaker of the House, which position he held for a year, his casting vote defeating a bill for the rechartering of the United States Bank. It was rechartered in 1816; and when in trouble in 1819 Cheves was appointed president of its directors, and by his energy and judgment it was saved from dissolution. He became chief commissioner under the treaty of Ghent for settling some of its provisions. He was a public advocate of disunion as early as 1830, but opposed "nullification" (which see).

Cheyennes. This is one of the most westerly tribes of the Algonquin nation. They were seated on the Cheyenne, a branch of the Red River of the North. Driven by the Sioux, they retreated beyond the Missouri. Near the close of the last century they were driven to or near the Black Hills, where Lewis and Clarke found them in 1804, when they possessed horses and made plundering raids as far as New Mexico. About 1825, when they were at peace with the Sioux, and making war upon the Pawnees, Kansas, and other tribes, a feud occurred in the family. A part of them remained with the Sioux, and the others went south to the Arkansas River and joined the Arrapahoes. Many treaties were made with them by agents of the United States, but broken; and, finally, losing all confidence in the honor of the white race, they began hostilities in 1861. This was the first time that the Cheyennes were at war with the white people. While negotiations for peace and friendship were on foot, Colonel Chivington, of Colorado, fell upon a Cheyenne village (Nov. 29, 1864) and massacred about one hundred men, women, and children. The whole tribe was fired with a desire for revenge, and a fierce war ensued, in which the United States lost many gallant soldiers and wasted between $30,000,000 and $40,000,000. The ill-feeling of the Indians towards the white people remained unabated. Some treaties were made and imperfectly carried out; and, after General Hancock burned one of their villages in 1867, they again made war, and slew three hundred United States soldiers and settlers. General Custer defeated them on the Washita, killing their chief, thirty-seven warriors, and two thirds of their women and children. The northern band of the Cheyennes remained peaceable, refusing to join the Sioux against the white people, in 1865, notwithstanding they were grossly insulted. The Cheyennes now are scattered and mixed with the Arrapahoes, and number, in the aggregate, about three thousand five hundred. This is a trifle more than they numbered fifty years ago.

Chicago. The site of Chicago (west side of Lake Michigan) was a favorite rendezvous for several tribes of Indians in summer. Its name signifies, in the Pottawatomie tongue, wild onion, or a polecat, both of which abounded in that region. Of the skin of the polecat the Indians made tobacco-pouches. The spot was first visited by Marquette, a French Jesuit missionary, in 1673, who encamped there in the winter of 1674–75. (See *Marquette.*) The French built a fort there, which is marked on a map, in 1683, "Fort Checagou." When Canada was ceded to Great Britain this fort was abandoned. The United States government built a fort there in 1804, and named it Dearborn, in honor of the Secretary of War. It was on the south side of the Chicago River, near its mouth. It was a noted trading station. This fort was evacuated by its garrison in 1812, when the troops and other white inhabitants there were fallen upon by hostile Indians and many people murdered—Aug. 15. (See *Chicago, Massacre at.*) The fort was re-established in 1816, and was occupied until 1837. The last vestige of it—a block-house—was demolished in 1856. A town was laid out near the fort in 1830, which embraced three eighths of a square mile. In 1831 it comprised twelve families, besides the little garrison of Fort Dearborn. The town was organized in 1833, with five trustees, when it contained 550 inhabitants. It was incorporated a city March 4, 1837, when it contained a population of 4170. Its growth has since been marvellous; in 1870 it had a population of about 300,000.

BLOCK-HOUSE AT CHICAGO.

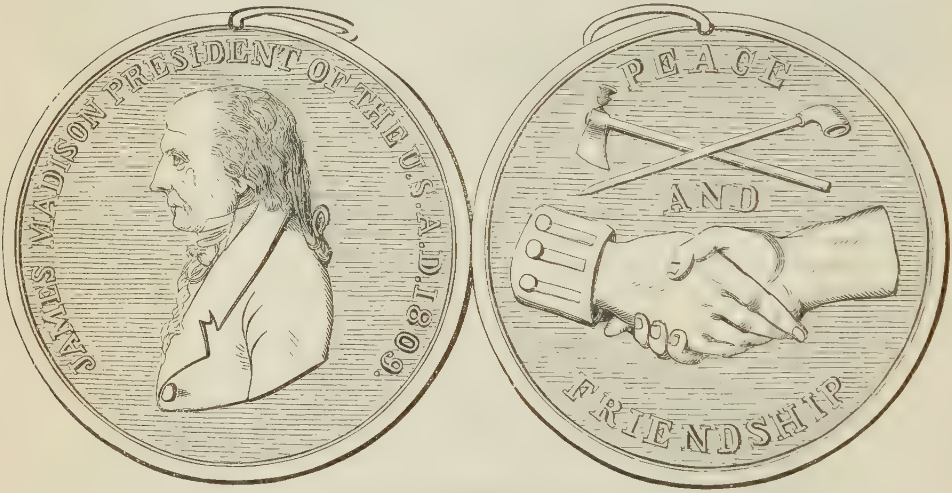
Chicago as a Food-Centre. Chicago was first surveyed for a village in 1829. In 1840 its population was 4853; now (1880) its population is more than 400,000. It is the focus of a vast railway system, and is the greatest food-centre in the world. It connects with fully 10,000 miles of railroad, all tributary to Chicago, which make an annual profit of over $40,000,000, out of more than $100,000,000 of receipts. No less than three hundred and fifty trains enter and leave Chicago daily. The total receipt of breadstuffs in 1870 was 100,000,000 bushels, consisting of wheat, say 15,000,000 bushels; Indian corn, at least 55,000,000 bushels; oats, full 20,000,000 bushels; and rye, barley, and flour. The total amount of breadstuffs shipped from there in 1875 was about 90,000,000 bushels. A vast number of hogs are slaughtered and packed in Chicago.



KINZIE MANSION AND FORT DEARBORN.

Chicago, MASSACRE AT. On the site of the city of Chicago, in 1812, were Fort Dearborn, the dwelling of Mr. Kinzie, an Indian trader from Quebec (on the north side of the river), and the huts of a few settlers. The garrison of the fort was commanded by Captain N. Heald, assisted by Lieutenant Helm. The young wives of both officers were in the fort. The garrison and the family of Mr. Kinzie were on friendly terms with the surrounding Indians, until the spring of 1812, when the hostile feelings created by

British emissaries first became slightly manifest. A scalping party of Winnebagoes made a raid on a settlement near Chicago in April, and during the early part of the ensuing summer the inhabitants saw, with alarm, the continual gathering of Indians near. On Aug. 7 a friendly Pottawatomie chief arrived with a letter from General Hull, notifying Heald of the declaration of war and fall of Mackinaw, and advising him, if expedient, to evacuate the fort and distribute all the United States property there among the neighboring Indians. Heald was advised by this chief and by Kinzie to leave the fort and let the Indians distribute the property themselves. "While they are doing this," they said, "you and the white people may reach Fort Wayne in safety." Heald, soldier-like, resolved to obey his orders. He called them to a council the next day (Aug. 12), told them to come and receive the property, and accepted their offer to escort the white people through the wilderness to Fort Wayne. It was a fatal mistake, soon perceived. Black Partridge, a friendly chief, unable to control his warriors, came quietly to the commander, and said, "Father, I come to deliver to you the medal I wear. It was given me by the Americans, and I have long worn it in token of our mutual friendship. But our young men are resolved to imbrue their hands in the blood of the white people. I cannot restrain them, and I will not wear a token of peace while I am compelled to act as an enemy." This warning was strangely unheeded. The less honorable Indians promised good conduct, but there were unmistakable signs of treachery, and when the morning arrived for the departure of the white people (Aug. 15), it was clearly seen that the barbarians intended to murder them. With that conviction, the garrison and white settlers went out of the gate of the fort in procession, like a funeral march. The band struck up the "Dead March in Saul." The wives of Heald and Helm rode on horseback by the side of their husbands; the former, a good shot, was armed with a rifle. They had not gone far when their savage escort, five hundred strong, fell upon them, and a sharp and bloody conflict ensued. Rebecca Heald behaved bravely. She received several wounds, but, though bleeding and faint, she kept her saddle; and when a fierce savage raised his tomahawk to slay her, she said, in a sweet voice, in his own language, and with half a smile, "Surely you'll not kill a squaw!" The appeal saved her life, and she lived until the year 1860. A young savage attempted to tomahawk Mrs. Helm. She sprang to one side, receiving the blow on her shoulder, and at the same instant seized the barbarian around his neck and endeavored to get hold of his scalping-knife. While thus struggling, she was dragged from her antagonist by another Indian, who bore her to the shore of the lake and plunged her in, at the same time saving her from drowning. It was a friendly hand that held her—the Pottawatomie chief Blackbird, who would have saved the white people if he could. He gave Captain Heald such warning as he dared. On the night before the evacuation of the fort he had said to him, "Linden birds have been singing in my ears to-day; be careful on the march you are going to take." On that bloody field, now in the suburbs of the great city of Chicago, other women performed acts of heroism. Meanwhile, Captain Heald had made terms for surrender, and the massacre was stayed. The prisoners were distributed among the captors, and were finally reunited or restored to their friends and families. In this affair, twelve children, who were in a wagon, all the masculine civilians excepting Mr. Kinzie and his sons, three officers, and twenty-six private soldiers were murdered. On the following day the fort was burned by the Indians. Among the slain was Captain Wells, Mrs. Heald's uncle, who came from Fort Wayne with some mounted Miamis who were friendly. He knew the danger, and had hastened to attempt to divert it. He was too late, for the fort was abandoned when he


JAMES MADISON PRESIDENT OF THE U.S. A.D. 1809
PEACE
AND
FRIENDSHIP

THE BLACK PARTRIDGE MEDAL.

arrived. His cowardly Miamis fled at the first onset of the Pottawatomies, and he was crushed by overwhelming numbers.

Chickahominy, McClellan on the. The General pressed forward from the "White House," on the Pamunkey, to Cool Arbor, near the Chickahominy River, where he made his headquarters, within nine miles of Richmond. General Casey's division of General Keyes's corps crossed the river, and occupied the heights on the Richmond side of the stream, supported by troops under General Heintzelman. Along the line of the Chickahominy the National and Confederate armies lay, confronting each other, at the close of May, 1862, separated by a narrow, sluggish stream, liable to a sudden overflow of its banks and filling the adjacent swamps. There the two commanders waited for decisive results in the Shenandoah Valley, each expecting reinforcements from that region.

Chickamauga, Battle of (1863). Rosecrans, erroneously supposing Bragg had begun a retreat towards Rome when he abandoned Chattanooga and marched southward through the gaps of Missionaries Ridge, pushed his forces through the mountain passes, and was surprised to find his antagonist, instead of retreating, concentrating his forces to attack the attenuated line of the Nationals, the extremities of which were then fifty miles apart. Rosecrans proceeded at once to concentrate his own forces; and very soon the two armies were confronting each other in battle array on each side of Chickamauga Creek, in the vicinity of Crawfish Spring, each line extending towards the slope of Missionaries Ridge. Rosecrans did not know that Lee had sent troops from Virginia, under Longstreet, to reinforce Bragg, and who was then making his way up from Atlanta to swell the Confederate forces to the number of full 70,000 men. Johnson, in Mississippi, also sent thousands of prisoners, paroled at Vicksburg and Port Hudson, to still further reinforce Bragg. In battle order on Chickamauga Creek (Sept. 19, 1863), the Confederate right was commanded by General Polk, and the left by General Hood until Longstreet should arrive. During the previous night nearly two thirds of the Confederates had crossed to the west side of the creek, and held the fords from Lee and Gordon's mills far towards Missionaries Ridge. Rosecrans's concentrated army did not then number more than 55,000 men. General George H. Thomas, who was on the extreme left of the National line, on the slopes of Missionaries Ridge, by a movement to capture an isolated Confederate brigade, brought on a battle (Sept. 19) at ten o'clock, which raged with great fierceness until dark, when the Nationals seemed to have the advantage. It had been begun by Croxton's brigade of Brannan's division, which struggled sharply with Forrest's cavalry. Thomas sent Baird's division to assist Croxton, when other Confederates became engaged, making the odds against the Nationals, when the latter, having driven the Confederates, were in turn pushed back. The pursuers dashed through the lines of United States regulars and captured a Michigan battery and about 500 men. In the charge all of the horses and most of the men of the batteries were killed. At that moment a heavy force of Nationals came up and joined in the battle. They now outnumbered and outflanked the Confederates, and, attacking them furiously, drove them back in disorder for a mile and a half on their reserves. The lost battery was recovered, and Brannan and Baird were enabled to re-form their shattered columns. There was a lull, but at five o'clock the Confederates renewed the battle, and were pressing the National line heavily, when Hazen, who was in charge of a park of artillery — twenty guns — hastened to put them in position, with such infantry supports as he could gather, and brought them to bear upon the Confederates, at short range, as they dashed into the road in pursuit of the Nationals. The pursuers recoiled in disorder, and thereby the day was saved on the left. Night closed the combat. There had been some lively artillery work on the National right during the day; and at three o'clock in the afternoon Hood threw two of his divisions upon General Davis's division of McCook's corps, pushing it back and capturing a battery. Davis fought with great pertinacity until near sunset, when a brigade of Sheridan's division came to his aid. Then a successful countercharge was made; the Confederates were driven back, the battery was retaken, and a number of Confederates were made prisoners. That night General Hindman came to the Confederates with his division, and Longstreet arrived with two brigades of McLaws's veterans from Virginia, and took command of the left of Bragg's army. Preparations were made for a renewal of the struggle in the morning. It was begun (Sept. 20), after a dense fog had risen from the earth, between eight and nine o'clock. The conflict was to have been opened by Polk at daylight on the National left, but he failed. Meanwhile, under cover of the fog, Thomas received reinforcements, until nearly one half of the army of the Cumberland present were under his command, and had erected breastworks of logs, rails, and earth. The battle was begun by an attack by Breckinridge. The intention was to interpose an overwhelming force between Rosecrans and Chattanooga, which Thomas had prevented the previous day. An exceedingly fierce struggle ensued, with varying fortunes for the combatants. The carnage on both sides was frightful. Attempts to turn the National flank were not successful, for Thomas and his veterans stood like a wall in the way. The conflict for a while was equally severe at the centre; and the blunder of an incompetent staff officer, sent with orders to General Wood, produced disaster on the National right. A gap was left in the National line, when Hood, with Stewart, charged furiously, while Buckner advanced to their support. The charge, in which Davis and Brannan and Sheridan were struck simultaneously, isolated five brigades, which lost forty per cent. of their number. By this charge the National right wing was so shattered that it began crumbling, and was soon seen flying in disorder towards Chattanooga, leaving thousands behind, killed, wounded, or prisoners. The tide carried with it the troops led by Rosecrans, Crittenden, and McCook; and the commanding general, unable to join Thomas, and believing the whole army would speedily be hurrying pell-mell to Chattanooga, hastened to that place to provide for rallying them there. Thomas, meanwhile, ignorant of the disaster on the right, was maintaining his position firmly. Sheridan and Davis, who had been driven over to the Dry Valley road, rallying their shattered columns, re-formed them by the way, and, with McCook, halted and changed front at Rossville, with a determination to defend the pass at all hazards against the pursuers. Thomas finally withdrew from his breastworks and concentrated his troops, and formed his line on a slope of Missionaries Ridge. Wood and Brannan had barely time to dispose their troops properly, when they were furiously attacked, the Confederates throwing in fresh troops continually. General Granger, commanding reserves at Rossville, hastened to the assistance of Thomas with Steedman's division. The latter fought his way to the crest of a hill, and then turning his artillery upon his assailants, drove them down the southern slope of the ridge with great slaughter. They returned to the attack with an overwhelming force, determined to drive the Nationals from the ridge, and pressed Thomas most severely. Finally, when they were moving along a ridge and in a gorge, to assail his right flank and rear, Granger formed two brigades (Whittaker's and Mitchell's) into a charging party, and hurled them against the Confederates led by Hindman. Steedman led the charging party, with a regimental flag in his hand, and soon won a victory. In the space of twenty minutes the Confederates disappeared, and the Nationals held both the ridge and gorge. Very soon a greater portion of the Confederate army were swarming around the foot of the ridge, on which stood Thomas with the remnant of seven divisions of the army of the Cumberland. The Confederates were led by Longstreet. There seemed no hope for the Nationals. But Thomas stood like a rock, and his men repulsed assault after assault until the sun went down, when he began the withdrawal of his troops to Rossville, for his ammunition was almost exhausted. General Garfield, Rosecrans's chief of staff, had arrived with orders for Thomas to take the command of all the forces, and, with McCook and Crittenden, to take a strong position at Rossville. It was then that Thomas had the first reliable information of disaster on the right. Confederates seeking to obstruct the movement were driven back, with a loss of 200 men made prisoners. So ended the battle of Chickamauga. The National loss was reported at 16,326, of whom 1687 were killed. The total loss of officers was 974. It is probable the entire Union loss, including the missing, was 19,000. The Confederate loss was reported at 20,500, of whom 2673 were killed. Rosecrans took 2003 prisoners, 36 guns, 20 caissons, and 8450 small-arms, and lost, as prisoners, 7500. Bragg claimed to have captured over 8000 prisoners (including the wounded), 51 guns, and 15,000 small-arms. The Confederates were victors on the field, but their triumph was not decisive. On the evening of the 20th the whole National army withdrew in good order to a position in front of Chattanooga, and on the following day Bragg advanced and took possession of Lookout Mountain and the whole of Missionaries Ridge.

Chickasaw Bayou, BATTLE OF. When General W. T. Sherman came down from Memphis to engage in the siege of Vicksburg, late in 1862, with about twenty thousand men and some heavy siege guns, he was joined by troops from Helena, Ark., and was met by a gunboat fleet, under Admiral Porter, at the mouth of the Yazoo River, just above the city (Dec. 25). The two commanders arranged a plan for attacking Vicksburg in the rear. They went up the Yazoo to capture some batteries at Chickasaw Bayou and other points. The Yazoo sweeps round in a great bend within a few miles of Vicksburg. The range of hills on which Vicksburg stands extends to the Yazoo, about twelve miles above the city, where they terminate in Haines's Bluff. There is a deep natural ditch extending from the Yazoo below Haines's Bluff to the Mississippi, called Chickasaw Bayou, passing near the bluffs, which were fortified, and along their bases were rifle-pits for sharpshooters. This bayou lay in the path of Sherman's march up the bluffs, which must be carried to gain the rear of Vicksburg. His troops moved in four columns, commanded respectively by Generals Morgan, A. J. Smith, Morgan L. Smith, and F. Steele. They moved on Dec. 27, bivouacked without fire that night, and proceeded to the attack the next morning. The Nationals drove the Confederate pickets across the bayou, and everywhere the ground was so soft that causeways of logs had to be built for the passage of troops and artillery. The Nationals were seriously enfiladed by the Confederate batteries and sharpshooters. The right of the Confederates was commanded by General F. P. Blair, who led the way across the bayou over a bridge his men had built, captured two lines of rifle-pits, and fought desperately to gain the crest of the hill before him. Others followed, and a severe battle ensued. Pemberton, the Confederate chief, had arrived, and so active were the Confederates on the bluffs that the Nationals were repulsed with heavy loss. Blair lost one third of his brigade. Darkness closed the struggle, when Sherman had lost about two thousand men, and his antagonists only two hundred and seven.

Chickasaws. This tribe of the Creek confederacy inhabited the country along the Mississippi from the borders of the Choctaw domain to the Ohio River, and eastward beyond the Tennessee to the lands of the Cherokees and Shawnoese. They were warlike, and were the early friends of the English and the inveterate foes of the French, who twice (1736 and 1740) invaded their country under Bienville and De

Noailles. The Chickasaws said they came from west of the Mississippi, under the guardianship of a great dog, with a pole for a guide. At night they stuck the pole in the ground, and went the way it leaned every morning. Their dog was drowned in crossing the Mississippi, and after a while their pole, in the interior of Alabama, remained upright, and there they settled. De Soto passed a winter among them (1540–41), when they numbered ten thousand warriors. These were reduced to four hundred and fifty when the French seated themselves in Louisiana. Wars with the new-comers and surrounding tribes occurred until the middle of the eighteenth century. They favored the English in the Revolution, when they had about one thousand warriors. They joined the white people against the Creeks in 1795, and always remained the friends of the pale faces; and, in 1818, they had ceded all their lands north of the State of Mississippi. Some of the tribe had already emigrated to Arkansas. In 1834 they ceded all their lands to the United States, amounting to over 6,400,000 acres, for which they received $3,646,000. Then they joined the Choctaws, who spoke the same language, and became a part of that nation. During their emigration the small-pox destroyed a large number of their tribe. They did not advance in civilization as rapidly as the Choctaws, and had no schools until 1851. They were politically separated from the Choctaws in 1855, and have since been recognized as a distinct tribe. Led by their agents, who were Southern men, they joined the Confederates, and lost nearly one fourth of their population, much stock, and all their slaves. They gave up 7,000,000 acres of land for four and a half cents an acre, and the money was to go to the freedmen, unless within two years they allowed the negroes to become a part of the tribe. The latter alternative was adopted, Jan. 10, 1873. They are now rapidly advancing in prosperity.

Chickering, Jonas, was born at Mason Village, N. H., April 5, 1798; died in Boston, Dec. 8, 1853. He learned the trade of a cabinet-maker. Being fond of music, he repaired and put in good condition an old piano which he found in the town, and in 1818 he became a workman in a pianoforte manufactory in Boston. In 1823 he set up business for himself, which was extended by forming a partnership in 1830. After his partner's death, in 1841, he continued the business alone, with ample means, introducing very important improvements in the construction of pianos. His sons were associated with him, and they were selling, at the time of his death, about fifteen hundred pianos a year, and gave employment to five hundred workmen. The establishment having been destroyed by fire, he began building a more extensive one, just before his death, which was completed by his sons. The establishment occupies an entire square in the city of Boston. One of the first improvements made by Mr. Chickering was the substitution of iron for wood in the construction of the piano, made upon true geometric and acoustic principles. This was put into operation about the year 1837.

Chief-justice, First, of New Jersey. Roger Mompesson, an English lawyer—a "good-tempered, honest, sober gentleman"—was made the first chief-justice of New Jersey in 1702. He was also judge of the admiralty for New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; attorney-general and chief-justice of Pennsylvania, and also of New York. Though highly spoken of as a man and a lawyer, he was a mere tool in the hands of Lord Cornbury, the Governor of New York and New Jersey.

China, Treaty with (1868). (See *International Law, First Acceptance of, by China.*)

Chinooks. Among the numerous western tribes, the Chinooks in the northwest formed a distinct and interesting nation, but since their contact with the white people they have rapidly decreased. They formerly inhabited the country on each side of the Columbia River from the Grand Dalles to its mouth. The Chinooks proper were on the north side of that stream, and the other division, called Clatsops, were on the south side and along the Pacific coast. Broken into roving bands, they are fading away, and the nation has become almost extinct; and their language, corrupted by French and English traders, is almost obliterated. It was harsh, at the best. There are a very few of them on a reservation in Washington Territory, but these will soon disappear.

Chippewa, Battle of. General Brown took prompt measures to secure the advantages derived by the capture of Fort Erie (see *Canada, Invasion of*, 1814); for it was known that General Riall, who was then in chief command on the Niagara frontier, was moving towards Fort Erie. Early in the morning of July 3 he had sent forward some of the Royal Scots to reinforce the garrison. At Chippewa, at the mouth of Chippewa Creek, they heard of the surrender of the fort, when Riall determined to make an immediate attack upon the Americans on Canadian soil. Hearing that reinforcements were coming from York, he deferred the attack until the next morning. To meet this force, General Brown sent forward General Scott with his brigade, accompanied by Towson's artillery, on the morning of the 4th. Ripley was ordered in the same direction with his brigade, but was not ready to move until the afternoon. Scott went down the Canada side of the Niagara River, skirmishing nearly all the way to Street's Creek, driving back a British advanced detachment. The main portions of Brown's army reached Scott's encampment on the south side of Street's Creek that night, and on the morning of the 5th the opposing armies were only two miles apart. At about noon Scott was joined by General Porter, with his volunteers and Indians. The British had also been reinforced. The two armies were feeling each other for some time, when preliminary skirmishing was begun by Porter with marked success. The Indians behaved gallantly under the leadership of Captain Pollard and the famous Red Jacket. The British advanced corps, severely smitten, fled back in affright towards Chippewa.

Porter pursued, and found himself within a few yards of the entire British force, advancing in battle order. A desperate struggle ensued. Finally the British made a furious charge with bayonets. Hearing nothing from Scott, Porter ordered a retreat. It became a tumultuous rout. It was now towards evening. Brown had been watching Porter's movements with great anxiety, and had ordered Scott to cross Street's Creek, when Porter's flying troops were observed. Riall had sent forward some Royal Scots, part of another regiment of regulars, a regiment of Lincoln militia, and about three hundred Indians. These composed the force that fought Porter. Scott crossed Street's Creek in the face of a heavy cannonade, and very soon the battle raged with fury along the entire line of both armies. Several times the British line was broken and closed up again. Finally a flank movement and a furious charge was made by Major McNeill with Colonel Campbell's Eleventh regiment, and a terrific fire from a corps under Major Jesup in the centre made the British line give way. It broke and fled in haste to the intrenchments below Chippewa Creek. The fugitives tore up the bridge over the creek behind them, leaving an impassable chasm between themselves and the Americans. The battle-field (opposite Navy Island) was strewn with the dead and dying. The Americans lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, three hundred and fifty-five men; the British lost, by the same casualties, six hundred and four men, of whom two hundred and thirty-six were killed. On that hot July evening a gentle shower of rain descended, which mitigated the horrors of the battle-field. Scott was eager to pursue, but was compelled to wait for the tardy Ripley, who did not arrive in time to participate in the battle or to join in an instant pursuit. The immediate results of the battle were important. The Indian allies of the British were disheartened, and nearly all of them left the army and returned to their homes. The Americans were greatly inspirited.

STREET'S CREEK BRIDGE, IN 1861, LOOKING NORTH.

Chippewas, or Ojibways. This Algonquin family, living in scattered bands on the shores and islands of the upper lakes, were first discovered by the French in 1640 at the Saut (rapids) de St. Marie, when they numbered about two thousand. They were then at war with the Iroquois, the Foxes, and the Sioux; and they drove the latter from the head-waters of the Mississippi and from the Red River of the North. The French established missionaries among them, and the Chippewas were the firm friends of these Europeans until the conquest of Canada ended French dominion in America. In 1712 they aided the French in repelling an attack of the Foxes on Detroit. In Pontiac's conspiracy (see *Pontiac*) they were his confederates; and they sided with the British in the war of the Revolution and of 1812. Joining the Miamis, they fought Wayne and were defeated, and subscribed to the treaty at Greenville in 1795. (See *Greenville*). In 1816 they took part in the pacification of the northwestern tribes, and in 1817 they gave up all their lands in Ohio. At that time they occupied a vast and undefined territory from Mackinaw along the line of Lake Superior to the Mississippi River. The limits of this territory were defined by a treaty in 1825, after which they gradually ceded their lands to the United States for equivalent annuities. All but a few bands had gone west of the Mississippi in 1851; and in 1866 the scattered bands in Canada, Michigan, on the borders of Lake Superior, and beyond the Mississippi numbered more than fifteen thousand—about the same as they did sixty years ago. They are now seated on reservations, which embrace in the aggregate five million acres. Their religion is simply a belief in a Good and Evil Spirit, and the deification of the powers of nature. Various denominations have missionaries among the Chippewas.

Chittenden, THOMAS, first governor of the State of Vermont, was born at East Guilford, Conn., Jan. 6, 1730; died at Williston, Vt., Aug. 24, 1797. He had held local offices in his native state before 1774, when he emigrated to the New Hampshire Grants (which see), and settled at Williston. During the Revolution he was an active participant in the councils of his state, and was a leader in the convention which (Jan. 16, 1777) declared Vermont an independent state. He was also a leader in the convention (July, 1777) which formed a constitution for that state, and president of the Council of Safety vested with governmental powers. He was elected governor of Vermont in 1778, and, with the exception of one year, filled that office until his death, during which time the controversy between New York and Vermont was settled and the latter admitted as a state of the Union.

Choate, RUFUS, was born at Essex, Mass., Oct. 1, 1799; died at Halifax, N. S., July 13, 1859. He studied at the Cambridge Law School, and, with William Wirt, became one of the most eminent lawyers and orators of his time. He began the practice of law at Danvers, Mass., in 1824. He was a distinguished member of both branches of his State Legislature, a member of the Lower House of Congress, and United States Senator, succeeding Daniel Webster in 1841. In 1853 he was attorney-general of Massachusetts. After the death of Webster, Mr. Choate was the acknowledged leader of the Massachusetts bar. Impaired health compelled him to retire from business in 1858.

Choctaws, THE, were mostly Mobilians, a peaceful agricultural people. Their domain comprised southern Mississippi and western Alabama. De Soto fought them in 1540. They became allies of the French in Louisiana, where they numbered about two thousand five hundred warriors, and formed forty villages. In the Revolution they were mostly with the English, but were granted peaceable possession of their lands by the United States government. As early as 1800, numbers of them went beyond the Mississippi, and in 1803 it was estimated that five hundred families had emigrated. They were with the United States troops in the war with England and the Creeks, and in 1820 they ceded a part of their lands for a domain in what is now the Indian Territory. In 1830 they ceded the rest of their lands and joined their brethren west of the Mississippi, where the Chickasaws joined them. In 1861 they had a population of twenty-five thousand, with five thousand negro slaves. They were seduced into an alliance with the Confederates in the Civil War, and disaster befell them. They lost an immense amount of property, and their numbers, including the Chickasaws, were reduced to seventeen thousand. Slavery was abolished, and part of their lands was forfeited for the benefit of the freedmen. The Choctaws proper now number about twelve hundred.

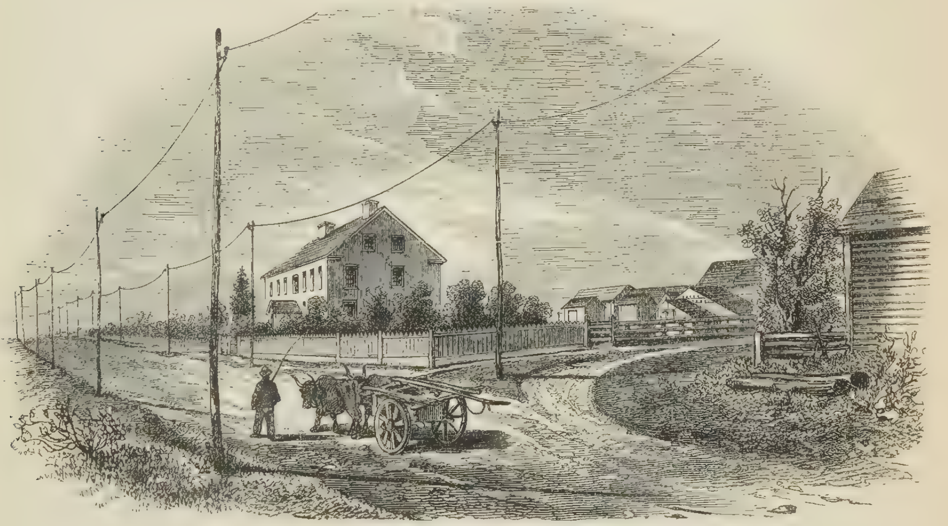
Choctaws, TREATY WITH THE (1786). On Jan. 3, 1786, a treaty was made with the leaders of the Choctaw nation of the same purport, and upon the same terms, as that made with the Cherokees the previous year. (See *Cherokees, Treaty with*, 1785.)

Choiseul and the Americans. Duke de Choiseul was at the head of the French ministry in talent, when, in 1761, cabinet changes in England threatened to diminish the power of that government. He was minister of foreign affairs, and in January, 1761, became minister of war, and annexed those departments to the marine. Like Pitt, he was a statesman of consummate ability. He was of high rank and very wealthy, and was virtually sole minister of France. When the British had despoiled France of her American possessions (see *Treaty of Paris*), Choiseul eagerly watched for an opportunity to inflict a retaliatory blow; and he was delighted when he perceived that a rising quarrel between Great Britain and her American colonies foreshadowed a dismemberment of the British empire. Choiseul determined to foster the quarrel as far as possible. He sent the Baron de Kalb to America in the disguise of a traveller, but really as a French emissary, to ascertain the temper of the people towards the mother country. The report of the baron did not warrant the hope of an immediate rupture. But Choiseul waited and watched, and in the summer of 1768 he saw reasons for expecting an almost immediate outbreak of rebellion in America. He wrote to the French minister in London that facts and not theories must shape French action at that crisis. He proposed to make a commercial treaty with the discontented colonies, both of importation and exportation, at the moment of rupture, the advantages of which might cause them at once to detach themselves from the British government. He believed the separation must come sooner or later, and wished to hasten the hoped-for event. He perceived the difficulties that stood in the way of the consummation of his scheme, weighed their evils, but still persisted. He said to the minister, "I firmly believe and hope this government will so conduct itself as to widen the breach;" and he was sanguine that his plans would result in gratifying the wishes of every Frenchman. But Choiseul had to wait seven years before these wishes were gratified, and then he was dismissed from office by the successor of the old king (Louis XV.) whom he had ruled so long.

Christian Indians, MASSACRE OF (1782). The Moravian missionaries had established three Indian villages of converts on the Tuscarawas River, Ohio—Schönbrunn, Gnadenhutten, and Salem. Gnadenhutten was on the east side of the river, near the (present) village of that name. Here a massacre occurred, March 8, 1782, which has never been surpassed in cool barbarity. These settlements of Christian Indians were situated about half-way between the white settlements near the Ohio River and the warlike Wyandots and Delawares on the Sandusky. The Christian Indians were Delawares. The pagan Wyandots and Delawares were mostly in the British service, or opposed to the colonists. The Christian villagers were between two fires. As Christians, they were friends of peace, and as far as possible maintained a neutral position. Each party in the impending conflict suspected these Indians of complicity in the schemes and conduct of the other. In March, 1782, some murders committed in the vicinity of Pittsburgh by a wandering party of Shawnoese were ascribed to the Christian Indians, or to warriors whom they had entertained, and eighty or ninety men of that neighborhood, under Colonel Williamson, as volunteer militia, marched to take vengeance. Arrived at Gnadenhutten (March 5), they found some Indians who were gathering corn, which they had been compelled to leave standing and flee to Sandusky several months before. The white people sent for the Indians of a neighboring village, when all were confined in two houses, while a council of war was held to decide their fate. The prisoners were all bound. The men were placed in one house, the women in the other—altogether nearly one hundred. The question was put by Colonel Williamson whether the Moravian Indians should be taken to Fort Pitt (as they had been promised they should be), or put to death. Only sixteen voted for mercy; the remainder, holding the belief on the frontier that "an Indian has no more soul than a buffalo," voted for murder. Then the white furies rushed on the helpless Christian Indians and murdered and scalped the whole of them, and laid the village in ashes. Flushed by this success, four hundred and eighty men, under Colonels Williamson and Crawford, attempted the destruction of all the Christian Indians by assailing Sandusky. They intended to strike a blow at the town of the hostile Wyandots, but were waylaid by the latter with an overwhelming force and compelled to retreat. Crawford, his son and sons-in-law, fell into their hands, and were tortured and burned alive in revenge for the cold-blooded murder of their innocent brethren at Gnadenhutten.

"Christian Quakers." In 1692 there was a schism among the Friends, or Quakers, in Pennsylvania, caused by the action of George Keith, a Scotch Friend, formerly surveyor of East Jersey, and at this time master of the Friends' school at Philadelphia. He was a champion of the Quakers against Cotton Mather and the Boston ministers. He pressed the doctrine of non-resistance to its logical conclusion, that this principle was not consistent with the exercise of political authority. He also attacked negro slavery as inconsistent with those principles. So sharply did Keith criticise the shortcomings of his co-religionists that he was disowned by the Yearly Meeting, when he forthwith instituted a meeting of his own, to which he gave the name of "Christian Quakers." A *Testimony of Denial* was put forth against Keith, who replied in a published address, in which he handled his adversaries without mercy. The Quaker magistrates fined him for "insolence," and William Bradford, the only printer in the colony, was called to account for having published Keith's address. He was discharged, but was so annoyed that he removed his printing business to New York.

Chrysler's Field, BATTLE OF (1813). When Wilkinson's expedition down the River St. Lawrence (which see) against Montreal, composed of land troops borne by a flotilla of boats, arrived at a point four miles below that city, information reached the commander of the expedition that the opposite shore of the river was lined with posts of musketry and artillery, and that a large reinforcement of British troops under Lieutenant-colonel Morrison had arrived at Prescott. Wilkinson had already ordered Colonel Alexander Macomb, with twelve hundred of the best troops of the army, to cross the river to oppose the British detachments on the Canadian side (Nov. 7, 1813), and these were soon followed by riflemen under Lieutenant-colonel Forsyth, who did excellent service in the rear of Macomb. When news was received of the arrival of reinforcements at Prescott, Wilkinson called a council of war (Nov. 8), and it was decided "to proceed with all possible rapidity to the attack of Montreal." General Brown was at once ordered to cross the river with his brigade and some dragoons. Morrison's troops, full one thousand strong, had come down to Prescott in armed schooners, with several gunboats and bateaux under Captain Mulcaster, and were joined by provincial infantry and dragoons under Lieutenant-colonel Pearson. They pushed forward, and on the morning of the 9th were close upon Wilkinson, and the land troops were debarked to pursue the Americans—two thousand men, including cavalry. General Boyd and his brigade were now detached to reinforce Brown, with orders to cover his march, to attack the pursuing enemy if necessary, and to co-operate with the other commanders. Wilkinson now found himself in a perilous position, for the British armed vessels were close upon his flotilla, and the British land troops were hanging upon the rear of Brown and Boyd. The latter also encountered detachments coming up from below. The British gunboats attacked the flotilla, but Wilkinson made such disposition of his cannons in battery on the shore that they were repulsed, and fled up the river. Brown had captured a British post at the foot of the rapids, and Wilkinson had just issued orders for the flotilla to proceed down these rapids, and Boyd to resume his march, when a British column attacked the rear of the latter. Boyd turned upon his antagonist, and a sharp battle ensued. General Swartwout was detached with his brigade to assail the British vanguard, and General Covington took position at supporting distance from him. Their antagonists were driven back out of the woods on the main line in the open fields of John Chrysler, a British militia captain then in the service. That line was covered by Mulcaster's gunboats, and protected in part by deep ravines. Then General Covington led his brigade against the British left, near the river, and the battle became general. By charge after charge the British were forced back nearly a mile, and the American cannons, under the direction of Colonel J. G. Swift, did excellent execution. At length Covington fell, seriously wounded, and the ammunition of the Americans began to fail. It was soon exhausted, and Swartwout's brigade, hard pushed, slowly fell back, followed by others. The British perceived this retrograde movement, followed up the advantage gained with great vigor, and were endeavoring by a flank movement to capture Boyd's cannons, when a gallant charge of cavalry, led by Adjutant-general Walbach, whom Armstrong had permitted to accompany the expedition, drove them back and saved the pieces. The effort was renewed. Lieutenant Smith, who commanded one of the cannons, was mortally wounded, and the piece was seized by the British. For five hours the conflict had been carried on in the midst of sleet and snow, and victory had swayed between the belligerents like a pendulum. It would doubtless have rested with the Americans had their ammunition held out. Their retreat was promising to be a rout, when the fugitives were met by six hundred troops under Colonel Upham and Major Malcolm, whom Wilkinson had sent up to the support of Boyd. These checked the flight, drove back the British, and saved the American army. Meanwhile Boyd had re-formed a portion of the army, and then awaited another attack. It was not made. The Americans, under cover of darkness, retired to their boats unmolested. Neither party had gained a victory, but the advantage lay with the British, who held the field. The British army on that occasion was slightly superior in numbers, counting its Indian allies. The Americans lost in the battle, in killed and wounded, three hundred and thirty-nine; the British lost one hundred and eighty-seven. On the morning after the battle the flotilla, with the gunboats and troops, passed safely down the rapids, and three miles above Cornwall they formed a junction with the forces under General Brown. There Wilkinson was informed that Hampton, whom he had invited in Armstrong's name to meet him at St. Regis, had refused to join him. A council of war (Nov. 12, 1813) decided that it was best to abandon the expedition against Montreal, although it was said there were not more than six hundred troops there, and put the army into winter-quarters at French Mills, on the Salmon River, which was done. Thus ended in disaster and disgrace an expedition, conducted by an incompetent leader, which in its inception promised salutary results.



CHRYSLER'S IN 1855.

Church, Anglican, THE EARLY, IN NEW ENGLAND. In 1630 about one thousand emigrants arrived in Massachusetts from England, under the leadership of John Winthrop, who had been appointed governor under the royal charter. Winthrop brought the charter with him. On the day before they sailed from the Isle of Wight the leaders sent an address to "the rest of the brethren in and of the Church of England," and spoke of that church with affection as their "dear mother." This was to correct a "misreport" that the emigrants intended to separate from the church. Notwithstanding this dutiful address, when they set foot on American soil a sense of freedom overcame their allegiance, and, following the example of the "Plymouthians" and Endicott, they established separate churches, and chose their own officers. Without any express renunciation of the authority of the Church of England, the Plymouth people had laid aside its liturgy and rituals. Endicott followed this example at Salem, and had the sympathy of three "godly ministers" there — Higginson, Skelton, and Bright; also of Smith, a sort of interloper. A church was organized there — the first in New England, for that at Plymouth was really in a formative state yet. Skelton was appointed pastor and Higginson teacher. All of the congregation were not prepared to lay aside the liturgy of the Church of England, and two of them (John and Samuel Browne) protested, and set up a separate worship. The energetic Endicott promptly arrested the "malcontents" and sent them to England. Following up the system adopted at Salem, the emigrants, under the charter of 1630, established Nonconformist churches wherever settlements were planted—Charlestown, Watertown, Boston, Dorchester, etc. At Salem the choice of minister and teacher was made as follows: "Every fit member wrote in a note the name whom the Lord moved him to think was fit for pastor," and so likewise for teacher. Skelton was chosen for the first office, Higginson for the second. When they accepted, three or four of the gravest members of the church laid their hands upon Mr. Skelton, using prayer therewith. The same was done to Mr. Higginson. Such was the first New England ordination.

Church, BENJAMIN, was born at Plymouth, Mass., in 1639; died at Little Compton, R. I., Jan. 17, 1718. He was a brave military leader in King Philip's War (which see); commanded the party by whom Philip was slain (August, 1676); and with his own sword cut off the head of the dusky monarch. He commanded an expedition against the Eastern Indians in 1689, and afterwards led four other expeditions against the Indians in Maine. He is represented by his contemporaries as distinguished as much for his integrity, justice, and purity as for his military exploits.

Church, COLONEL, IN THE BAY OF FUNDY. In retaliation for the capture of the fort at Pemaquid (which see), the veteran Indian fighter Colonel Church made an amphibious foray up the Bay of Fundy. Iberville's squadron (see *Pemaquid*) just escaped capture by that of Church. The latter went on shore, burned the houses of the French settlers at Beau Bassin (the westernmost recess of that bay), and destroyed their cattle, which constituted their chief wealth; but an attempt to dislodge the French at St. John was a failure.

Church, DR. BENJAMIN. (See *First Traitor, The.*)

Church, FREDERICK EDWIN, artist, was born at Hartford, Conn., May 4, 1826. He was a pupil of Thomas Cole (which see). He was first brought into notice by some pictures of scenery in the Catskill Mountains. In 1853 he went to South America, visiting New Granada and Ecuador, where he obtained materials for many landscapes among the great mountain chains of the Andes. He made a second journey thither in 1857, and, after his return, produced some admirable paintings of scenery there, notably "The Heart of the Andes." His picture of Niagara Falls, afterwards duplicated by chromo-printing, is regarded as his masterpiece. In 1868 he visited the Holy Land, and found materials for some exquisite paintings, made after his return.

Church of England in New York. Efforts were early made by the English to supplant the Dutch Church as the prevailing religious organization in New York. The act of the Assembly procured by Governor Fletcher, though broad in its scope, was destined for that purpose. Under that act Trinity Church was organized, and Fletcher tried to obtain authority to appoint all the ministers, but the Assembly successfully resisted his designs. In 1695 Rev. John Miller, in a long letter to the Bishop of London on the condition of religion and morals, drew a gloomy picture of the state of society in the city of New York, and earnestly recommended as a remedy for all these social evils "to send over a bishop to the Province of New York duly qualified as suffragan" to the Bishop of London, and five or six young ministers, with Bibles and prayer-books; to unite New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Rhode Island into one province; and the bishop to be appointed governor, at a salary of $7200, his majesty to give him the King's Farm of thirty acres, in New York, as a seat for himself and his successors. When Sir Edward Hyde (afterwards Lord Cornbury) became governor of the combined provinces of New York and New Jersey, in 1702, even violent efforts were used to make the liturgy and ritual of the Church of England the State system of worship. He denied the right of preachers or schoolmasters to exercise their functions in the province without a bishop's license; and when the corporation of New York resolved to establish a grammar-school, the Bishop of London was requested to send over a teacher. In violation of his positive instructions, the governor began a systematic persecution of all religious denominations dissenting from the practices of the Church of England. This conduct reacted disastrously to Trinity Church, which, until the province was rid of Cornbury, had a very feeble growth. (See *Cornbury.*)

Church's Expedition. In May, 1704, Governor Dudley sent, from Boston, an expedition to the eastern bounds of New England. It consisted of five hundred and fifty soldiers, under Colonel Benjamin Church. The campaign then undertaken against the French and Indians continued all summer, and Church inflicted much damage to the allies at Penobscot and Passamaquoddy.

Church's Expedition to the Androscoggin. While Phipps was operating against Quebec in 1690, Colonel Church (which see) was sent on an expedition against the eastern Indians. He went up the Androscoggin River to the site of Lewiston, Me., where he destroyed a large quantity of corn, and, "for example," put to death a number of men, women, and children whom he had captured. The Indians retaliated fearfully.

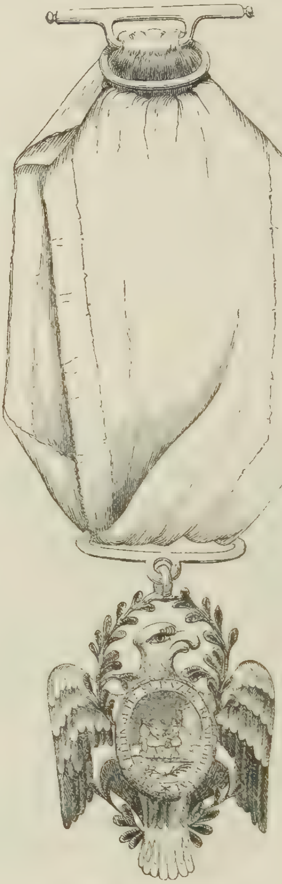
Churubusco, BATTLE OF. After the victory at Contreras (which see), the Americans proceeded to attack the fortresses of San Antonio and Churubusco. The latter is a small village six miles south from the city of Mexico, and connected with it by a spacious causeway. At the head of the causeway, near the village, was erected a strong redoubt, mounted with batteries and heavily garrisoned. This was in front of the bridge over the Churubusco River. The Convent-church of San Pablo, with its massive stone walls, on an eminence, was converted into a fort, and around it was the hamlet, defended by a covering of stone walls and a heavy stone building fortified. The outside walls were pierced for cannons, high enough to fire plunging shot upon an approaching enemy. All the stores and artillery saved from the wreck of Contreras were gathered at Churubusco, with much sent from the city, for Santa Aña had resolved to make a stand at this place. He was at the city with 12,000 troops. When the Americans began to move forward, the garrison of Antonio, perceiving themselves in great danger of being cut off, abandoned the fort and fled towards Churubusco, attacked and divided on the way. The retreat of the Mexicans from San Antonio and the general march of all the Americans upon Churubusco began the grand movements of the day. The divisions of Twiggs and Pillow were advancing on the west, and on a causeway south the division of Worth was rapidly advancing to storm the redoubt at the bridge. General Scott, at a mile distant from Churubusco, was directing all the movements. The redoubt at the bridge was carried at the point of the bayonet. At the same time Twiggs was assailing the fortified church and hamlet, where a fierce battle raged for some time. There the able Mexican general Rincon commanded, and there three masses of Santa Aña's men opposed General Shields. The veterans of General Persifer F. Smith, who had captured Contreras, were conspicuous in this fearful contest. The most desperate defence at the church was made by one hundred deserters from the American army, led by Thomas Riley. The alarmed Mexicans several times hoisted a white flag, in token of surrender, when these Americans with halters about their necks as often tore it down. The battle raged three hours, when the church and the other defences of Churubusco were captured. Meanwhile Generals Shields and Pierce (afterwards President of the United States) were battling furiously with Santa Aña's men, partly in the rear of the defences of Churubusco. The Mexicans were there 7000 strong—4000 infantry and 3000 cavalry—but victory again crowned the Americans. This was the *fifth* victory won on that memorable 20th of August, 1847—Contreras, San Antonio, the redoubt at the bridge, the Church of San Pablo, and with Santa Aña's troops. In fact, the combined events of that day formed one great contest over a considerable extent of territory, and might properly be known in history as the "Battle of the Valley of Mexico." The number engaged on that day was 9000 effective American soldiers and 32,000 Mexicans. The result was the capture by the former of the exterior line of Mexican defences, opening the causeway to the city and leaving it no other resources but its fortified gates and the Castle of Chapultepec. Full 4000 Mexicans had been killed or wounded that day; 3000 were made prisoners. Thirty-seven pieces of fine artillery had been captured, with a vast amount of munitions of war. The Americans lost, in killed and wounded, about 1100 men.

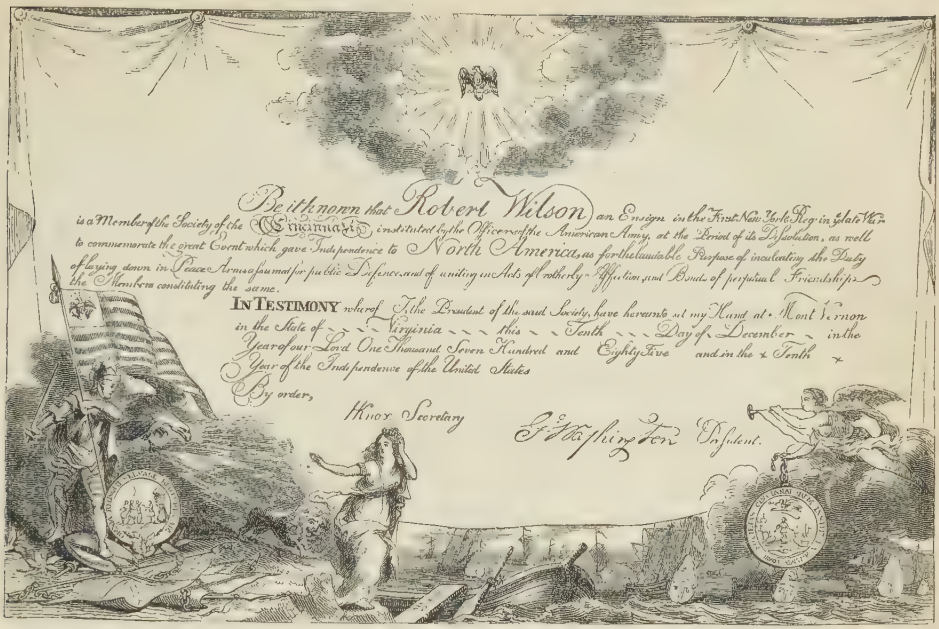
VIEW OF CINCINNATI FROM NEWPORT IN 1812. (See page 250.)

Cincinnati Defended. General E. Kirby Smith, invading Kentucky in advance of Bragg (see *Bragg's Invasion*), pushed on towards the Ohio River with the purpose of capturing Cincinnati. The invader was confronted by an unexpected force near that city. General Lew Wallace was at Cincinnati when news of the disaster at Richmond, Ky. (which see), reached that place. He was ordered by General Wright to resume the command of Nelson's shattered forces, but was called back to provide for the defence of Cincinnati. Half an hour after his arrival he issued a stirring proclamation (Sept. 1, 1862) as commander of that and the cities of Covington and Newport, on the Kentucky side of the river. He officially informed the inhabitants of the swift approach of the invaders in strong force, and called upon the citizens to act promptly and vigorously in preparing defences for the city. He ordered all places of business to be closed, and the citizens of Cincinnati, under the direction of the mayor, to assemble, an hour afterwards, in convenient public places, to be organized for work on intrenchments on the south side of the river. He ordered the ferry-boats to cease running, and proclaimed martial law in the three cities. This was a bold, startling, but necessary proceeding. The principle of action embodied in the proclamation was, "Citizens for labor; soldiers for the battle." Wallace demanded the services of all able-bodied people. The response was wonderful. In a few hours he had an army of workers and fighters forty thousand strong. They streamed across the river on a pontoon bridge and swarmed upon the hills about Covington. Within three days after the proclamation a line of intrenchments ten miles in length, of semicircular form, was constructed. These were just completed, when full fifteen thousand of Smith's troops appeared. Astonished and alarmed, they retreated in great haste. Cincinnati was saved, and the citizens gave public honors to General Wallace as the deliverer of the city.

Cincinnati, Founding of. Ensign Luce, of the United States Army, was charged with the selection of a site for a block-house on Symmes's Purchase (which see). Symmes wished him to build it at North Bend, where he was in command of a detachment of troops; but Luce was led farther up the river, to the site of Cincinnati, on account of his love for the pretty young wife of a settler, who went there to reside because of his attentions to her at the Bend. Luce followed and erected a block-house there; and in 1790 Major Doughty built Fort Washington on the same spot. It was on the eastern boundary of the town as originally laid out, between the present Third and Fourth Streets, east of Broadway. A village grew around it. A pedantic settler named it Losantiville, from the words *l'os anti ville,* which he interpreted "the village opposite the mouth"—mouth of Licking Creek. It was afterwards called Cincinnati. The name was suggested by General St. Clair in honor of the Society of the Cincinnati. The fort was made of a number of strongly built log cabins, hewn from the timber that grew on the spot. These were a story and a half high, arranged for soldiers' barracks, and occupied a hollow square enclosing about an acre of ground. In the autumn of 1792 Governor St. Clair arrived at the post and organized the county of Hamilton, and the village of Cincinnati, then begun around the fort, was made the county seat of the territory. In 1812 it contained about two thousand inhabitants. (See illustration, p. 249.)

Cincinnati, Society of the. A few months before the disbanding of the Continental Army (June, 1783) a tie of friendship had been formed among the officers, at the suggestion of General Knox, by the organization, at the cantonment of the troops near Newburg, N. Y. (west side of the Hudson River), of an association known as the "Society of the Cincinnati." Its chief objects were to promote a cordial friendship and indissoluble union among themselves, and to extend benevolent aid to such of its members as might need assistance. Washington was chosen the first president of the society, and remained president-general until his death. General Henry Knox was the first secretary-general. State societies were formed, auxiliary to the general society. To perpetuate the association, it was provided in the constitution of the society that the eldest masculine descendant of an original member should be entitled to wear the Order and enjoy the privileges of the society. The *Order*, or badge, of the society consists of a golden eagle, with enamelling, suspended upon a ribbon. On the breast of the eagle is a medallion, with a device representing Cincinnatus at his plough receiving the Roman senators who came to offer him the chief magistracy of Rome. The members' certificate is eighteen and a half inches in breadth and twenty inches in length. The general Society of the Cincinnati is still in existence, and also state societies. The president-general in 1876 was Hamilton Fish, then Secretary of State, and son of Colonel Nicholas Fish, one of the original members. The Order worn by the president-general at the meetings of the society is a beautifully jewelled one. It was presented to Washington by the French officers. The society met with much jealous opposition from the earnest republicans of the day. Among the most powerful of these opponents was Judge Ædanus Burke, of Charleston, S. C., who, in an able dissertation, undertook to prove that the society created two distinct orders among the Americans — first, a race of hereditary nobles founded on the military, together with the most influential families and men in the State; and, second, the people, or plebeians. These suspicions were natural, but were not justified.


ORDER OF THE CINCINNATI.



Be it known that Robert Wilson an Ensign in the First New York Regt in ye late War is a Member of the Society of the Cincinnati, instituted by the Officers of the American Army, at the Period of its Dissolution, as well to commemorate the great Event which gave Independence to North America, as for the laudable Purpose of inculcating the Duty of laying down in Peace Arms assumed for public Defence, and of uniting in Acts of brotherly Affection, and Bonds of perpetual Friendship the Members constituting the same.

IN TESTIMONY whereof I, the President of the said Society, have hereunto set my Hand at Mount Vernon in the State of Virginia this Tenth Day of December in the Year of our Lord One Thousand Seven Hundred and Eighty Five and in the Tenth Year of the Independence of the United States

By order,

H Knox Secretary

Go Washington President.

SOCIETY OF THE CINCINNATI—MEMBERS' CERTIFICATE.

Circular Letter of Massachusetts (1768). The General Court of Massachusetts, which met Dec. 30, 1767, having appointed a large committee to consider the state of the province, adopted (Feb. 11, 1768) a circular letter, which was addressed to the speakers of the various colonial assemblies, inviting co-operation and mutual consultation concerning the defence of colonial rights. This letter embodied the sentiments of a petition to the king adopted at the same session. It gave great offence to the ministry. When it reached them, Lord Hillsborough, Secretary of State for the colonies, sent instructions to the governor (Bernard) of Massachusetts to call upon the Assembly to rescind the letter, and, in the event of non-compliance, to dissolve that body. It was then the most numerous legislature in America, consisting of one hundred and nine members. Instead of complying with the governor's demand, they made the instructions of Hillsborough a fresh cause of complaint against the ministry. "When Lord Hillsborough knows," said Otis in the Assembly, "that we will not rescind *our* acts, he should apply to Parliament to rescind theirs. Let Britons rescind these measures, or they are lost forever." The House refused to rescind by a vote of ninety-two to seventeen. In a letter to the governor notifying him of their non-compliance, the Assembly said, "If the votes of this House are to be controlled by the directions of a minister, we have left us but a vain semblance of liberty." The governor proceeded to dissolve the Assembly; but before that was accomplished they had prepared a series of accusations against him and a petition to the king to remove him. The answers to the circular letter from other assemblies glowed with sympathy and assurances of co-operation. (See *Hillsborough's Instructions.*)

Citizens. By a change in the political character of the English-American colonies, the word "citizen" took the place of "subject," and was as comprehensive in its application to the inhabitants of the territories included in the United States of America. In our republic every man, woman, and child is a citizen, with regulations as to the exercise of the rights and privileges of citizenship. In this respect our republic differs from those of Greece and of Italy. In the former, citizenship was confined to a body of kindred families. They formed an hereditary caste —"a multitudinous aristocracy." The system had no permanent vitality, and the Greek and Italian republics died out for want of citizens. In the new American republic every one born on American soil was and is a citizen, by virtue of nativity; and, by the grace of statute law, foreign-born persons become citizens by naturalization laws (which see).

City of Magnificent Distances. A popular designation of the city of Washington, the national capital, said to have been first applied by President Madison. It is so called on account of the wide open spaces caused by the peculiar plan of its streets, and being originally laid out on a large scale. It has two sets of rectangular streets, seventy to one hundred feet wide; and these are intersected obliquely by fifteen avenues, from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and sixty feet wide, forming immense open triangles at each intersection. These triangles have been enclosed and planted with trees within a few years, rendering the place less a city of magnificent distances.

City of Notions. A popular name given to the city of Boston, the capital of Massachusetts.

City of Spindles. A popular name given to the city of Lowell, Mass., the greatest cotton manufacturing town in the United States.

City of the Strait. The popular name of Detroit (the French word for "strait"), situated upon the strait between lakes St. Clair and Erie.

Civil Rights Bill. Early in 1866 Congress passed a bill for reducing to statute form the principles of the thirteenth amendment to the Constitution (which see). It guaranteed to every citizen of the United States, without distinction of race or color, equal civil rights. It was passed at the middle of March, by a vote of one hundred and eleven against thirty-eight. It was vetoed by President Johnson on March 27; but this did not prevent its becoming a law by the constitutional vote.

Civil War in Boston Harbor (1644). The civil war in England extended across the sea. The vessels of London, the seat of parliamentary power, furnished with privateering commissions, took every opportunity that offered to attack those of Bristol, and other western ports, that adhered to the king. In July, 1644, a London vessel brought a west-of-England prize into Boston harbor. The captain exhibited a commission from Warwick, High Admiral of New England, and they were allowed to retain their prize; but when another London vessel attacked a Dartmouth ship (September), as she entered Boston harbor with a cargo of fine salt, the magistrates sent an armed force to prevent the capture. Because of a defect in the commission of the privateer, the prize was appropriated as a compensation for a Boston ship which had been captured on the high seas by a royalist vessel. Some persons in Boston declared themselves in favor of the king, when (March, 1645) such turbulent practices were strictly forbidden. A law was soon passed assuring protection to all ships that came as friends; and officers were appointed to keep the peace, and to prevent fighting in Boston harbor, except "by authority."

Civil War in Maryland, THE FIRST. The irrepressible Clayborne (which see) stirred up a sort of politico-religious civil war in Maryland in 1644. Already hatred between the Roman Catholic and Protestant settlers had been engendered. The civil war was then raging in England, and King Charles had commissioned Lord Baltimore, through his colonial officers, to seize any ships belonging to the Parliament party on which his people might lay hands. The ship of Richard Ingle was captured in Maryland waters, but the commander escaped. He joined Clayborne in stirring up the parliamentary, or Puritan, faction in Maryland against the government of Lord Baltimore. Clayborne was then in possession of Kent Island, and there Ingle joined him with a vessel commissioned by Parliament as a letter of marque (which see). The Protestants were then in open rebellion, and the insurrection flamed out with greater vehemence than the Indian war which had just ended; but it did not last so long. The rebels, assisted by disaffected Indians, immediately triumphed, and the governor and his council were compelled to fly to Virginia for safety. For about a year and a half the insurgents held the reins of power, and the horrors of civil war brooded over once happy Maryland. During the turmoil many of the records of the province were destroyed, and a larger portion of them were carried to Virginia by Captain Ingle, and lost. Lord Baltimore wisely commissioned William Stone, a Protestant from Virginia, as governor, and so restored peace to the province.—THE SECOND CIVIL WAR IN MARYLAND broke out in 1655. The republican Parliament, not trusting Lord Baltimore's professions of republicanism implicitly, appointed a commission. of which Clayborne was a member, to govern Virginia. They entered upon their duties with a high hand. Governor Stone was removed. The commissioners took possession of the records, and abolished the authority of Lord Baltimore. A few months afterwards they reinstated Stone, put Kent and Palmer's islands, in the Chesapeake, in the possession of Clayborne, and enabled the "outlaw" to triumph over his old enemy, Lord Baltimore. Cromwell restored Baltimore's power in 1658, and Stone proclaimed the acts of the commissioners rebellious. He unwisely displaced all the officers appointed by them. The incensed commissioners returned to Maryland, deposed Stone, and placed the government in the hands of ten commissioners. These proceedings aroused the passions of the contending factions in Maryland into fearful intensity. The Protestants (the majority in the Assembly), with the narrow bigotry of the early Puritans in Massachusetts, and unmindful of the lessons of the Toleration Act (which see), disfranchised the Roman Catholics and the members of the Church of England in the province, by passing a law declaring that "Papists and Churchmen" were not entitled to the protection of the laws of Maryland. These zealots flogged and imprisoned Quakers, and emulated the narrowness of the authorities in New England. Hearing of these things, Baltimore obtained an audience with Cromwell, and protested against the injustice of Puritan legislation in Maryland. Cromwell assured Baltimore that he disapproved of these acts, and he ordered the commissioners "not to busy themselves about religion, but civil government." So encouraged, Lord Baltimore returned to vindicate his rights. Upbraiding Stone for his want of firmness, he ordered him to raise an army for the restoration of the authority of the proprietary. Stone acted vigorously. He raised a force, consisting chiefly of Roman Catholics, seized the colonial records, resumed the office of governor, and so inaugurated civil war. Skirmishes occurred; and finally a sharp battle was fought between the Roman Catholics and Puritans, early in April, 1655, near the site of Annapolis, in which Stone was defeated and made prisoner. About fifty of his party were killed or wounded. The governor and his colleagues were tried for treason and convicted. Stone's life was spared, but four of his associates were hanged. For several months afterwards anarchy prevailed in Maryland. Then a former insurgent (Fendall) was appointed governor. He was suspected, but by prudent conduct he won the confidence of the Protestant people. On the death of Cromwell there were presages of a change in colonial affairs. The people of Maryland did not wait upon movements in England, but, boldly asserting their supreme authority, dissolved the proprietary portion of the General Assembly in the spring of 1660, and assumed the whole legislative power of the state. The popular representatives gave Fendall a commission as governor.

Civil War in Rhode Island (1842). There was a movement in Rhode Island to adopt a state constitution to take the place of the charter given by Charles II. in 1663, under which the people of Rhode Island had been governed about one hundred and eighty years. Disputes arose concerning the proper methods to be pursued in making the change, and these differences of opinion led to serious events. Two political parties were formed, known respectively as the "Suffrage," or radical party, and the "Law and Order," or conservative party. Each adopted a constitution for the state, and elected a governor and legislature under it; and in May and June, 1843, both parties were armed in support of their respective claims. The state was on the verge of civil war, when the interference of the national authority was invoked. The President sent troops to Rhode Island to maintain the public peace. A free constitution, adopted by the "Law and Order" party in November, 1842, to go into operation on the first Tuesday in May, 1843, was sustained, and became the law of the land. The radical party had elected Thomas W. Dorr governor, and the conservatives had chosen Samuel W. King for chief magistrate. After the public peace was secured and the new government had gone into operation, Mr. Dorr was arrested, tried for treason, convicted, and sentenced to imprisonment for life. The excitement having passed away, he was released in June, 1845, but was deprived of all the civil rights of a citizen. These disabilities were removed in the autumn of 1853. (See *Dorr's Rebellion.*)

Civil War in Virginia. (See *Dunmore's War*, 1775.)

Claiborne, William Charles Cole, was born in Virginia in 1773; died in New Orleans, Nov. 23, 1817. He was a lawyer, and settled in Tennessee, where he became a territorial judge. In 1796 he assisted in framing a state constitution, and was a member of Congress from 1797 to 1801. In 1802 he was appointed governor of the Mississippi Territory, and was a commissioner, with Wilkinson, to take possession of Louisiana when it was purchased from France. On the establishment of a new government in 1804, he was appointed governor; and when the State of Louisiana was organized he was elected governor, serving from 1812 to 1816. In the latter year he became United States Senator, but was prevented from taking his seat on account of sickness.

Claiborne's Campaign against the Creeks. The Southern Creeks, under the direct influence of Weathersford (see *Fort Mimms*) and the British and Spanish officers, were very active and sanguinary in the region of the forks of the Tombigbee and Alabama rivers. General Flournoy ordered (Oct. 12, 1813) General C. C. Claiborne to advance with his army into the heart of the Creek country to defend the white citizens while gathering their crops; to drive the Indians from the frontiers; to follow them to their contiguous towns; and to kill, burn, and destroy all their property—"negroes, horses, and cattle," and other effects—that could not be brought off. This sanguinary order of the Georgia general was instantly obeyed. Claiborne scoured the country on the eastern side of the Tombigbee, dispersing Indian bands here and there. He pushed across to the Alabama with three hundred volunteers, some dragoons and militia, and a band of Choctaw Indians under Pushamataha, and on the east side of the river was joined (Nov. 17) by a regiment of regulars under Colonel Russell. There he constructed a strong stockade, which was named Fort Claiborne, and made it a deposit of supplies. Claiborne apprised Governor Blount and General Jackson of this depot, and also of the arrival at the Spanish fort at Pensacola of English vessels with supplies for the Indians. He determined to push on and share with Jackson and Coffee the danger and honor of bringing the Creeks into submission. With a considerable force, he marched (Dec. 12) in a northeasterly direction eighty miles, and built a stockade for stores, which he called Fort Deposit. Then he pushed on through an almost pathless wilderness thirty miles farther, and approached Econochaca, or Holy Ground, on a bluff on the left bank of the Alabama, the present Powell's Ferry, in Lowndes County. It was a noted place, established by Weathersford (see *Fort Mimms*)

WILLIAM C. C. CLAIBORNE.

after the visit of Tecumtha and the Prophet. After a severe battle, Claiborne, having defeated the Indians, laid the town in ashes. Soon afterwards the terms of enlistment of most of Claiborne's troops expired, and he was compelled to write to the Secretary of War (June 23, 1814) that he had only sixty men left, and that their time was nearly out.

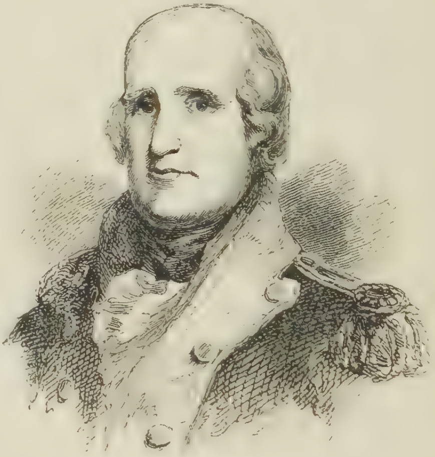
Claims of Connecticut (1662). As soon as Connecticut obtained a royal charter (1662), which embraced also the colony of New Haven (which see), that colony put forth claims under it to territory on Long Island, and all the mainland east of the Hudson. Several Dutch towns on Long Island, peopled chiefly by the English, petitioned Connecticut to receive them. Stuyvesant, alarmed, hastened to Boston to inquire of the commissioners for the united colonies if they considered a former settlement of the boundary binding. Agents were sent on the same errand to Hartford. The New-Englanders all promised fairly; but their actions were suspicious, and Stuyvesant called a convention of deputies to consult upon public affairs. But it was not long before the English claim to New Netherland was enforced by arms.

Clark, ABRAHAM, was born at Elizabethtown, N.J., Feb. 15, 1726; died at Rahway, N.J., Sept. 15, 1794. He was a self-taught, strong-minded, and energetic man. Bred a farmer, he taught himself mathematics and a knowledge of law; and from his habit of giving legal advice gratuitously he was called "the poor man's counsellor." Mr. Clark was a member of the Committee of Public Safety in Elizabethtown, and was appointed (June 21, 1776) one of the five representatives of New Jersey in the Continental Congress, where he voted for and signed the Declaration of Independence. He served in Congress (excepting a single session) until near the close of 1783. He was one of the commissioners of New Jersey who met at Annapolis in 1786 for the purpose of arranging national commercial intercourse, which led to the formation of the National Constitution the following year, in which labor he was chosen to be a participant; but ill-health compelled him to decline. In 1790 he was made a member of the Second National Congress, and retained his seat until a short time before his death.

Clark, ALVAN, artist and astronomer, was born at Ashfield, Mass., March 8, 1804. Reared on a farm, at twenty-two years of age he became a calico engraver at Lowell. He afterwards became a successful portrait-painter; and when over forty years of age he became deeply interested in astronomy and in the construction of telescopes. With instruments of his own manufacture he made several important discoveries, recorded in the "Proceedings of the Royal Astronomical Society" of London. He is the inventor of a double eye-piece, which facilitates the minute measurements of very small celestial arcs. He has been for many years without a rival in the world as the constructor of telescopes. In 1863 the French Imperial Academy of Sciences awarded him the Lalande prize for his discovery of the new star near Sirius with the great reflecting telescope made by himself. With his sons, he is still (1880) engaged in the making of telescopes.

Clarke, ELIJAH, was born in North Carolina; died in Wilkes County, Ga., Dec. 15, 1799. He went to Georgia in 1774, where he became a captain in 1776, and fought both British and Indians on the frontiers. He was an active leader in the war for independence, and was largely instrumental in the capture of Augusta, Ga., in 1781. He fought many battles and made several treaties with the Indians; but in 1794 he was accused of a design to establish an independent government among the Creeks, where he had settled in violation of law.

Clarke, GEORGE ROGERS, born in Albemarle County, Va., Nov. 19, 1752; died near Louisville, Ky., Feb. 13, 1818. He was a land surveyor, and commanded a company in Dunmore's war against the Indians in 1774. He went to Kentucky in 1775, and took command of the armed settlers there. He captured Kaskaskia and other towns in 1778, which, with the surrounding region, were organized into Illinois County, under the jurisdiction of Virginia. Commissioned a colonel, he successfully labored for the pacification of the Indian tribes. Learning that Governor Hamilton, of Detroit, had captured Vincennes, Clarke led an expedition against him (February, 1779), and recaptured it (Feb. 20). He also intercepted a convoy of goods worth ten thousand dollars, and afterwards built Fort Jefferson, on the west side of the Mississippi. The Indians from north of the Ohio, with some British, raided in Kentucky in June, 1780, when Clarke led a force against the Shawnoese on the Great Miami, and defeated them with heavy loss at Pickaway. He served in Virginia during its invasion by Arnold and Cornwallis; and in 1782 he led one thousand mounted riflemen from the mouth of the Licking, and invaded the Scioto Valley, burning five Indian villages and laying waste their plantations. The savages were so awed



GEORGE ROGERS CLARKE.

that no formidable war party ever afterwards appeared in Kentucky. Clarke made an unsuccessful expedition against the Indians on the Wabash with one thousand men in 1786. His great services to his country in making the frontiers a safe dwelling-place were overlooked by his countrymen, and he died in poverty and obscurity.

Clarke, John, one of the founders of Rhode Island, was born in Bedfordshire, Eng., Oct. 8, 1609; died at Newport, R. I., April 20, 1676. He came to Massachusetts, but, espousing the cause of Anne Hutchinson (which see), and claiming full toleration in religious belief, he was obliged to flee. He was welcomed to Providence by Williams. He was one of the company who gained Rhode Island from the Indians, and began a settlement at Pocasset in 1638. A preacher of the Gospel, he founded, at Newport (1644), the second Baptist Church in America. He was treasurer of the colony in 1649. Mr. Clarke was persecuted while visiting friends in Massachusetts, and driven out of the colony. He accompanied Williams to England in 1651 as agent for the colony, where he remained nearly twelve years, and returned (1663) with a second charter for Rhode Island. He resumed his pastorate at Newport, where for three successive years he was deputy-governor of the colony.

Clarke's Resolutions (1861). Perceiving that the labors of the Senate Committee of Thirteen (see *Thirty-sixth Congress*) were simply wasted, Senator Daniel Clarke, of New Hampshire, offered (Jan. 9, 1861) two resolutions as an amendment to the Crittenden Compromise (which see). The first declared that the provisions of the Constitution were ample for the preservation of the Union and the protection of all material interests of the country; that it needed to be obeyed rather than amended; and that an extrication from present danger was to be looked for in strenuous efforts to preserve the peace, protect the public property, and enforce the laws, rather than in any new guarantees for particular interests, compromises for particular difficulties, or concessions to unreasonable demands. The second declared that "all attempts to dissolve the Union, or overthrow or abandon the National Constitution, with the hope or expectation of constructing a new one, were dangerous, illusory, and destructive; that, in the opinion of the Senate of the United States, no such reconstruction is practicable, and therefore to the maintenance of the existing Union and Constitution should be devoted all the energies of the government and the efforts of all good citizens." (See *Thirty-sixth Congress.*) This amendment was adopted by a vote of twenty-five against twenty-three. The leading secessionists in the Senate, who might have carried the Crittenden Compromise, did not vote on this amendment, for they had determined to attempt to dissolve the Union at all hazards. When, on March 2, Mason, of Virginia, called up the Crittenden Compromise, Clarke's amendment was reconsidered and rejected, so that there might be a direct vote on the Crittenden plan. The latter was also rejected (March 3) by a vote of twenty against nineteen.

Clay, Green, was born in Powhatan County, Va., Aug. 14, 1757; died Oct. 31, 1826. Before he was twenty years old he emigrated to Kentucky, where he became a surgeon, and laid the foundation of a fortune. He represented the Kentucky district in the Virginia Legislature, and was a member of the Virginia convention that ratified the National Constitution. He also assisted in framing the Kentucky Constitution in 1799. Mr. Clay served long in the Kentucky Legislature. In the spring of 1813 he led three thousand Kentucky volunteers to the relief of Fort Meigs (which see); and, being left in command of that post, he defended it against an attack by British and Indians under Generals Proctor and Tecumtha.

GREEN CLAY.

Clay, Henry, statesman, was born in Hanover County, Va., April 12, 1777; died at Washington, D. C., June 29, 1852. Taught the rudiments of education in a log-cabin school-house, he labored on a farm until he was fifteen years of age, when he entered the office of the High Court of Chancery, in Richmond, at which time his mother, who had married a second time, emigrated to Kentucky. He studied law under the direction of Chancellor Wythe, and was admitted to the bar in 1797, when he opened a law-office in Lexington, Ky., where he obtained an extensive practice. In 1803 he was elected to the Kentucky Legislature, and was speaker in 1807–8. He became United States Senator in 1808, and member of Congress and speaker in 1811–14. Was a commissioner to treat for peace with Great Britain in 1814; and afterwards, in Congress, was five times elected speaker of the House of Representatives. Mr. Clay was Secretary of State in the cabinet of John Quincy Adams (1825–29), and again a member of the United States Senate from 1831 till 1842. He was twice defeated as a candidate for the Presidency (1832 and 1844); and was in the Senate for the last time from 1849 till 1852, taking a leading part in the compromise measures of 1850, as he did in those of 1832. Mr. Clay did much by his eloquence to arouse a war spirit against Great Britain in 1812; and his efforts were effective in securing an acknowledgment of the independence of the Spanish colonies in South America. He always advocated the thoroughly American policy of President Monroe in excluding European influence on this continent. There is a fine monument erected to his memory in the cemetery at Frankfort, Ky.

HENRY CLAY AT 40.

CLAY'S MONUMENT.

Clayborne and Cornwallis, FIGHT BETWEEN. William Clayborne (which see) had resolved to maintain his claimed rights to the Isle of Kent, in the waters of Chesapeake Bay. He was sustained by the Virginians, Governor Harvey alone taking sides with Lord Baltimore. In the spring of 1635 Clayborne despatched a vessel for trading, prepared to meet resistance. The Marylanders sent out two armed vessels under Cornwallis, their commissioner, or councillor, to watch for any illegal traders within the bounds of their province. On April 23 they seized Clayborne's vessel. The latter sent an armed boat, under the command of Ratcliffe Warren, a Virginian, to recapture the vessel. Cornwallis met Warren with one of his vessels in a harbor (May 10), and captured it after a sharp fight, in which Warren and two of his men were killed; also, one of Cornwallis's crew. This event caused intense excitement. The first Maryland Assembly, which had convened just before the event, decreed "that offenders in all murders and felonies shall suffer the same pains and forfeitures as for the same crimes in England. A requisition was made upon Governor Harvey for the delivery of Clayborne to the Virginia authorities. That functionary decided that Clayborne might go to England to justify his conduct before the home government. (See *Maryland.*) A court of inquiry—held three years afterwards to investigate the matter—resulted in a formal indictment of Clayborne, and a bill of attainder passed against him. Thomas Smith, next in rank to Warren, was hanged. Clayborne, who was now Treasurer of Virginia, retaliated against Maryland by stirring up civil war there. (See *Civil War in Maryland.*)

Clayborne, WILLIAM, one of the early settlers in Virginia, and at one time a member of the council and secretary of the colony. In 1627 the Governor of Virginia gave him authority to explore the head of Chesapeake Bay; and in 1631 Charles I. gave him a license to make discoveries and trade with the Indians in that region. With this authority, he established a trading-post on Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, not far from the site of Annapolis. When Lord Baltimore claimed jurisdiction over Kent and other islands in the bay, Clayborne refused to acknowledge his title, having, as he alleged, an earlier one from the king. Baltimore ordered the arrest of Clayborne. Two vessels were sent for the purpose, when a battle ensued between them and one owned by Clayborne. The Marylanders were repulsed, and one of their number was killed. Clayborne was indicted for and found guilty of constructive murder and other high crimes, and fled to Virginia. Kent Island was seized and confiscated by the Maryland authorities. Sir John Harvey, Governor of Virginia, refused to surrender Clayborne, and he went to England to seek redress. After the king heard his story he severely reprimanded Lord Baltimore for violating royal commands in driving Clayborne from Kent Island. The Lords Commissioners of Plantations, led by Archbishop Laud, made a decision in favor of Lord Baltimore; but Clayborne, assisted by Captain Richard Ingle, stirred up the people to rebellion, and, expelling Governor Leonard Calvert (1645), assumed the reins of government. (See *Calvert, Leonard.*) In 1651 Clayborne was appointed, by the Council of State in England, one of the commissioners for reducing Virginia to obedience to the commonwealth ruled by Parliament; and he also took part in governing Maryland by a commission. (See *Maryland.*) He was soon afterwards made secretary of the colony of Virginia, and held the office until after the restoration of monarchy (1660) in England. Clayborne was one of the court that tried the captured followers of Bacon. (See *Bacon's Rebellion.*) He resided in New Kent County, Va., until his death, and is the chief ancestor of the Claiborne family in the United States.

Clay's Compromise (1832). The secret history of Clay's Compromise Bill in 1832, which quieted rampant nullification (which see), seems to be as follows: Mr. Calhoun, as leader of the nullifiers, had proceeded to the verge of treason in his opposition to the national government, and President Jackson had threatened him with arrest if he moved another step forward. Knowing the firmness and decision of the President, he dared not take the fatal step. He could not recede, or even stand still, without compromising his character with his political friends. In this extremity a mutual friend arranged with Clay to propose a measure which would satisfy both sides and save the neck and reputation of Calhoun. In discussing the matter in the Senate, the latter earnestly disclaimed any hostile feelings towards the Union on the part of South Carolina. He declared that the state authorities looked only to a judicial verdict on the question, until the concentration of United States troops at Charleston and Augusta (by order of the President) compelled them to make provision to defend themselves. Clay's compromise only postponed civil war a little less than thirty years.

Clearing-Houses were established in the United States about 1853, for the convenience and economy of banking institutions in large cities. This system originated in London. By it the banks of a city become, in certain operations, as an individual in work; for it dispenses with the individual clerical labor of each bank associated, in the matter of the exchange of checks and drafts and bills coming in from abroad. Formerly each bank employed a man to go around every day and collect all checks and drafts drawn upon it by other banks in the city, say sixty of them; therefore sixty men had to be thus employed. Now, at the clearing-house, a messenger and a clerk from each bank appear every morning, each clerk taking a seat at the desk of his designated bank, arranged in the form of a hollow ellipse. Each messenger brings with him from his bank a sealed package for every other bank, properly marked with the amount enclosed, containing all the checks or drafts on each bank. The messengers take their places near the desks of their respective banks, with tabular statements of the amount sent to each bank and the aggregates. These are exhibited to the respective clerks and noted by them on blank forms. At a prescribed hour the manager of the clearing-house calls to order and gives the word for proceeding, when all the messengers move forward from left to right of the desks, handing in to them the packages addressed to their respective banks, and taking receipts for them on their statements. These clerks make a mutual exchange of all claims, and the balances, if any, are struck, each bank paying in cash the amount of such balance. This operation occupies about one hour, within which time all accounts are adjusted. The balances due to the several banks are paid into the clearing-house within about another hour. And so the work of sixty men for the larger part of each day is performed by the clearing-house, as one individual, in little more than an hour.

Clem, "LITTLE JOHN," was an Ohio volunteer, twelve years of age, in the battle of Chickamauga (which see). He had been in the thickest of the fight, and three bullets had passed through his hat, when, separated from his companions, he was seen running, with a musket in his hand, by a mounted Confederate colonel, who called out, "Stop! you little Yankee devil!" The boy halted and brought his musket to an order, when the colonel rode up to make him a prisoner. With a swift movement, young

JOHN CLEM.

Clem brought his gun up and fired, killing the colonel instantly. He escaped; and for this exploit on the battle-field he was made a sergeant, put on duty at headquarters of the Army of the Cumberland, and placed on the Roll of Honor. He grew to manhood, married, and was placed in position in one of the departments of government at Washington.

Clinton, CHARLES, was born at Longford, Ireland, in 1690; died in Ulster County (now Orange), N. Y., Nov. 19, 1773. With a number of relatives and friends, he sailed from Ireland for America in May, 1729. His destination was Philadelphia; but the captain of the vessel, with a view to their destruction by starvation, so as to obtain their property, landed them on barren Cape Cod, after receiving large sums of money as commutation for their lives. Mr. Clinton and his family and friends made their way to Ulster County, about sixty miles up the Hudson and eight miles from it, in 1731, and there formed a settlement, he pursuing the occupation of farmer and surveyor. Mr. Clinton was justice of the peace, county judge, and lieutenant-colonel of Ulster County, to which he gave its name. Two of his four sons were generals in the war for independence, and his youngest (George) was governor of the State of New York and Vice-President of the United States.

Clinton, DE WITT, was born at Little Britain, Orange Co., N. Y., March 2, 1769; died at Albany, Feb. 11, 1828. He graduated at Columbia College in 1786; studied law; and was admitted to the bar in 1788, but practised very little. He was private secretary to his uncle George, Governor of New York, in 1790–95, in favor of whose administration he wrote much in the newspapers. He was in the Assembly of his state in 1797, and from 1798 to 1802 was a Democratic leader in the State Senate. He was mayor of New York city in 1803–7, 1809–10, and 1811–14. He was an earnest promoter of the establishment of the New York Historical Society and the American Academy of Fine Arts. Opposed to the War of 1812–15, he was the Peace candidate for the Presidency in 1812, but was defeated by James Madison. Mr. Clinton was one of the founders and first president of the Literary and Philosophical Society in New York, and was one of the most efficient promoters of the construction of the Erie Canal. In 1817–22, and in 1824–27, he was governor of the State of New York. He was the most conspicuous actor in the imposing ceremonies at the opening of the Erie Canal in the fall of 1825, when, outside the Narrows, he poured a vessel of water from Lake Erie into the Atlantic Ocean, as significant of their wedding.

DE WITT CLINTON.

Clinton, EFFORTS OF, TO RELIEVE CORNWALLIS. A few days after the surrender of Cornwallis (which see), Sir Henry Clinton appeared at the entrance of Chesapeake Bay with vessels containing seven thousand troops; but he was too late to serve the earl, and he returned to New York, amazed, mortified, and disheartened.

Clinton, GEORGE, admiral and colonial governor of New York. He was the youngest son of Francis, sixth Earl of Lincoln, and rose to distinction in the British navy. In 1732 he was commissioned a commodore and governor of Newfoundland. In September, 1743, he was appointed governor of the colony of New York, and retained that office ten years. His administration was a tumultuous one, for his temperament and want of skill in the management of civil affairs unfitted him for the duties. He was unlettered; and being closely connected with the Dukes of Newcastle and Bedford, he was sent to New York to mend his fortune. In his controversies with the Assembly he was ably assisted by the pen of Dr. Cadwallader Colden, afterwards lieutenant-governor of the province. His chief opponent was Daniel Horsmanden, at one time chief-justice of the colony. After violent quarrels with all the political factions in New York, he abandoned the government in disgust, and returned home in 1753. He became governor of Greenwich Hospital—a sinecure. In 1745 he was appointed vice-admiral of the red, and in 1757 admiral of the fleet. He died while governor of Newfoundland, July 10, 1761.

Clinton, GEORGE, Vice-President of the United States, was born in Ulster County, N. Y., July 26, 1739; died in Washington, April 20, 1812. He was carefully educated by his father and a Scotch clergyman, a graduate of the University of Aberdeen. In early youth George made a successful cruise in a privateer in the French and Indian War, and soon afterwards joined a militia company, as lieutenant, under his brother James, in the expedition against Fort Frontenac in 1758. He chose the profession of law, studied it under William Smith, and became distinguished in it in his native county. In 1768 he was elected a member of the Provincial Assembly, wherein he soon became the head of a Whig minority. In 1775 he was elected to the Continental Congress, and voted for the resolution for independence in 1776; but the invasion of New York by the British from the sea called him home, and he did not sign the great Declaration. He was appointed a brigadier-general, and as such performed good service in his state.

GEORGE CLINTON.

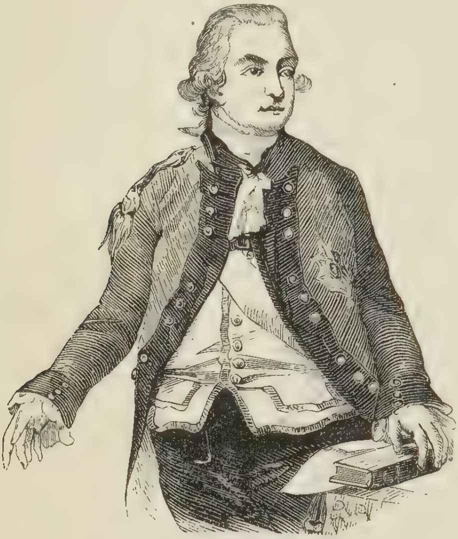
CLINTON'S MONUMENT.

On the organization of the State of New York, in 1777, he was elected the first governor, and held the office, by successive elections, eighteen years. He was very energetic, both in civil and military affairs, until the end of the war; and was chiefly instrumental in preventing the consummation of the British plan for separating New England from the rest of the Union by the occupation of a line of military posts, through the Hudson and Champlain valleys, from New York to the St. Lawrence. In 1788 Governor Clinton presided over the convention held at Poughkeepsie to consider the new National Constitution. To that instrument he was opposed, because it would be destructive of state supremacy. In 1801 he was again elected governor of the State of New York, and in 1804 he was chosen Vice-President of the United States. In 1808 he was a prominent candidate for the Presidency, but was beaten by Madison, and was re-elected Vice-President. By his casting-vote in the Senate of the United States, the renewal of the charter of the Bank of the United States was refused. While in the performance of his official duties at Washington he died. His remains rest beneath a handsome white marble monument in the Congressional Burying-ground at Washington.

JAMES CLINTON.

Clinton, JAMES, was born in Orange County, N.Y., Aug. 9, 1736; died Dec. 22, 1812. He was well educated, but he had a strong inclination for military life. Before the beginning of the war for independence he was lieutenant-colonel of the militia of Ulster County. He was a captain under Bradstreet in the capture of Fort Frontenac (which see) in 1758; and he afterwards was placed in command of four regiments for the protection of the frontiers of Ulster and Orange counties—a position of difficulty and danger. When the war for independence broke out, he was appointed colonel of the Third New York regiment (June 30, 1775), and accompanied Montgomery to Quebec. Made a brigadier-general in August, 1776, he was active in the service; and was in command of Fort Clinton, in the Hudson Highlands, when it was attacked in October, 1777. (See *Forts Clinton and Montgomery.*) In 1779 he joined in Sullivan's expedition against the Senecas with fifteen hundred men. He was stationed at Albany during a great part of the war; but he was present at the surrender of Cornwallis (which see). General Clinton was a commissioner to adjust the boundary-line between New York and Pennsylvania; and was a member of both the Assembly and Senate of the State of New York.

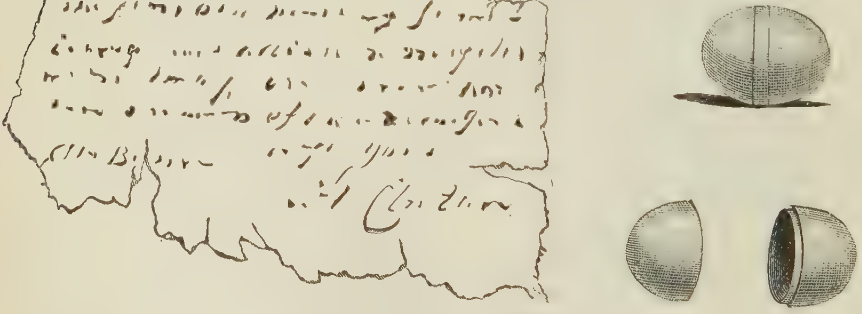
Clinton, SIR HENRY, was born in 1738; died Dec. 23, 1795. He was a son of Admiral George Clinton, Governor of New York. He entered the army when quite young, and had risen to the rank of major-general in 1775, when he was sent to America with Howe and Burgoyne. He participated in the battle of Bunker's Hill (June 17, 1775), and was thereafter active in service against the oppressed colonists until June, 1782, when he returned to England. He succeeded General Howe as commander-in-chief of the British forces in America in January, 1778.



SIR HENRY CLINTON.

Clinton's Despatch. In October, 1777, Sir Henry Clinton undertook a diversion in favor of General Burgoyne, then making his way towards Albany from Canada, in accordance with the British plan (which see) of conquest. Clinton, with a strong land and naval force, had captured forts Clinton and Montgomery, in the Hudson Highlands (Oct. 6), and sent forces of both arms of the service up the river on a marauding excursion, hoping to draw Gates from Burgoyne's front to protect the country below. On the day after the capture of the forts Sir Henry wrote on a piece of tissue-paper the following despatch to Burgoyne: "*Nous y voici* [here we are], and nothing between us and Gates. I sincerely hope this little success of ours may facilitate your operations. In answer to your letter of the 28th September by C. C., I shall only say I cannot presume to order, or even advise, for reasons obvious. I heartily wish you success. Faithfully yours.—H. CLINTON." This despatch was enclosed in an elliptical silver bullet, made so as to separate at the centre, and of a size (as delineated in the engraving) small enough to be swallowed by a man, if necessary. He intrusted it to a messenger who made his way north on the west side of the river, and, being suspected when in the camp of George Clinton back of New Windsor, was arrested. When brought before General Clinton, he was seen to cast something into his mouth. An emetic was administered to him, which brought the silver bullet from his stomach. The despatch was found in it, and the prisoner was executed as a spy at Hurley, a few miles from Kingston, while that village was in flames lighted by the British marauders.

Clymer, GEORGE, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Philadelphia in 1739; died at Morrisville, Penn., Jan. 23, 1813. Left an orphan at the age of seven years, his maternal uncle educated him, and finally left him a greater portion of his fortune. He was an active patriot during the war for independence, and was a member of the Council of Safety in Philadelphia. In July, 1775, he was made joint treasurer of Pennsylvania with Mr. Hillegas; and when, in December, 1776, Congress fled to Baltimore, Clymer was one of the commissioners left in Philadelphia to attend to the public interests. (See *Continental Congress, Flight of.*) In 1777 he was a commissioner to treat with the Indians at Fort Pitt; and in 1780 he assisted in organizing the Bank of North America (which see). At the close of the war he made his residence at Princeton, N. J.; and in 1784 he was a member of the Pennsylvania Legislature.



CLINTON'S DESPATCH AND BULLET.

In 1787 he was a member of the convention that framed the National Constitution, and was a member of the first Congress under it. A collector of the excise duties in 1791 which led to the Whiskey Insurrection (which see), and serving on a commission to treat with Southern Indians, Mr. Clymer, after concluding a treaty (in June, 1796), withdrew from public life. He was one of the founders of the Pennsylvania Agricultural Society, the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts, and the Pennsylvania Bank.

Coal. The business of coal-mining for commercial purposes has entirely grown up during the last fifty or sixty years. It was known before the Revolution that coal existed in Pennsylvania. So early as 1769, a blacksmith (Obadiah Gore) in the Wyoming Valley used coal found lying on the surface of the ground. Forty years afterwards he tried the successful experiment of burning it in a grate for fuel. During the Revolution anthracite coal was used in the armory at Carlisle, Penn., for blacksmiths' fires. In 1790 an old hunter (Philip Gintner) in the Lehigh Valley discovered coal near the present borough of Mauch Chunk. In 1792 the "Lehigh Coal-Mining Company" was formed for mining it, but they did little more than purchase lands. In 1806 two or three hundred bushels were taken to Philadelphia, but experiments to use it for ordinary fuel failed. In 1812 Colonel George Shoemaker took nine wagon-loads to Philadelphia, but could not sell it. It was soon afterwards used with success in rolling-mills in Delaware County, and it soon found purchasers elsewhere. But it was not until 1825 that the coal-trade began to assume notable proportions, when anthracite was used in factories and in private houses for fuel. The whole amount of anthracite sent to market in 1820 was 365 tons. The annual product of the coal-fields of Pennsylvania about 1876 was 27,000,000 tons. The entire coal product of the country in 1874 was about 50,000,000 tons—24,000,000 anthracite and over 25,000,000 bituminous.

Coast Survey, The United States, a national undertaking for the security of the vast commerce upon the very extended and often dangerous coasts of the United States. It is believed that to Professor Patterson, of Philadelphia, is due the honor of having first suggested to President Jefferson the idea of a geodetic survey of the coast. Mr. Gallatin (which see) was then Secretary of the Treasury, and warmly approved the measure. The first attempt to organize a national coast survey, "for the purpose of making complete charts of our coasts, with the adjacent shoals and soundings," was made in 1807. Congress authorized such a survey, and appropriated $50,000 for the purpose. Mr. Gallatin, with great assiduity, gathered information for scientific uses. A plan proposed by F. R. Hassler (which see) was adopted, but, on account of political disturbances in Europe and America, nothing was done in the matter until 1811, when Mr. Hassler was sent to Europe for instruments and standards of measure. The war that ensued (1812–15) detained him abroad. On his return, in 1815, he was formally appointed superintendent, and entered upon the duties in 1816, near the city of New York; but in less than two years it was discontinued. Mr. Hassler resumed it in 1832, and the work has been carried on continually ever since. Mr. Hassler died in 1843, and was succeeded by Alexander Dallas Bache. On his death, in 1867, Professor Benjamin Pierce was made superintendent. Professor Bache greatly extended the scope of the survey, including an investigation of the Gulf Stream, the laws of tides, and their ebb and flow in harbors and rivers, so that navigators might have complete information concerning the tide-waters of the United States. The observations and investigations also include meteorological charts — changes in the weather in different seasons at various points, and the laws of storms. During the Civil War the work ceased on the southern coasts, for the insurgents captured some of the vessels employed in the survey; and officers and pilots engaged in the work were transferred to service in the navy, and, with their minute knowledge of the coasts, greatly assisted in suppressing the insurrection. Professor Pierce still further extended the enterprise, so as to constitute a great national triangulation—a geodetic survey intended to embrace the shores of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans within its limits, and to form, by means of triangulation, a grand chain across the continent. The operations of "field-work" are carried on simultaneously at many points on the coast. The Atlantic and Gulf coasts are divided into nine, and the Pacific coast into two, sections, each having its triangulation, astronomical, topographical, and hydrographical parties, all working independently, but upon the same system, so that the whole will form a connected survey from Maine to Texas and from San Diego to the forty-ninth parallel on the Pacific. The coast of Alaska (which see), since its acquisition, has been added to the field of operations. There are employed in the coast survey ninety-four civilians of different grades and eleven officers of the navy, a number of the latter being required for vessels engaged in hydrography. Besides these, there are nearly one hundred others employed as computers, draughtsmen, engravers, and clerks. The whole work is under the control of the United States Treasury Department, while a superintendent directs all the details of the work, governs the movements of the parties, and controls the expenditures.

Cobb, Howell, was born in Jefferson County, Ga., Sept. 7, 1815; died in New York city, Oct. 9, 1868. He was a lawyer by profession, and was solicitor-general of the western circuit of Georgia from 1837 to 1841; a member of Congress from 1843 to 1851; speaker of the Thirty-first Congress; and governor of Georgia from 1851 to 1853. He was again in Congress from 1856 to 1857, and was Secretary of the Treasury under Buchanan from 1857 to 1860. He was a zealous promoter of the insurrection against the government in 1860–61, and was chosen president of the convention at Montgomery

(Feb. 4, 1861) that organized the Confederate government. He became a brigadier-general in the Confederate army; and at the close of the war he opposed all the measures for the reorganization of the government.

HOWELL COBB.

Cobbett, WILLIAM, was born at Farnham, Surrey, England, March 9, 1762; died June 18, 1835. He was the self-educated son of a farmer, and in his early manhood was eight years in the army, rising to the rank of sergeant-major. He obtained his discharge in 1791, married, and came to America in 1792, when he became a pamphleteer, bookseller, and journalist, having established *Peter Porcupine's Gazette* (which see) in 1794. Fined $5000 for a libel on Dr. Rush, in Philadelphia, his business was broken up, and in 1800 he returned to England. In 1802 he began his famous *Weekly Political Register*, which he conducted with ability about thirty years, but which caused him to incur fines and imprisonment because of his libellous utterances. He came to America in 1817, but returned in 1819, taking with him the bones of Thomas Paine. He continued the business of writing and publishing, and many of his books, written in vigorous Anglo-Saxon, are very useful. He entered Parliament in 1832, and was a member several years. His political writings, being an abridgment of one hundred volumes, were collected and published, in twelve volumes, under the title of *Porcupine's Works*.

Cobbett's Revenge. That able, unscrupulous, and often coarse pamphleteer and journalist, William Cobbett, issued many libels in his *Peter Porcupine's Gazette*. He attacked Dr. Rush, of Philadelphia, because of his treatment of yellow-fever cases, especially of his blood-letting. Rush prosecuted him for libel, and obtained a verdict for $5000 damages That suit had been brought to trial on the day of Washington's death (Dec. 14, 1799), and Cobbett remarked that it was a singular coincidence that while the great patriot was dying in consequence of the too free use of the lancet (see *Death of Washington*), he should be mulcted in a verdict of $5000 for exposing and ridiculing the dangerous practice in yellow-fever. In anticipation of the verdict, Cobbett stopped his paper and removed to New York, where he was threatened with imprisonment, but procured bail. There he issued a series of vigorously written pamphlets, called *Rush Lights*, in which he exhibited, in vivid colors, the various phases of character of all engaged in his prosecution. Then he went back to England, and issued *Porcupine's Works*, in twelve octavo volumes, which sold largely on both sides of the Atlantic. In these he exhibited such pictures of his American enemies that he tasted the sweets of revenge.

Cockade Proclamation. On Nov. 5, 1796, Adet, the French minister to the United States, issued a proclamation, or order, calling upon all Frenchmen in the United States, in the name of the French Directory, to mount and wear the tricolored cockade, "the symbol of a liberty the fruit of eight years' toils and five years' victories." Adet declared in his proclamation that any Frenchman who might hesitate to give this indication of adherence to the Republic should not be allowed the aid of the French consular chanceries or the national protection. The tricolored cockade was at once mounted, not only by the French residents, but by many American citizens who wished to signify in this marked manner their attachment to the French Republic. This "cockade proclamation," as the Federalists called it in derision, was the origin of the practice, for several years, of wearing a cockade as a badge of party distinction.

Cockburn in the Chesapeake (1813). (See *Amphibious War*.) Admiral Sir George Cockburn had taken his chief position in Lynn Haven Bay for carrying on his marauding expeditions on the coasts of Virginia, Delaware, and Maryland. These plundered and burned farm-houses, carried off negroes and armed them against their masters, and seized live-stock. Sometimes he was engaged in more honorable warfare. On April 3, 1813, a flotilla of a dozen boats filled with armed men from the British fleet, under Lieutenant Polkingthorne of the *St. Domingo*, 74 guns, entered the Rappahannock River and attacked the Baltimore privateer *Dolphin*, 10 guns, Captain Stafford, and three armed schooners prepared to sail for France. The three smaller vessels were soon taken, but the struggle with the *Dolphin* was severe. She was boarded, and for fifteen minutes a contest raged fearfully on her deck, when the *Dolphin* struck her colors. Cockburn now went up the Chesapeake with the brigs *Fantome* and *Mohawk*, and the tenders *Dolphin*, *Racer*, and *Highflyer*, and proceeded to destroy Frenchtown, a hamlet of about a dozen houses, on the western coast of Delaware. Cockburn made the *Fantome* his flag-ship. The only defenders of the hamlet were a few militia who came down from Elkton, and some drivers of stages and transportation-wagons. The former garrisoned a redoubt which had just been erected, upon which lay four iron cannons. They were vanquished and retired. The storehouses were plundered and burned, but the women and children were well treated. Property on land worth $25,000 was destroyed, and on the water five trading-vessels were consumed. Thence

Cockburn went up the bay to Havre de Grace, near the mouth of the Susquehanna, which he plundered and burned. (See *Havre de Grace.*) Afterwards Cockburn attacked the villages of Fredericktown and Georgetown (May 6, 1813), on the Sassafras River. They contained from forty to fifty houses each. He first visited Fredericktown, on the north shore. The militia, under Colonel Veazy, made a stout resistance, but were compelled to retire. The village was laid in ashes, and the storehouses were plundered and burned. The marauders then crossed over to Georgetown, and served it in the same way. So delighted was Cockburn with his success in plundering and burning defenceless towns that he declared he should not be contented until he had burned every house in Baltimore. Having deprived three villages on the Chesapeake of property worth at least $70,000, Cockburn returned to the fleet.

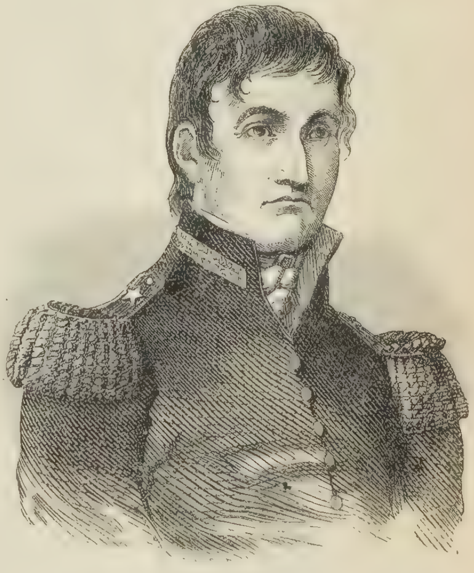
Cockburn on the Coast of the Carolinas. Early in July, 1813, Admiral Cockburn, with a part of his marauding fleet, went southward from Hampton Roads to plunder and destroy. His vessels were the *Sceptre*, 74 guns (flag-ship), *Romulus*, *Fox*, and *Nemesis.* Off Ocracoke Inlet, he despatched (July 12, 1813) about eight hundred armed men in barges to the waters of Pamlico Sound. There they attacked the *Anaconda* and *Atlas*, two American privateers, and captured both. The crew of one escaped, and gave the alarm at New Berne. The British boats proceeded to attack that place, but found it too well prepared to warrant their doing so. They captured Portsmouth, and plundered the country around. They decamped in haste (July 16), carrying with them cattle and other property, and many slaves, to whom they falsely promised their freedom. These, and others obtained the same way, Cockburn sold in the West Indies on his private account. Leaving Pamlico Sound, the marauder went down the coast, stopping at and plundering Dewees's and Capers's islands, and filling the whole region of the Lower Santee with terror. Informed of these outrages, the citizens of Charleston prepared for the reception of the marauders. Fort Moultrie and other fortifications were strengthened, breast-works were thrown up at exposed places, and a body of militia was gathered at Point Pleasant. In anticipation of the coming of an army of liberation, as they were falsely informed Cockburn's men were, the negroes were prepared to rise and strike for freedom. (See *Servile Insurrection threatened.*) Cockburn did not venture into Charleston harbor, but went down to Hilton Head, from which he carried off slaves and cattle. Then he visited the Georgia coast, and at "Dungeness House," the fine estate of General Nathaniel Greene, on Cumberland Island, he made his headquarters for the winter, sending his marauders out in all directions to plunder the plantations on the neighboring coast.

Cockburn, Sir George, was born in London in 1771; died in August, 1853. He entered the royal navy in 1783, and was rear-admiral in 1812. He was in command of a small squadron on the North American station in 1813, and made marauding expeditions on the coasts of the Chesapeake Bay and farther south. (See *Amphibious Warfare.*) He was concerned in the sack of Washington in 1814, and in an unsuccessful attempt to capture Baltimore in the same year. He was knighted in 1815, and made a major-general of marines in 1821.

Coddington, William, a founder of Rhode Island, was born in Lincolnshire, England, in 1601; died Nov. 1, 1678. He came to America in 1630 as a magistrate of Massachusetts appointed by the crown. He was a prosperous merchant in Boston, but, taking the part of Anne Hutchinson (see *Hutchinson Controversy*), he was so persecuted that, with eighteen others, he removed to the island of Aquidneck (now Rhode Island), where, on the organization of a government, he was appointed judge, or chief ruler. In March, 1640, Coddington was elected governor, and held the office seven years. He went to England in 1651, and in 1674–75 he was again governor. He had adopted the tenets of the Quakers.

Codification of the Laws of Massachusetts (1648). There was a consultation respecting the laws in 1634, since which time committees, consisting of magistrates and elders, had been appointed every year to prepare a code. Finally, in 1648, the whole of the laws were collected, codified, and printed at Cambridge.

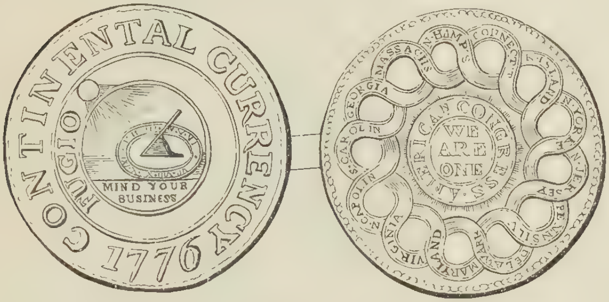
Coffee, John, was born in Nottaway County, Va., in 1772; died near Florence, Ala., July 7, 1833. His profession was that of a surveyor. In December, 1812, he was colonel of Tennessee volunteers under Jackson, and was with him in all his wars with the Creek Indians. He was with him also in his expedition to Pensacola (which see), and in the defence of New Orleans. In 1817 he was surveyor of public lands.



JOHN COFFEE.

Coffin, SIR ISAAC, was born in Boston, May 16, 1759; died at Cheltenham, England, July 23, 1839. He was the son of a collector of the customs in Boston, who was a zealous loyalist. He entered the British navy in 1773, became a lieutenant in 1776, and was active on the American coast at different times during the war for independence. He served under Rodney, was made post-captain in 1790, and rear-admiral of the blue in 1804, in which year he was knighted. In June, 1814, he was created admiral of the blue, and in 1820 admiral of the white. He was a member of Parliament in 1818. Having a real attachment for his native country, he endowed a "Coffin School" in Nantucket, where many of his relatives lived, and gave for its support $12,500.

Coinage in the United States. Wampum had depreciated in value as currency in consequence of over-production, and a final blow was given to it as a circulating medium in New England by an order from the authorities of Massachusetts not to receive it in payment of taxes. As fast as coin came to the colony of Massachusetts by trade with the West Indies, it was sent to England to pay for goods purchased there. To stop this drain of specie, Massachusetts set up a mint, and coined silver threepences, sixpences, and shillings, each bearing the figure of a pine-tree on one side, and the words "New England" on the other. The silver was alloyed a quarter below the English standard, with the expectation that the debasement would prevent the coin leaving the country. Thus the pound currency of New England came to be one fourth less than the pound sterling of Great Britain; and this standard was afterwards adopted by the British Parliament for all the English American colonies. The "mint-house" in Boston existed about thirty-four years. All the coins issued from it bore the dates 1652 or 1662, the same dies being used, probably, throughout the thirty-four years of coining. Some coins had been made in Bermuda for the use of the Virginia colony as early as 1644. Copper coins bearing the figure of an elephant were struck in England for the Carolinas and New England in 1694. Coins were also struck for Maryland, bearing the effigy of Lord Baltimore. In 1722–23, William Wood obtained a royal patent for coining small money for the "English plantations in America." He made it of pinchbeck—an alloy of copper and tin. One side of the coin bore the image of George I., and on the other was a large double rose, with the legend *Rosa Americana utile dulci.* In the coinage of 1724 the rose was crowned. This base coin was vehemently opposed in the colonies. A writer of the day, speaking of the speculation, said Wood had "the conscience to make thirteen shillings out of a pound of brass." The power of coinage was exercised by several of the independent states from 1778 until the adoption of the National Constitution. A mint was established at Rupert, Vt., by legislative authority in 1785, whence copper cents were issued, bearing on one side a plough and a sun rising from behind hills, and on the other a radiated eye surrounded by thirteen stars. Some half-cents also were issued by the Vermont mint. In the same year the Legislature of Connecticut authorized the establishment of a mint at New Haven, whence copper coins were issued having on one side the figure of a human head, and on the other that of a young woman holding an olive-branch. This mint continued in operation about three years. In 1786 parties obtained authority from the Legislature of New Jersey to coin money, and they established two mints in that state: one not far from Morristown, and the other at Elizabethtown. On one side of this coinage was the head of a horse, with a plough beneath; and on the reverse a shield. The head of a horse and three ploughs now form the chief device of the great seal of New Jersey. Cents and half-cents were issued in Massachusetts in 1788, exhibiting on one side an eagle with a bundle of arrows in the right talon, an olive-branch in the left, and a shield on its breast bearing the word "cent." That device was, and is now, the chief on the great seal of the United States. On the other side of the Massachusetts cent was the figure of an Indian holding a bow and arrow; also a single star. So early as the adoption of the "Articles of Confederation" (1781) the subject of national coinage occupied the attention of statesmen. In 1782, Robert Morris, Superintendent of Finance, submitted to the Continental Congress a plan for a metallic currency for the United States, arranged by Gouverneur Morris, who attempted to harmonize all the moneys of the states. He found that the 1-440th part of the Spanish milled dollar was a common divisor of all the various currencies. Starting with that fraction as a unit, he proposed the following table of moneys: Ten units to be equal to one penny, ten pence to one bill, ten bills to one dollar (about seventy-five cents of our present currency), and ten dollars to one crown. The superintendent reported the plan to Congress in February, 1782, and employed Benjamin Dudley, of Boston, to construct machinery for a mint. The subject was debated from time to time, and on April 22, 1783, some coins were submitted to Congress as patterns. Nothing further was done in the matter (and Mr. Dudley was discharged) until 1784, when Mr. Jefferson, chairman of a committee appointed for the purpose, submitted a report, disagreeing with that of Morris because of the diminutive size of its unit. He proposed to strike four coins upon the basis of the Spanish milled dollar as follows: A golden piece of the value of ten dollars, a dollar in silver, a tenth of a dollar in silver, and a hundredth of a dollar in copper. This report was adopted by Congress in 1785, and was the origin of our copper cent, silver dime and dollar, and golden eagle. The following year (October, 1786) Congress framed an ordinance for the establishment of a mint, but nothing further was done until 1787, when the Board of Treasury, by authority of Congress, contracted with James Jarvis for three hundred tons of copper coins of the prescribed standard, which were coined at a mint in New Haven, Conn. They bore the following devices: On one side thirteen circles linked together; a small



FAC-SIMILE OF THE FIRST MONEY COINED BY THE UNITED STATES.

GEORGE WASHINGTON
SUCCESS TO THE UNITED STATES

LIBERTY-CAP CENT.

circle in the middle, with the words "American Congress" within it, and, in the centre, the sentence "We are one." On the other side a sun-dial, with the sun above it, and the word "Fugio;" and around the whole, "Continental Currency, 1776." Below the dial, "Mind your business." A few of these pieces, it is said, were struck in a mint at Rupert, Vt. The national Constitution, framed in 1787, vested the right of coinage exclusively in the national government. The establishment of a mint was authorized by act of Congress in April, 1792, but it did not go into full operation until 1795. (See *Mint.*) By that act the golden eagle of ten dollars was to weigh 270 grains, the parts in the same proportion; all of the fineness of twenty-two carats. The silver dollar, of one hundred cents, was to weigh 416 grains, the fractions in proportion; the fineness, 892.4 thousandths. The copper cent was to weigh 264 grains; the half-cent in proportion. In 1793 the weight of the cent was reduced to 208 grains, and the half-cent in the same proportion. Laws were enacted in 1793 for establishing a mint, and David Rittenhouse was appointed first director; but it did not go into full operation before 1795, the intervening time being spent in experimenting. During that time a great variety of silver and copper coins appeared, among them the "Liberty-cap cent," so called because it bore on one side a liberty-cap surrounded by rays of light, and on the other a head of Washington. The subject of a device for the national coins produced warm debates in Congress. The head of the President was objected to because it was an imitation of royalty, and a head of Liberty was adopted. The mint was established at Philadelphia, and it was the only one in the country until 1835, when three branches were erected: one at Charlotte, N. C.; another at Dahlonega, Ga.; and a third in New Orleans. These went into operation in 1837–38. In 1854 a branch mint was established at San Francisco, Cal., and in 1870 another at Carson City, Nev. Assay offices were established at New York in 1854; at Denver, Col., in 1864; and at Boise City, Id., in 1872. In 1873 Congress made the mint and assay offices a bureau of the Treasury Department, the title of the chief officer of which is Superintendent of the Mint at Philadelphia. He is under the Secretary of the Treasury, and is appointed by the President for the term of five years. On account of the increased price of copper in 1776 the weight of the cent was reduced to 168 grains, and the half-cent in proportion. An act was passed in June, 1834, changing the weight and fineness of the gold coin, and the relative value of gold and silver. The weight of the eagle was reduced to 258 grains, and the parts in proportion, of which 232 grains must be pure gold, making the fineness twenty-one carats. The silver coinage was not then changed, but in January, 1837, Congress reduced the weight of the silver dollar to 412½ grains, and the parts in proportion. By act of March 3, 1849, there were added to the series of gold coins the double eagle and the dollar; and in February, 1853, a three-dollar piece. On March 3, 1851, there was added to the silver coins a three-cent piece (a legal tender for sums not exceeding thirty cents), and this piece continued to be coined until April 1, 1853, when its fineness was raised and its weight reduced. By act of Feb. 21, 1853, gold alone was made a legal tender, and the weight of the half-dollar was reduced to 206 grains, and smaller coins in proportion. Silver was made a legal tender only to the amount of five dollars. The silver dollar was not included in the change, but remained a legal tender. The copper cent and half-cent were discontinued in 1857, and a new cent of copper and nickel was coined. In 1864 the coinage of the bronze cent was authorized; also two-cent pieces. By act of March 3, 1865, a three-cent piece was authorized, of three fourths copper and one fourth nickel. May 16, 1866, a coinage of five-cent pieces, three fourths copper and one fourth nickel, was authorized. The coinage act of 1873 prescribes the fineness of all gold and silver coins to be .900. The gold coins are of the same denomination as before; the silver coins are a "trade-dollar," weighing 420 grains; a half-dollar, or fifty-cent piece; a quarter-dollar, and a dime. There were also five-cent and three-cent silver coins issued. The issuing of coins other than those enumerated in the act is prohibited. It is provided that upon the coins of the United States there shall be the following devices and legends: Upon one side an emblem of Liberty, with the word "Liberty" and the year of the coinage; and upon the reverse the figure of an eagle, with the inscriptions "United States of America" and "E pluribus unum," and a designation of the value of the coin; but on the gold dollar and three-dollar pieces, the dime, five-, three-, and one-cent pieces, the figure of the eagle shall be omitted; and on the reverse of the silver trade-dollar the weight and the fineness of the coin shall be inscribed, with the motto "In God we trust" added when practicable.

Coke, **Edward**, was born at Mileham, Norfolk, Eng., Feb. 1, 1552; died at Stoke Poges, Buckinghamshire, Sept. 3, 1633. He began the profession of law in 1578, and quickly rose to the highest rank. Passing through different grades of judicial office, he became lord chief-justice of England, opposed in his whole course by a powerful rival, Francis Bacon. Coke was a violent and unscrupulous man, and carried his points in court and in politics by sheer audacity, helped by tremendous intellectual force. As attorney-general, he conducted the prosecution of Sir Walter Raleigh with shameful unfairness; and from the beginning of his reign King James I. feared and hated him, but failed to suppress him. Coke was in the Privy Council and in Parliament in 1621 when the question of monopolies by royal grants was brought before the House in the case of the Council of Plymouth and the New England fisheries. Coke took ground against the validity of the patent, and so directly assailed the prerogative of the king. In other cases he took a similar course; and when the king censured the House of Commons, as composed of "fiery, popular, and turbulent spirits," Coke, speaker of the House, invited that body to an assertion of its rights, independent of the king, in the form of a protest entered on its minutes. The angry monarch sent for the book, tore out the record of the protest with his own hands, dissolved Parliament, and caused the arrest and the imprisonment of Coke, Pym, and other members for several months in the Tower. After that he was a thorn in the side of James and his successor. He kept up the contest against the royal prerogative until Charles I. lost his head in support of it. In 1628 Coke retired from public life, and died, five years afterwards, in the eighty-second year of his age. His *Reports* and other writings upon law and jurisprudence were numerous and most important. He published *Coke upon Littleton* in 1628.

Cold Winter. In January and February, 1780, the cold was so intense that the harbor of New York was so strongly bridged with ice that the British dragged cannons over it from New York to Staten Island. Knyphausen was in command of the city of New York, and he became alarmed for its safety, because thus deprived of all the advantages of its insular situation. The pickets were doubled and all the people put under arms, so as to prevent a surprise by patriots who might cross the Hudson on the ice. The garrison and inhabitants, cut off from their usual supplies by water, experienced a great scarcity of fuel and fresh provisions.

Colden, **Cadwallader**, was born at Dunse, Scotland, Feb. 17, 1688; died on Long Island, N.Y., Sept. 28, 1776. He graduated at the University of Edinburgh in 1705, and became a physician and mathematician. In 1708 he emigrated to Pennsylvania, and returned to his native country in 1712. He came again to America in 1716, and in 1718 made his abode in New York, where he was made first surveyor-general of the colony, became a master in chancery, and, in 1720, obtained a seat in Governor Burnet's council. He received a patent for lands in Orange County, N. Y., nine or ten miles from Newburgh, and there he went to reside in 1755. Becoming president of the council, he administered the government in 1760, and was made lieutenant-governor in 1761, which station he held until his death, being repeatedly placed at the head of affairs by the absence or death of governors. During the Stamp Act excitement the populace burned his coach. After the return of Governor Tryon in 1775, he retired to his seat on Long Island. Dr. Colden wrote a *History of the Fire Indian Nations of Canada* in 1727. He was an ardent student of botany, and introduced the Linnæan system into America. He published scientific works and was a correspondent of the leading men of science in Europe.

CADWALLADER COLDEN.

Cole, **Thomas**, painter, was born at Bolton-le-moors, Lancashire, Eng., Feb. 1, 1801; died at Catskill, N. Y., Feb. 11, 1847. His parents, who lived in America, had gone to England previous to his birth, and returned in 1819, settling in Philadelphia, where Thomas practised the art of wood-engraving. He began portrait-painting in Steubenville, Ohio, in 1820, soon wandered as an itinerant in the profession, and finally became one of the most eminent of American landscape painters. He established himself in New York in 1825. The charming scenery of the Hudson employed his pencil and brush, and orders for his landscapes soon came from all quarters. From 1829 to 1832 he was in Europe, and on his return he made his home at Catskill, where he resided until his death. His two great finished works are "The Course of Empire" and "The Voyage of Life," the former consisting of a series of five, and the latter of four, pictures. He produced many other fine compositions in landscape and figures, which gave him a place at the head of his profession. Mr. Cole left unfinished at his death a series entitled "The Cross and the World." Mr. Cole also wrote a dramatic poem, and was a writer of tales.

Colfax, **Schuyler**, grandson of the last commander of Washington's life-guard, was born in New York city, March 23, 1823. He was a merchant's clerk for three years, and then, with his family, he went to New Carlisle, St. Joseph's Co., Ind., where for five years he was a clerk in a country store. In 1841 his step-father, Mr. Mathews, was elected county auditor, and he removed to South Bend and made Schuyler his deputy. There he studied law, and finally established a weekly newspaper. In 1850 he was a member of the Indiana State Constitutional Convention, and the next year was a candidate for Congress, but was not elected. In 1856 the newly formed Republican party elected him to Congress, and he was re-elected for six consecutive terms. In December, 1863, he was elected speaker of the House of Representatives. He was re-elected speaker in 1865 and 1867. On March 4, 1869, Mr. Colfax was made Vice-President, with General Grant as President. After serving four years he retired from public life.

SCHUYLER COLFAX.

Coligni, JASPER DE, was born at Châtillon-sur-Loing, Feb. 16, 1517; died in Paris, Aug. 24, 1572. In 1539 he was introduced to Francis I., of France, entered the military service, was knighted because of his merits as a soldier, and soon became noted as the best officer in the army. He was made colonel in the French infantry, and also admiral, and may be regarded as the founder of the French military system. Coligni was governor of Picardy in 1557, and while fighting in defence of St. Quentin he was made prisoner by the Spaniards. Endowed with deep religious feelings, he became a devoted Calvinist—a Huguenot—and in 1555 and 1562 he made attempts to secure an asylum in America for his persecuted brethren. In this he was not successful. (See *Huguenots in America.*) With the Prince of Condé, he was a leader of the Protestant army in France in the civil war between 1560 and 1570. In the latter year he appeared at the court of Charles IX., who was ruled by his infamous mother, Catherine de' Medici. His influence aroused the jealousy of the Roman Catholics, and he was deserted by his monarch and the queen mother. She had failed to bring the Duke of Guise, his rival, to the scaffold, and she joined the league against the Huguenots, which found horrid expression in the massacre of the Protestants in France on the eve of the festival of St. Bartholomew. Coligni was selected as one of the first victims on that fatal night. Behme, a German assassin employed by the Duke of Guise, led a band of murderers, with concealed weapons, to the room of the admiral. He held a boar-spear in his hand. The majestic presence of Coligni, and the serenity of his deportment, abashed the leader at first, and he was about to retire, when one of his comrades whispered "coward!" in his ear. Behme instantly plunged the spear in Coligni's heart, and he fell dead at the feet of his murderers. His body was cast out of a window into a court, where the Duke of Guise was waiting for the consummation of the crime. The head of the admiral was severed from his body and taken to Catherine, while his remains were dragged through the streets of Paris, red with the blood of his murdered co-religionists, and hanged on a gibbet at Montfauçon. Catherine had the head of the admiral embalmed and sent to the Pope, Gregory XII., at Rome. The pontiff ordered a Te Deum to be sung over the event and caused a medal to be struck in commemoration of it. Coligni's remains were secretly taken from the gibbet by his servants and buried at Chantilly, and in 1786 Montesquieu transferred them to his estate at Maupertíes, where he dedicated a chapel and erected a monument to the memory of the martyr admiral.

JASPER DE COLIGNI.

College of New Jersey (now Princeton), one of the higher institutions of learning established in the English-American colonies. It was founded under the auspices of the Presbyterian Synod of New York, which then included New Jersey in its jurisdiction. A charter was obtained in 1746, and it was opened for students in May, 1747, at Elizabethtown, N. J. The same year it was removed to Newark, and in 1757 it was transferred to Princeton, where a new college edifice, named Nassau Hall, had just been completed. That name was given in honor of William III., "of the illustrious house of Nassau." The college itself was often called "Nassau Hall," but it is now universally known as Princeton College. It suffered much during the Revolution, being occupied as barracks and hospital by both armies. (See *Princeton, Battle of.*) The president (Dr. Witherspoon) and two of the alumni (Benjamin Rush and Richard Stockton) were signers of the Declaration of Independence; and several of the leading patriots during the war, and statesmen afterwards, were graduates of the College of New Jersey. General Washington and the Continental Congress were present at the "commencement" in 1783. Other buildings were erected, and it had steady prosperity until the breaking-out of the Civil War in 1861. Nassau Hall was burned in 1855, and speedily rebuilt. The Civil War reduced the number of its students, but it regained them, and more, when peace came. In 1868 Rev. James McCosh, from Belfast, Ireland, was called to the presidency of the college—a man of great energy and activity. During his administration many fine buildings were added to the institution, and more than $1,000,000 have been given to the college. One gentleman (John C. Green) has given $750,000 to endow a scientific school, erect a library, and a building for lectures and recitations. The college buildings are mostly of stone; the grounds are well shaded with trees; the library contains nearly sixty thousand volumes, and the various endowments to the college proper amount to about $600,000. There have been eleven presidents, all of them clergymen. The first was Rev. Jonathan Dickinson. A theological seminary connected with the college was founded in 1812, and occupies similar plain stone buildings. Its library contained about twenty-four thousand volumes in 1876, and its endowments amounted to $400,000.

College of Rhode Island (now Brown University), one of the higher colonial institutions of learning, the charter of which was obtained in February, 1764, was established at Providence, R. I. The associated Baptist churches of Philadelphia moved in the matter in 1763. The subject was laid before the leading Baptists at Newport, R. I., the funds for the purpose were raised, and the charter obtained for "The College of Rhode Island," in which was a provision that "into this liberal and catholic institution shall never be admitted any religious tests; but, on the contrary, all the members hereof shall forever enjoy full, free, absolute, and uninterrupted liberty of conscience; and that the public teaching shall, in general, respect the sciences, and that the sectarian differences of opinion shall not make any part of the public and classical instruction." The government was placed under a board of twelve fellows, of whom eight, including the president, must be Baptists; and thirty-six trustees, of whom twenty-two must be Baptists, five Friends or Quakers, four Congregationalists, and five Episcopalians, this proportion representing the different denominations then in the colony. Rev. James Manning was elected the first president in September, 1765. Nicholas Brown, a wealthy and distinguished citizen of Providence, became a munificent benefactor of the college, and in 1804 it received the name of Brown University. His gifts amounted to about $100,000. The university has established an agricultural college in connection with it, in accordance with the provision of Congress. (See *Agricultural Colleges.*) It has five college buildings, a museum, and a library containing over forty thousand volumes. From 1765 to 1876 the university had six presidents—namely, James Manning, Asa Messer, Francis Wayland, Barnas Sears, Alexis Caswell, and E. G. Robinson. (See *Colonial Colleges;* also *Nicholas* and *J. Carter Brown.*)

Colleges in the United States. In 1873 there were 349 colleges proper (and about fifty so called) in the United States of all grades, some of them organized on the university plan. Of these colleges ten were established before the close of the Revolution in 1783; of the remainder only six were organized previous to 1820. Forty of them were established between 1820 and 1840. The remainder of the 349, excepting the ante-revolutionary ones, and those founded before the close of the last century, have been established since 1840. Of the whole number of colleges, only fifty-seven are non-sectarian, the remainder being denominational institutions.

Collision between State Authority and the National Judiciary. In 1808 a case which had been in existence since the Revolution brought the State of Pennsylvania into collision with the Supreme Court of the United States. During the disputes in the case alluded to—about prize-money—David Rittenhouse, as state treasurer of Pennsylvania, had received certain certificates of national debt. Rittenhouse settled his accounts as treasurer in 1788 and resigned his office, but still retained these certificates, having given his bond to the judge of the state court to hold him harmless as to other claimants. The certificates were held by Rittenhouse to indemnify him against the bond he had given. When the public debt was funded he caused these certificates to be funded in his own name, but for the benefit of whom it might concern. Rittenhouse died in 1801, leaving his three daughters executors of his estate. They were called upon by the State Treasurer to deliver the certificates to him and pay over the accrued interest. They refused to do so, on account of a pending suit in the state court by a claimant for the amount. The state court finally declined to interfere, on the technical ground that it was an admiralty matter and was not cognizable in a court of common law. The claimant then applied to the United States District Court for an order to compel the executors of Rittenhouse to pay over to him the certificates and accumulated interest, then amounting to about $15,000. Such a decree was made in 1803, when the Legislature of Pennsylvania passed a law to compel the executors to pay the funds into the state treasury, pledging the faith of the state to hold them harmless. Finally the Supreme Court of the United States issued a mandamus for the judge of the district court to carry the decree into execution, despite the state law. It was done (March 12, 1809); but the marshal, when he went to serve the process of attachment, found the houses of the respondents protected by an armed guard, who resisted his entrance by bayonets. These guards were state militia, under General Bright, with the sanction of the governor. The legislature and the governor now receded somewhat. The former made an appropriation of $18,000 to meet any contingency; and finally, after a show of resistance, which, to some, threatened a sort of civil war in the streets of Philadelphia, the governor paid over the sum to the marshal out of the appropriation. This was a blow to the doctrine of state supremacy, which still held a large place in the political creed of the people of all the states. The supremacy of the national judiciary was fully vindicated.

Colonial Artillery. The whole train of artillery possessed by the English-American colonies when the first war for independence broke out (April 19, 1775) was composed of four fieldpieces, two belonging to citizens of Boston, and two to the province of Massachusetts. In 1788 the Secretary of War called the attention of Congress to the fact that there were in the arsenals of the United States "two brass cannons, which constituted one moiety of the field artillery with which the late war was commenced on the part of the Americans." Congress by resolution directed the Secretary to have suitable inscriptions placed on them; and as they belonged to Massachusetts, he was instructed to deliver them to the order of the governor of that state. The two pieces belonging to citizens of Boston were inscribed respectively, "The Hancock, Sacred to Liberty," and "The Adams, Sacred to Liberty;" with the additional words on each, "These were used in many engagements during the war." (See *Artillery.*)

Colonial Colleges. There were nine higher institutions of learning in the English-American colonies before the breaking-out of the old war for independence — namely, Harvard in Massachusetts; William and Mary in Virginia; Yale in Connecticut; King's in New York; College of New Jersey and Queen's in New Jersey; College of Rhode Island; Dartmouth in New Hampshire; and University of Pennsylvania. (See notices of the respective colleges.) Hampden-Sidney College was founded in 1775, just as the war broke out. In these colonial institutions many of the brightest statesmen of the last century and beginning of this were educated.

Colonial Concurrence in Virginia's Resolutions. In 1769 the British Parliament, by resolutions, censured the votes, resolutions, and proceedings of Massachusetts against the Mutiny Act (which see). That portion of them which proposed to bring offenders from that colony to Great Britain for trial highly offended the Americans. The Virginia Assembly passed strong resolutions condemnatory of the proceedings of Parliament; and these were followed by similar resolutions passed by the Assemblies of New York, Delaware, Maryland, and North and South Carolina.

Colonial Congress, EARLY. Soon after the attack on Schenectady (1690), the government of Massachusetts addressed a circular letter to all the colonies as far south as Maryland, inviting them to send commissioners to New York, to agree upon some plan of operations for the defence of the whole. Delegates from Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York met in the city of New York in May, 1690, and the campaign against Canada was planned. This was the first Colonial Congress. (See *King William's War.*)

Colonial Currency, REGULATION OF THE. Complaints were made of the diversity which existed in the several colonies in the moneys of account, and of the various rates at which the Spanish coins, which formed the principal circulation, passed current in different places. It was believed that coin might be kept in the country by enhancing its nominal value; and this value was further increased by the depreciation of the circulating bills of credit. A royal proclamation in 1704 established for all the colonies the old New England standard, by fixing the value of the dollar at six shillings (seventy-five cents of our currency); and this proclamation was reinforced in 1707 by an act of Parliament inflicting severe penalties on such as disregarded it. This regulation of the currency was evaded or openly disregarded by some of the colonies; and at length the circulating medium was thrown into still greater confusion by new issues of paper money.

Colonial Manufactures, RESTRICTIONS UPON. As soon as the American colonies began to manufacture for themselves, they encountered the jealousy of the English manufacturers. The act of 1663 extended to the "vent of English woollens, and other manufactures and commodities." In 1699 Parliament declared that "no wool, yarn, or woollen manufactures of the American plantations should be shipped there, or even laden, in order to be transported thence to any place whatever." This was the beginning of restrictions on our colonial manufactures. In 1719 the House of Commons said that "the erecting of manufactories in the colonies tended to lessen their dependence upon Great Britain." The colonies continually increased in population and in the products of their industry and economy, and complaints from interested persons were as constantly made to the British government that they were not only carrying on trade but setting up manufactories detrimental to Great Britain. In 1731 the House of Commons directed the Board of Trade to inquire and report respecting the matter. They reported that paper, iron, flax, hats, and leather were manufactured in the colonies; that there were more manufactories set up in the colonies northward of Virginia, "particularly in New England," than in any other of the British colonies; that they were capable of supplying their own wants in manufactured goods, and therefore detrimental to British interests, and made less dependent on the mother country. The company of hatters in London complained that large numbers of hats were manufactured in New England, and exported to foreign countries; and through their influence an act of Parliament was procured (1732), not only to prevent such exportation, and to prevent their being carried from one colony to another, but to restrain, to a certain extent, the manufacture of them in the colonies. They were forbidden being shipped, or even laden upon a horse or cart, with an intent to be exported to any place whatever. The colonial hatters were forbidden to employ more than two apprentices at the same time; and no negro was permitted to work at the business. In 1750 an act was passed permitting pig and bar iron to be imported from the colonies to London duty free, but prohibited the erection or continuance of any "mill or other engine for slitting and rolling iron, or any plating forge to work with a belt hammer, or any furnace for making steel in the colonies, under the penalty of $1000." Every such mill, engine, plating forge, and furnace was declared a "nuisance," which, if not abated within thirty days, was subject to a forfeit of $2500. This was really oppressive; and some of the colonies, regarding these acts as violations of their charters, obeyed them only sufficiently to prevent an open rupture. The narrow views of publicists like Dr. Davenant and Sir Josiah Child, and the greed of English manufacturers, stimulated Parliament to the adoption of such unjust measures. Mr. Child, no doubt, expressed the convictions of the English mind when he wrote, in 1670, that "New England was the most prejudicial plantation to the kingdom." In fact, the people of England from an early period regarded the North American colonies, particularly those of New England, as their rivals in navigation and trade. Child declared that "there is nothing more prejudicial, and in prospect more dangerous to any mother kingdom, than the increase of shipping in her colonies, plantations, and provinces." Dr. Davenant, who wrote later, was in accordance with these narrow views of Child. The proceedings of the British government were generally in accordance with the views of these writers. It is believed that Adam Smith (1770) was the first English writer who dared to deny, not only the policy, but the justice of these features in the British colonial system. In his *Wealth of Nations*, he says, after giving an outline of that system: "To prohibit a great people, however, from making all they can of every part of their own produce, or from employing their stock and industry in the way they judge most advantageous to themselves, is a manifest violation of the most sacred rights of mankind."

Colonial Peace, Treaty for. On the 16th of November, 1686, a treaty of peace and neutrality was concluded at London between England and France, by which it was agreed that there should be a firm peace, as well in South as in North America, on the continents and islands, by sea and land; that no soldiers or armed men living either in the English or French-American colonies and islands should commit any act of hostility or damage to either party, or give any assistance or supplies of men or victuals "to the wild Indians" with whom either king should have war; that both parties should enjoy the possessions and prerogatives they then possessed; that the governors and officers of either nation should be strictly enjoined to give no assistance or protection to any pirates of whatever nation, and should punish as pirates all such as should fit out any ship without lawful commission and authority.

Colonial Policy of William III. The Convention Parliament that gave the crown of England to William and Mary adopted a Bill of Rights, which the new monarchs confirmed by their signatures. It recited the grievances suffered by the people during the preceding reign, and solemnly asserted the right of subjects to petition; the right of Parliament to freedom of debate; the right of electors to choose representatives freely, and other privileges as rights of the people. This Bill of Rights contained the fundamental principles of political liberty, yet the crown hesitated to apply them to the English people who formed the American colonies. The most renowned jurists of the reign of William seem not to have formed a complete conception of the true connective principle between the parent country and its colonies; of the extent of the royal prerogative as applied to the government of each; while the jurisdiction of Parliament was by all admitted to be coextensive with the boundaries of the empire. When the colonial assemblies, in imitation of the Convention Parliament, hastened to enact bills of rights, William, who seems to have abated nothing of the high ground of his predecessors concerning royal prerogatives, gave decided and repeated negatives. He negatived provincial acts for establishing the writ of habeas corpus; he continued the prohibition of printing in the colonies, introduced by James into his instructions for the royal governors; and statesmen and jurists of liberal views recognized an extent of the royal prerogative in the colonies which they desired at home. Chief-justice Holt advised his sovereign to assume the government of Maryland on a supposed necessity, without any forms of law; and another distinguished jurist doubted how far the Marylanders were entitled to the benefit of Magna Charta. And the wisest cabinet William ever had denied to the New-Englanders the privilege of the writ of habeas corpus because "it had never been conferred on the colonists by any king of England." Mr. Locke, with other philosophers (see *Fundamental Constitutions*) solemnly advised the sovereign to appoint "a captain-general over the English-American colonies, with dictatorial power to levy and command an army without their own consent, or even the approbation of Parliament."

Colonial Population, Increase of. From the English Revolution (1688) to the beginning of the French and Indian War in 1754 (which see), a period of sixty-six years, the growth in the population had been rapid. In New England, the increase had been from 75,000 to 425,000; New York, from 20,000 to 85,000; New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland, from 47,000 to 372,000; Virginia, from 50,000 to 168,000; and the Carolinas and Georgia, from 8000 to 135,000.

In 1768 John Dickinson wrote: "We are all tillers of the earth from Nova Scotia to West Florida. We are a people of cultivation, scattered over an immense territory; communicating with each other by means of good roads and navigable rivers; united by the bands of a mild and beneficent government; all respecting the laws without dreading their power, because they are equitable."

Colonial Usages Perpetuated. The Revolution made no sudden or violent change in the laws or political institutions of America beyond casting off the superintending power of Great Britain, and even that power was replaced, to a limited extent, by the authority of Congress. The most marked peculiarity of the change was the public recognition of the theory of the equal rights of man. This theory was first publicly promulgated by the First Continental Congress in the Declaration of Colonial Rights. It was reiterated in the Declaration of Independence, and was tacitly recognized as the foundation of all the state governments. Yet, to a great extent, it remained a *theory* only, for human slavery was fostered and defended, by which four millions of the people of the Republic were absolutely deprived of their natural rights, when the proclamation of President Lincoln (Jan. 1, 1863) reduced the theory to practice, and made all men and women within the United States absolutely free. (See *Emancipation Proclamation.*) In civil affairs, colonial usages, in modified forms, were apparent. In Pennsylvania, two persons from each county were to be chosen every seven years to act as a "Council of Censors," with power to investigate all branches of the Constitution. The Constitution of New York established a "Council of Revision," composed of the governor, chancellor, and judges of the Supreme Court, to which were submitted all bills about to pass into laws. If objected to by the council, a majority of two thirds in both branches of the Legislature was required to pass them. A "Council of Appointment" was also provided for, consisting of sixteen senators, to be annually elected by the Assembly, four from each of the four senatorial districts into which the state was at first divided. All nominations to office by the governor required the sanction of this council. By the Constitution of Georgia all mechanics, even though destitute of pecuniary qualifications, were entitled to vote by virtue of their trades; and every person entitled to vote and failing to do so was subjected to a fine of five pounds.

Colonial War Expenditures. The English-American colonies, mindful of the importance of their position, and of the necessity for defence against the encroachments of their French neighbors, gave freely of their substance to carry on the contest for the mastery. The Seven Years', or French and Indian, War probably cost the colonies, in the aggregate, full $20,000,000, besides the flower of their youth. During the contest, from 1756 to 1763, Parliament granted the colonies about $5,500,000, leaving the latter to suffer the loss of nearly $15,000,000 by exertions to maintain the integrity of the British realm and to defend their homes and firesides. Massachusetts alone had expended $2,500,000, and kept from four to seven thousand men in the field a portion of each year, besides garrisons and recruits to the regular regiments. Connecticut had expended no less than $2,000,000. The outstanding debt of New York, incurred by the war, was nearly $1,000,000, and of Virginia $800,000; and the other Southern colonies had spent money freely. By disease and weapons of war thirty thousand colonial soldiers had fallen in the struggle.

Colonization of Negroes First Proposed. The Rev. Samuel Hopkins appears to have been the first to propose a scheme for the colonization of free colored people. He suggested that negroes might be emancipated and a "public provision be made to transport them to Africa, where they might probably live better than in any other country." Out of this suggestion undoubtedly originated the American Colonization Society.

Colonization Society, AMERICAN. The idea of restoring Africans in America to their native country occupied the minds of philanthropists at an early period. It seems to have been first suggested by Rev. Samuel Hopkins and Rev. Ezra Stiles, of Newport, R. I., where the African slave-trade was extensively carried on. They issued a circular on the subject in August, 1773, in which they invited subscriptions to a fund for founding a colony of free negroes from America on the western shore of Africa. A contribution was made by ladies of Newport in February, 1774, and aid was received from Massachusetts and Connecticut. After the Revolution the effort was renewed by Dr. Hopkins, and he endeavored to make arrangements by which free blacks from America might join the English colony at Sierra Leone, established in 1787, for a home for destitute Africans from different parts of the world, and for promoting African civilization. He failed. In 1793 he proposed a plan of colonization to be carried on by the several states and by the national government. He persevered in his unavailing efforts until his death, in 1803. The subject continued to be agitated from time to time, and in 1815 a company of thirty-eight colored persons emigrated to Sierra Leone from New Bedford. Steps had been taken as early as 1811 for the organization of a colonization society. A meeting at Princeton, at which Samuel J. Mills, the eminent promoter of missions, R. B. Finley, E. B. Caldwell, and F. S. Key were conspicuous, considered such a proposition; and on Dec. 23, 1816, the constitution of "The American Colonization Society" was adopted at a meeting in Washington, and the first officers were chosen Jan. 1, 1817. All reference to emancipation, present or future, was specially disclaimed by the society, and in the course of the current session of Congress Henry Clay, John Randolph, Bushrod Washington, and other slaveholders took a leading part in the formation of the society. The same year (1817) Mr. Mills and Ebenezer Burgess were sent to Africa to select a site for the colony. They chose Sherboro Island and the coast adjoining; but the settlement was finally made at Cape Mesurada, between Sierra Leone and the Ivory Coast. In March, 1819, Congress appropriated $100,000 for the purpose of sending back to Africa such slaves as should be surreptitiously imported. Provision was made for agents and emigrants to be sent out, and early in 1820 the society appointed an agent, put $30,000 at his disposal, and sent in a government vessel thirty-eight emigrants, who were to erect tents for the reception of at least three hundred recaptured Africans. The society was represented in the colony by Jehudi Ashmun, who arrived there Aug. 3, 1822. The agents of the United States were instructed not to exercise any authority over the colonists, and the government of the colony was assumed by the society. A constitution for the colony (which was named Liberia) was adopted (Jan. 24, 1820), by which all the powers of the government were vested in the agent for the society. But the colonists demurred, and Ashmun abandoned the undertaking. In 1824 a plan for a civil government in Liberia was adopted, by which the society retained the privilege of ultimate decision. Another constitution was adopted in 1828, by which most of the civil power was secured to the colonists. In 1841 Joseph J. Roberts, a colored man, was appointed governor by the society. Import duties were levied on foreign goods, and out of this grew a temporary difficulty with the British government. British subjects violated the navigation law with impunity, and when the British government was appealed to, the answer was that Liberia had no national existence. In this emergency the society surrendered such governmental power as it had retained, and recommended the colony to proclaim itself a sovereign independent state. It was done, and such a declaration of independence was made July 26, 1847. The next year the independence of Liberia was acknowledged by the United States, Great Britain, and France. So the American Colonization Society became mainly instrumental in the foundation of Liberia, and of having sustained the colony until it became self-supporting. Since that consummation the society has continued to send out emigrants, and to furnish them with provisions and temporary dwellings; and it has materially aided the state in the development of its commerce and agriculture. It has also aided in the dissemination of Christianity in that region, and in the promotion of education and the general welfare of the country. Since the abolition of slavery the number of applicants for passage to Liberia has much increased. The whole amount of receipts of the society from its foundation to 1875 was, in round numbers, $2,400,000, and those of the auxiliary societies a little more than $400,000. The whole number of emigrants that had been sent out to that date by the parent society was nearly fourteen thousand, and the Maryland Society had sent about twelve hundred and fifty; also five thousand seven hundred and twenty-two Africans recaptured by the United States government had been returned. The society has had five presidents—namely, Bushrod Washington, Charles Carroll, James Madison, Henry Clay, and J. H. B. Latrobe — all slaveholders. (See *Liberia.*)

Colony on the Santilla. On the banks of the Santilla, in the remote South, below the Altamaha, and on Cumberland Island, on the coast, a band of adventurers seated themselves in 1756, and established a colony, which they called New Hanover. They framed rules for its government, and held possession of the country southward as far as the St. Mary's River, in defiance of any warnings from the government of South Carolina, and from the Spaniards of St. Augustine.

Colorado, Admission of the State of. On July 4, 1876, Colorado Territory, the inhabitants of which had applied for admission into the Union more than ten years before, was admitted as a state. It was the crowning act of the first century of the political existence of the Republic. That act made the number of states thirty-eight; and the number of territories then remaining, and preparing to become states, was ten. Two bounded domains — namely, Alaska and the Indian Territory (which see)—had not yet secured territorial governments when this record was closed, in 1880.

Colorado, The State of, a mountainous and high plateau region, between Kansas and Nebraska on the east, Utah on the west, Wyoming Territory on the north, and New Mexico and Texas on the south, was organized as a territory Feb. 28, 1861, from parts of its several contiguous neighbors. The portion north of the Arkansas River, and east of the Rocky Mountains, was included in the Louisiana purchase of 1803 (see *Louisiana*), and the remainder in the Mexican cession of 1848. Francis Vasquez de Coronado (which see) is believed to have been the first European explorer of this region in 1540. In 1806 President Jefferson sent an expedition, under Lieutenant Z. M. Pike, to explore this region, and they nearly crossed the territory from north to south in the mountain region, and discovered the mountain known as Pike's Peak. In 1820 another expedition, under Colonel S. H. Long, visited this region; and in 1842–44 Colonel Frémont crossed it in his famous passage over the Rocky Mountains. Before the beginning of the present century, it is believed that no white inhabitants lived in Colorado, excepting a few Mexicans and Spaniards in the southern portion. Gold was discovered there, near the mouth of Clear Creek, in 1852 by a Cherokee cattle-trader. This and other discoveries of the precious metal had brought about four hundred persons to Colorado in 1858–59; and the first discovery of a gold-bearing lode was by John H. Gregory, May 6, 1859, in what is now known as

STATE SEAL OF COLORADO.

the "Gregory Mining District," in Gilpin County. An attempt to organize government among the miners was made by the erection of Arapahoe County, and the election of a representative to the Kansas Legislature, Nov. 6, 1858. He was instructed to urge the separation of the district from Kansas and the organization of a new territory. The first movement for a territorial government was by a convention of one hundred and twenty-eight delegates held at Denver in the autumn of 1869, who decided to memorialize Congress on the subject. Colorado, after several applications, was admitted as a state July 4, 1876.

Colors, SURRENDER OF, AT YORKTOWN. The delivery of the colors of the several British regiments at Yorktown, twenty-eight in number, was performed in this wise: twenty-eight British captains, each bearing a flag in a case, were drawn up in line. Opposite to these were twenty-eight American sergeants in a line to receive them. Colonel Hamilton, who had the direction of the movement, appointed an ensign to conduct the ceremony. When that officer gave the order for the British captains to advance two paces and deliver up their colors, and the American sergeants to advance two paces to receive them, the former hesitated, and gave as a reason that they were unwilling to surrender their flags to non-commissioned officers. Hamilton, who was at a distance, observed the hesitation, and rode up to inquire the cause. On being informed, he willingly spared the feelings of the vanquished captains, and ordered the ensign to receive them himself and hand them to the sergeants.

Columbia, CAPTURE OF. There was no adequate military force for the protection of Columbia, the capital of South Carolina, when Sherman's army appeared before it, Feb. 16, 1865. Beauregard was in command of troops there who burned bridges spanning the Congaree and Saluda rivers, but could not keep the Nationals back. Beauregard made a slight show of resistance and withdrew, Wade Hampton, in command of the rear-guard, lingering in the town until the Nationals were about to enter it. Sherman gave orders for the destruction of all arsenals and public property not needed for the use of the army, as well as all railroads, depots, and machinery, but to "spare all dwellings, colleges, schools, asylums, and harmless private property." On the evening of Feb. 17 Sherman and Howard rode into the city. It had been surrendered by the civil authorities to Colonel Stone, who had posted men about the town to protect persons and property. The wind was then blowing a gale. Wade Hampton, regardless of danger to the city, ordered all the cotton in the town to be burned, to prevent its falling into the hands of the invaders. When Sherman entered, the cotton was in the streets, with the cords and bagging cut. Some of the bales were already on fire by Hampton's orders. The wind scattered the burning cotton, which set fire to the roofs of houses in various parts of the city. The National troops partially subdued the flames, but they broke out afresh in the night, and in the course of a few hours the beautiful capital of South Carolina was a smoking ruin. Hampton ungenerously charged the conflagration to Sherman.

Columbus and the Courtier. Mendoza, Grand Cardinal of Spain, after Ferdinand and Isabella had honored Columbus on his return from his first voyage, invited him to a feast, and, giving the navigator the honored seat at table, excited the jealousy of some of the nobility present. A courtier, moved by a narrow feeling of personal and national jealousy—for Columbus was lately only a poor Italian—asked the admiral, in a flippant manner, whether he thought that, in case he had not discovered the Indies (which it was believed he had found), there were not men in Spain who would have been equal to the enterprise? Columbus immediately took an egg that was before him, and invited the courtier to make it stand on one of its ends. He could not. All the company tried in vain to do it. Then Columbus struck the egg upon the table, so as to flatten the end by a fracture, and left it standing. "Any one could do that," said the courtier. "After I have shown the way," replied the admiral. "Gentlemen," he continued, "after I have shown a new way to India, nothing is easier than to follow." The courtier was answered.

Columbus as a Prophet. Returning from Central America (1503), Columbus was wrecked on the island of Jamaica. He sent to Santo Domingo for succor, but none came for months afterwards. The Spaniards becoming burdensome to the natives, the latter contemplated the destruction of Columbus and his party. The astronomical knowledge of the latter enabled him to overawe the natives. He told them the anger of God would be manifested on a particular night by withdrawing the light of the moon, and, if they continued to refuse support to the white people—who were the special favorites of the Great Spirit—they would be destroyed. At the time predicted an eclipse of the moon occurred. The barbarians were struck with terror, and instantly brought him an ample supply of provisions, begging him to ask the Great Spirit to spare them. He did so. The eclipse went off, and from that day the natives avoided giving offence to the great navigator and his companions.

Columbus, BARTHOLOMEW, elder brother of Christopher Columbus, was born in Genoa about 1432; died in 1514. In 1470, when Christopher went to Lisbon, Bartholomew was there engaged as a mariner and a constructor of maps and charts. It is believed that he visited the Cape of Good Hope with Bartholomew Diaz. Christopher sent him to England to seek the aid of Henry VII. in making a voyage of discovery. He was captured by pirates, and long retained a captive; and, on his return through France, he first heard of his brother's great discovery beyond the Atlantic, and that he had sailed on a second voyage. Bartholomew was cordially received at the Spanish court, and Queen Isabella sent him in command of three store-ships for the colony in Hispaniola, or

Santo Domingo. His brother received him with joy, and made him lieutenant-governor of the Indies. He was uncommonly brave and energetic, and, when his brother was sent to Spain in chains, Bartholomew shared his imprisonment, was released with him, and was made Lord of Mona—an island near Santo Domingo.

Columbus, Christopher (Cristoforo Colombo), was born in or near Genoa about the year 1435. At the age of ten years he was placed in the University of Pavia, where he was instructed in the sciences which pertain to navigation. In 1450 he entered the marine service of Genoa, and remained in it twenty years. His brother, Bartholomew, was then in Lisbon, engaged in constructing maps and charts, and making an occasional voyage at sea. Thither Christopher went in 1470. Prince Henry of Portugal was then engaged in explorations of the west coast of Africa, seeking for a passage to India south of that continent. The merchants of western Europe were then debarred from participation in the rich commerce of the East by way of the Mediterranean Sea by their powerful and jealous rivals the Italians, and this fact stimulated explorations for the circumnavigation of Africa. Prince Henry had persisted in his efforts in the face of opposition of priests and learned professors, and had already, by actual discovery by his navigators, exploded the erroneous belief that the equator was impassable because of the extreme heat of the air and water. Columbus hoped to find employment in the prince's service, but Henry died soon after the Genoese arrived in Lisbon. In the chapel of the Convent of All-Saints at Lisbon, Columbus became acquainted with Felipa, daughter of Palestrello, an Italian cavalier then dead, who had been one of the most trusted of Prince Henry's navigators. Mutual love led to marriage. The bride's mother placed in the hands of Columbus the papers of her husband, which opened to his mind a new field of contemplation and ambition. The desire for making explorations in the western waters was powerfully stimulated by stories of vegetable productions, timber handsomely carved, and the bodies of two men with dusky skins, which had been washed ashore at the Azores from some unknown land in the west. These had actually been seen by Pedro Correo, a brother of the wife of Columbus. These things confirmed Columbus in his belief that the earth was a sphere, and that Asia might be reached by sailing westward from Europe. He laid plans for explorations, and, in 1474, communicated them to the learned Florentine cosmographer, Paul Toscanelli, who gave him an encouraging answer, and sent him a map constructed partly from Ptolemy's and partly from descriptions of Farther India by Marco Polo, a Venetian traveller who told of Cathay (China) and Zipango (Japan) in the 12th century. In 1477 Columbus sailed northwest from Portugal beyond Iceland to latitude 73°, when pack-ice turned him back; and it is believed that he went southward as far as the coast of Guinea. Unable to fit out a vessel for himself, it is stated that he first applied for aid, but in vain, to the Genoese. With like ill-success he applied to King John of Portugal, who favored his suit, but priests and professors interposed controlling objections. The king, however, sent a caravel ostensibly with provisions for the Cape de Verd Islands, but with secret instructions to the commander to pursue a course westward indicated by Columbus. The fears of the mariners caused them to turn back from the threatenings of the turbulent Atlantic. Disgusted with this pitiful trick, reduced to poverty, and having lost his wife, he determined to leave Portugal and ask aid elsewhere. With his son, Diego, he left Lisbon for Spain secretly in 1484, while his brother, Bartholomew, prepared to go to England to ask aid for the projected enterprise from Henry VII. Genoa again declined to help him; so also did Venice; and he applied to the powerful and wealthy Spanish Dukes of Medina-Sidonia and Medina-Celi. They declined, but the latter recommended the project to Queen Isabella (see *Isabella*), then with her court at Cordova, who requested the navigator to be sent to her. In that city he became attached to Donna Beatrice Enriques, by whom he had a son, Ferdinand, born in 1487, who became the biographer of his father. It was an inauspicious moment for Columbus to lay his projects before the Spanish monarchs, for their courts were moving from place to place, in troublous times, surrounded by the din and pageantry of war. But at Salamanca he was introduced to King Ferdinand by Mendoza, Archbishop of Toledo and Grand Car-

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

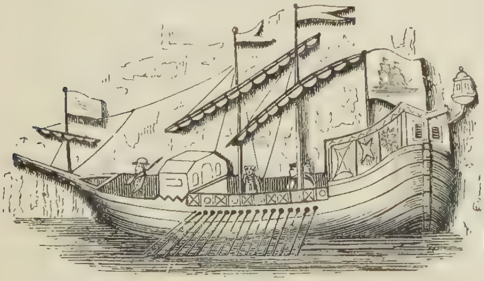
dinal of Spain. A council of astronomers and cosmographers was assembled at Salamanca to consider the project. They decided that the scheme was visionary, unscriptural, and irreligious, and the navigator was in danger of arraignment before the tribunal of the Inquisition. For seven years longer the patient navigator waited, while the Spanish monarchs were engaged with the Moors in Granada, during which time Columbus served in the army as a volunteer. Meanwhile the King of Portugal had invited him (1488) to return, and Henry VII. had also invited him by letter to come to the court of England, giving him encouraging promises of aid. But Ferdinand and Isabella treated him kindly, and he remained in Spain until 1491, when he set out to lay his projects before Charles VIII. of France. On his way, at the close of a beautiful October day, he stopped at the gate of the Franciscan monastery of Santa Maria de Rabida, near the port of Palos, in Andalusia, and asked for refreshment for his boy, Diego. The prior of the convent, Juan Perez de Marchena became interested in the conversation of the stranger, and he invited him to remain as his guest. To him Columbus unfolded his plans. Alonzo Pinzon and other eminent navigators at Palos, with scientific men, were invited to the convent to confer with Columbus, and Pinzon offered to furnish and command a ship for explorations. Marchena, who had been Queen Isabella's confessor, wrote to her, asking an interview with her for Columbus. It was granted. Marchena rode to the camp of the monarchs at Santa Fé, when the queen sent a little more than two hundred dollars to Columbus to enable him to appear decently at court. He explained his project to the sovereigns. He had already, by the operations of a poetic temperament, regarded himself as a preordained gospel-bearer to the heathen of unknown lands. His name implied it—"Christ-bearer;" and hearing that the Sultan of Egypt intended to destroy the sepulchre of Jesus, he recorded a vow that he would devote the proceeds of his explorations to the rescue of that holy place from destruction. He urged his suit with eloquence, but the queen's confessor opposed the demands of Columbus, and he left Granáda—just conquered from the Moors—for France. A more enlightened civil officer at court remonstrated, and the queen sent for him to return. Ferdinand said their wars had so exhausted the treasury that money could not be spared for the en-

THE SHIPS OF COLUMBUS.

LANDING OF COLUMBUS. (From an Ancient Manuscript.)

BANNER OF THE EXPEDITION.

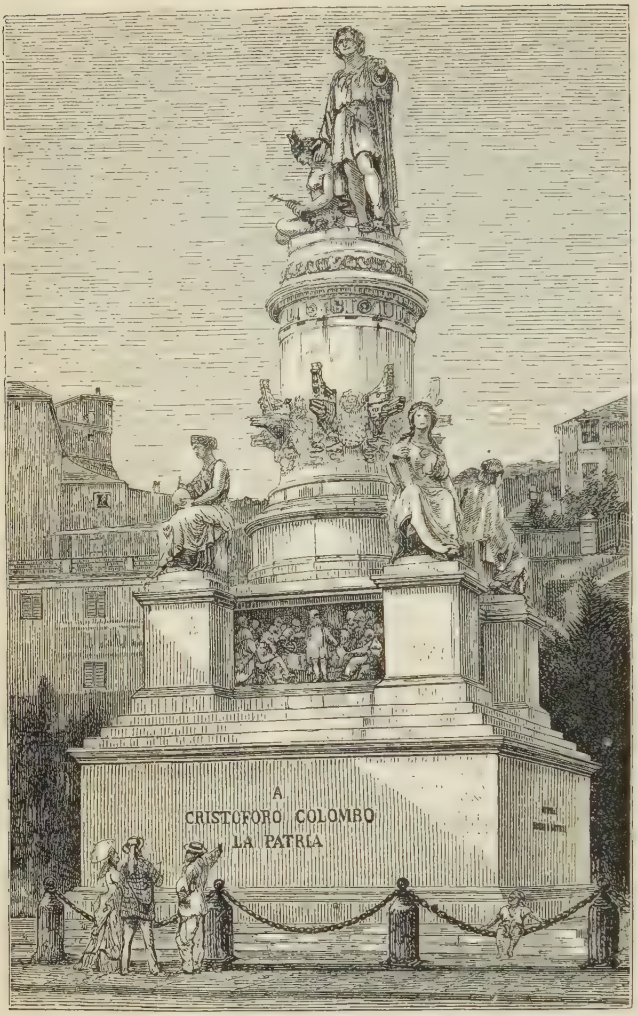
terprise. The queen declared that she would pledge her crown jewels, if necessary, to supply the money, and would undertake the enterprise for her own crown of Castile. (See *Isabella.*) An agreement was signed by their majesties and Columbus at Santa Fé, April 17, 1492, by which he and his heirs should forever have the office of admiral over all lands he might discover, with honors equal to those of Grand Admiral of Castile; that he should be viceroy and governor-general over the same; that he should receive one tenth of all mineral and other products that might be obtained; that he and his lieutenants should be the sole judges in all disputes that might arise between his jurisdiction and Spain, and that he might advance one eighth in any venture, and receive a corresponding share of the profits. He was also authorized to enjoy the title of Don, or noble. The monarchs fitted out two small vessels—caravels, or undecked ships—and one larger vessel. Leaving Diego as page to Prince Juan, the heir apparent, Columbus sailed from Palos in the decked vessel *Santa Maria*, with Martin Alonzo Pinzon as commander of the *Pinta*, and his brother, Vincent Yañez Pinzon, as commander of the *Nina*, the two caravels. They left the port with a complement of officers and crews on Friday morning, Aug. 3, 1492, and after a voyage marked by tempests—the crew in mortal fear most of the time, and at last mutinous—some indications of land were discovered late in the night of the 11th of October. Many times they had been deceived by presages of land, and what they thought were actual discoveries of it. The crown had offered a little more than one hundred dollars to the man who should first discover land, and to this Columbus added the prize of a silken doublet. All eyes were continually on the alert. At ten o'clock on the night of the 11th, Columbus was on his deck, eagerly watching for signs of land, when he discovered a light on the verge of the horizon. Early the next morning, Rodrigo Tricena, a sailor of the *Pinta*, first saw land; but the award was given to Columbus, who saw the light on the land. At dawn a wooded shore lay before them; and, after a perilous voyage of seventy-one days, the commander, with the banner of the expedition in his hand, leading his followers, landed, as they supposed, on the shores of Farther India. Columbus, clad in scarlet and gold, first touched the beach. A group of naked natives, with skins of a copper hue, watched their movements with awe, and regarded the strangers as gods. Believing he was in India, Columbus called the inhabitants "Indians." (See *Indians.*) Columbus took possession of the land in the name of the crown of Castile. He soon discovered it to be an island—one of the Bahamas—which he named San Salvador. Sailing southward, he discovered Cuba, Hayti (see *Santo Domingo*), and other islands, and these were denominated the West Indies. He called Hayti Hispaniola, or Little Spain. On its northern shores the *Santa Maria* was wrecked. With her timbers he built a fort, and leaving thirty-nine men there to defend it and the interests of Castile, he sailed in the *Nina* for Spain in January, 1493, taking with him several natives of both sexes. On the voyage he encountered a fearful tempest, but arrived safely in the Tagus early in March, where the King of Portugal kindly received him. On the 15th he reached Palos, and hastened to the court at Barcelona, with his natives, specimens of precious metals, beautiful birds, and other products of the newly found regions. There he was received with great honors; all his dignities were reaffirmed, and on the 25th of September, 1493, he sailed from Cadiz with a fleet of seventeen ships and fifteen hundred men. Most of these were merely adventurers, and by quarrels and mutinies gave the admiral a great deal of trouble. After discovering the Windward Islands, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, founding a colony on Hispaniola, and leaving his brother, Bartholomew, lieutenant-governor of the island, he returned to Spain, reaching Cadiz July 11, 1494. Jealousy had promulgated many slanders concerning him; these were all swept away in his presence. The nobles were jealous of him, and used every means in their power to thwart his grand purposes and to bring him into disrepute. He calmly met their opposition by reason, and often confused them by simple illustrations. (See *Columbus and the Courtier*.) He had already, by his success, silenced the clamor of the ignorant and superstitious priesthood about the "unscriptural" and "irreligious" character of his proposition, and finally, on May 30, 1498, Columbus sailed from San Lucar de Barrameda, with six ships, on his third voyage of discovery. He took a more southerly course, and discovered the continent of South America on the 1st of August, at the mouth of the river Orinoco, which he supposed to be one of the rivers flowing out of Eden. Having discovered several islands, and the coast of Pará, he finally went to Hispaniola to recruit his enfeebled health. The colony was in great disorder, and his efforts to restore order caused him to be made the victim of jealousy and malice. He was misrepresented at the Spanish court, and Francisco de Bobadilla was sent from Spain to inquire into the matter. He was ambitious and unscrupulous, and he sent Columbus and his brother to Spain in chains, usurping the government of the island. The commander of the ship that conveyed him across the sea offered to liberate him while on board his vessel. "No," he proudly replied; "the chains have been put on by command of their majesties, and I will wear them until they shall order them to be taken off. I will preserve them afterwards as relics and memorials of the reward of my services." The monarchs and the people of Spain were indignant at this treatment of the great discoverer. He was released, and Bobadilla was recalled, but, through the influence of the jealous Spanish nobles, Nicolas Ovando was appointed by the king governor of Hispaniola, instead of Columbus. The great admiral was neglected for a while, when the earnest queen, Isabella, caused an expedition to be fitted out for him, and, on May 9, 1502, he sailed from Cadiz with a small fleet, mostly caravels. He was not allowed to refit at his own colony of Hispaniola or Santo Domingo, and he sailed to the western verge of the Gulf of Mexico in search of a passage through what he always believed to be Zipango (Japan) to Cathay, or China. After great sufferings, he returned to Spain in November, 1504, old and infirm, to find the good queen dead, and to experience the bitterness of neglect from Ferdinand, her husband. His claims were rejected by the ungrateful monarch, and he lived in poverty and obscurity in Valladolid until May 20, 1506, when he died. In a touching letter to a friend just before his death, he wrote, "I have no place to repair to except an inn, and am often with nothing to pay for my sustenance." For seven years his remains lay unnoticed in a convent at Valladolid, when the ashamed Ferdinand had them removed to a monastery in Seville, and erected a monument to his memory on which were inscribed the words, "A CASTILLA Y A LEON NUEVO MUNDO DIO COLON"—"To Castile and Leon Columbus gave a New World." He died in the belief that the continent he had discovered was Asia. His remains were conveyed (with those of his son, Diego), in 1536, to Santo Domingo, where they were deposited in the cathedral, and there they yet remain. A noble monument to his memory has been erected in the city of Genoa, Italy.



A SPANISH CARAVEL.

Columbus, DIEGO, son of Christopher, was born about the year 1472, in Lisbon. He accompanied his father to Spain, and was instructed, in his youth, at the Monastery of Santa Maria de Rabida, near Palos, under the care of Father Marchena, the prior of the establishment. He was afterwards nurtured in the bosom of the Spanish court as an attendant upon Prince Juan, and developed, in young manhood, much of the indomitable spirit of his father. After the death of the latter he made unavailing efforts to procure from King Ferdinand the offices and rights secured to his father and his descendants by solemn contract. At the end of two years he sued the king before the Council of the Indies (which see), and obtained a decree in his favor and a confirmation of his title to the vice-royalty of the West Indies. In 1509 he sailed for Santo Domingo with his young wife, and superseded Nicolas Ovando as governor, who had been wrongfully put in that office by the king. (See *Santo Domingo*.) The same year he planted a settlement in Jamaica; and in 1511 he sent Diego Velasquez, with a small number of troops, to conquer Cuba, and the victor was made captain-general of the island. (See *Cuba*.)

Columbus (KY.), EVACUATION OF. When Fort Donelson fell, Columbus was no longer tenable. Beauregard was now in command on the borders of the Mississippi, and, pursuant to orders from Richmond, he directed General Polk to evacuate Columbus and transfer his troops and as much of the munitions of war as possible to places of greater safety. New Madrid and New Madrid Bend, in Missouri, and Island No. 10, in the Mississippi, were chosen for this purpose. Meanwhile Commodore Foote had put in motion a fleet of gunboats on the Mississippi, and accompanying transports bore two thousand troops under General W. T. Sherman.



THE COLUMBUS MONUMENT IN GENOA. (See page 277.)

When, on March 4, 1862, this armament approached Columbus, the Union flag was seen floating there. It had been unfurled the previous evening by a scouting-party of Illinois troops from Paducah, who found the place deserted by Confederate soldiers. Sherman left a garrison in the fortifications, and Foote returned to Cairo to prepare for a siege of New Madrid and Island No. 10.

Columbus, Ship of, wrecked. After Columbus discovered the island of Cuba (which he named Juanna, in honor of the son of the Spanish monarch), he sailed eastward and discovered Hayti, which he named Hispaniola. It was afterwards called Santo Domingo. There, on shoals, his careless sailors lost one of his ships. The native prince, Guacanagari, showed great sympathy, and placed a guard to protect the property of the ship. The event occurred on Christmas-day, and Columbus called the place La Navidad—the nativity. The natives saved everything from the wreck, treated the crew kindly, and were requited with cruel wrong.

Column of Marble at Yorktown. The Continental Congress, sitting at Philadelphia, when the glad news of the capture of Cornwallis and his army reached them, passed a vote of thanks to Washington, Rochambeau, and De Grasse, the corps of artillery under General Knox, and their respective officers and men. Also, on the same day the Congress resolved, "That the United States, in Congress assembled, will cause to be erected at York, in Virginia, a marble column, adorned with emblems of the alliance between the United States and his Christian majesty, and inscribed with a succinct narrative of the surrender of Earl Cornwallis to his excellency General Washington, Commander-in-chief of the combined forces of America and France; to his excellency the Count de Rochambeau, commanding the auxiliary troops of his most Christian majesty in America; and to his excellency the Count de Grasse, commanding the naval forces of France in Chesapeake Bay." The column has never been erected.

Colyer's Christian Work at New Berne. Vincent Colyer, a well-known citizen of New York, and originator of the United States Christian Commission (which see), was with Burnside in his expedition to the coast of North Carolina, for the purpose of administering to the wants of the poor and ignorant colored people. After the capture of New Berne (which see), and his labors in the hospitals were ended, he was placed, by Burnside, in charge of the helpless inhabitants of that town. He began his benevolent work by finding remunerative labor for the able-bodied. He opened evening-schools for the instruction of the colored people, in which over eight hundred most eager pupils were nightly seen, some of the New England soldiers acting as teachers. But this Christian work was suddenly stopped in May, 1862, when Edward Stanley, a North Carolinian, was appointed, by the President, military governor of the state. The closing of these schools was the first administrative act of the new governor, because, he said, the laws of North Carolina made it "a criminal offence to teach the blacks to read." (See *United States Christian Commission.*)

Comanches. This is a roving and warlike tribe of North American Indians of the Shoshone family (see *Shoshones*), who, when first known, inhabited the region from the headwaters of the Brazos and Colorado rivers to those of the Arkansas and Missouri, some of their bands penetrating to Santa Fé, in New Mexico, and to Durango, in Mexico. The Spaniards and the tribes on the Central Plains, like the Pawnees, have felt their power in war from an early period. They called themselves by a name signifying "live people," believed in one supreme Father, and claim to have come from towards the setting sun. The tribe is divided into eight bands, and all are expert horsemen. The French in Louisiana first penetrated their country in 1718, buying horses from them, and in 1724 made a treaty with them. They were then numerous. One village visited by the French had 140 lodges, containing 1500 women, 2000 children, and 800 warriors. Until 1783, they had long and bloody wars with the Spaniards, when, their great war-chief being slain, a peace was established. They numbered 5000 in 1780. In 1816 they lost 4000 of their population by small-pox. So late as 1847 their number was estimated at 10,000, with over 2000 warriors; in 1872, at a little over 4000. They have always been troublesome. Some of them were on a reservation in Texas, but were expelled. The government is now trying the experiment of placing them on a reservation in the western part of the Indian Territory. Many of them continue to roam, and ridicule the idea of settling down.

Combahee, SKIRMISH NEAR THE (1782). When General Leslie, the British commander in Charleston, heard of the proceedings in Parliament, he proposed to General Greene a cessation of hostilities. Greene referred the matter to Congress, but did not relax his vigilance. Leslie also requested Greene to allow him to purchase supplies for his army. Unwilling to nourish a viper in his bosom, Greene refused, and Leslie resorted to force to obtain supplies. Late in August (1782) he attempted to ascend the Combahee for the purpose. He was opposed by the Americans under General Gist, of the Maryland line. Colonel John Laurens volunteered in the service, and in a skirmish at daybreak (Aug. 25) he was killed. His was almost the last life sacrificed in the old war for independence.

Combs, LESLIE, was born in Kentucky in 1794. His father was an officer in the Revolution and a hunter. Leslie was the youngest of twelve children, and was distinguished for energy and bravery in the War of 1812–15. He commanded a company of scouts, and did admirable service for the salvation of Fort Meigs. (See *Combs's Mission.*) Being made prisoner near Fort Meigs, he was taken by the Indians, his captors, to Fort Miami, below, where he was compelled to run the gauntlet (see *Running the Gauntlet*), in which he was pretty severely wounded. His life was saved by the humanity of Tecumtha. Combs became a general of the militia, and has always been a zealous politician and active citizen. When these lines were written (in the spring of 1880) General Combs was yet living in Kentucky, active and vigorous in mind and body, at the age of eighty-five years.

LESLIE COMBS.

Combs's Mission. When General Harrison was about to be closely besieged in Fort Meigs (May, 1813), he sent Captain William Oliver to urge General Green Clay to push forward rapidly with the Kentuckians he was then leading towards the Maumee Rapids. While Colonel Dudley, whom Clay had sent forward, was on his way down the Au Glaize River, Clay heard of the perilous condition of Fort Meigs, and resolved to send word to Harrison of his near approach. He called for a volunteer, when Leslie Combs—then nineteen years of age—promptly responded. "When we reach Fort Defiance," said Combs, "if you will furnish me with a good canoe, I will carry your despatches to General Harrison and return with his orders. I shall only require four or five volunteers and one of my Indian guides to accompany me." Combs was properly equipped, and on May 1 he started on his perilous errand, accompanied by two brothers named Walker and two others (Paxton and Johnson); also by young Black Fish, a Shawnoese warrior. They passed the Rapids in safety, when the roar of the siege met their ears. Great peril was in their way. It was late in the morning. To remain where they were until night or to go on was equally hazardous. "We must go on," said the brave Combs. As they passed the last bend in the stream that kept the fort from view they were greatly rejoiced to see that "the flag was still there," and that the garrison was holding out against a strong besieging force. Suddenly they were assailed by some Indians in the woods, and were compelled to turn their canoe towards the opposite shore, where they abandoned it. One of the party was killed and another badly wounded. Combs and his unhurt companions made their way back to Fort Defiance.

Commander-in-chief of the Continental

Army, Appointment of the. General Artemas Ward, of Massachusetts, the senior in command of the provincial militia, assumed the chief command of the volunteers who gathered near Boston after the skirmishes at Lexington and Concord. He was good and virtuous, but aged, and not possessed of sufficient military ability or personal activity to make an energetic commander of a large army. The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts apprehended the melting-away of the army gathered at Cambridge unless a more efficient leader might be found, and, to avoid giving offence, they asked the Continental Congress to assume the regulation and direction of that army. Joseph Warren, in a private letter to Samuel Adams, wrote that the request was to be interpreted as a desire for the appointment of a new chief commander of all the troops that might be raised. Just then news arrived of the approach of reinforcements for Gage, under generals Clinton, Howe, and Burgoyne, and Congress felt the importance of acting promptly. At the suggestion of John Adams, the army was adopted as a continental one (see *Continental Army*); and, at the suggestion of the New England delegation, Thomas Johnson, of Maryland, nominated George Washington, of Virginia, for commander-in-chief of the armies of the inchoate republic. He was elected (June 15, 1775) by unanimous vote, and on the following morning John Hancock, President of Congress, officially announced to Washington his appointment. The Virginia colonel arose and, in a brief and modest speech, formally accepted the office. After expressing doubts of his ability to perform the duties satisfactorily, he said, "As to pay, sir, I beg leave to assure the Congress that, as no pecuniary consideration could have tempted me to accept the arduous employment at the expense of my domestic ease and happiness, I do not wish to make any profit from it. I will keep an exact account of my expenses. Those, I doubt not, they will discharge, and that is all I desire." Washington was then a little past forty-three years of age. He left Philadelphia for Cambridge a week later, where he arrived on the 2d of July; and at about nine o'clock on the morning of the 3d, standing in the shade of an elm-tree (yet living) in Cambridge, he formally assumed the command of the army, then numbering about sixteen thousand men, all New-Englanders.

Commerce Alarmed (1861). The patriotic action of the New York Legislature (see *New York, Position of*), and the official suggestion of Mayor Wood that the city of New York would do well to "secede" and set itself up as a free and independent city, alarmed the commercial classes of that emporium, and these and large capitalists hastened to propose conciliation by making any concession to the demands of "the South." A war would sweep thousands of the debtors of New York merchants into absolute ruin, and millions of dollars' worth of bills receivable in the hands of their creditors would be made worthless. On Jan. 12, 1861, a memorial, numerously signed by merchants and capitalists, was sent to Congress, praying that body to legislate in the interests of peace, and to give assurances, "with any required guarantees," to the slaveholders, that their right to regulate slavery within their respective states should be secured; that the Fugitive Slave Law should be faithfully executed; that Personal Liberty Acts in "possible conflict" with that law should be "readjusted," and that they should have half the territories wherof to organize slave-labor states. They were assured, the memorialists said, that such measures "would restore peace to their agitated country." This was followed by another memorial, adopted Jan. 18, at the rooms of the Chamber of Commerce, similar in tone to the other, and substantially recommending the Crittenden Compromise (which see) as a basis of pacification. It was taken to Washington city early in February, with forty thousand names attached to it. At an immense meeting of citizens at the Cooper Institute, New York, Jan. 24, it was resolved to send three commissioners to six of the "seceded states," instructed to confer with "delegates of the people," in convention assembled, in regard to the "best measures calculated to restore the peace and integrity of the Union."

Commissioners of Customs. Parliament in 1767 provided for the establishment of a board of revenue commissioners for America, with its seat at Boston, for the enforcement of the old and new revenue laws. They arrived at Boston in May, and soon became involved in trouble with the people.

Commissioners of Indian Affairs. The Congress perceived the importance of cultivating friendly relations with the surrounding Indian tribes, and three boards for the purpose were created (July 11, 1775): One for the Six Nations and other northern tribes; a second for the Cherokees, and a third for the intervening nations. Five hundred dollars were voted for the education of Indian youths at Wheelock's School, then recently established at Hanover, N. H., and efforts were made to engage some of them either as allies in the war or to a strict neutrality. The commissioners were invested with power to make treaties with the Indians and to employ men influential among the Indians to assist them. They were authorized to arrest any agents of the British government who might be found stirring up the Indians to hostilities. A friendly "talk" with the Six Nations was adopted, and measures taken which in a great degree secured the neutrality, at least, of the barbarians on our borders.

Commissioners to Canada. In March, 1776, the Continental Congress appointed Dr. Franklin, Samuel Chase, and Charles Carroll a board of commissioners, invested with full authority to proceed to Canada and direct military affairs there; to promise a guarantee of the estates of the clergy; to establish a free press; to offer the Canadians free trade with all nations; to invite them to form a free and independent government for themselves, and to join the confederated colonies. They arrived at Montreal, where Arnold was in command, at the close of April; but they were too late. A general impression prevailed there that the Republican army would soon be driven out of Canada, for large reinforcements for Carleton were daily expected. Without an army, without hard money, without credit, the commissioners could not ask the Canadians to join them. Perceiving that the chief object of their mission could not be attained, it was determined to withdraw the troops to St. John, and there to so strengthen them and their position that they would form an impassable barrier to an invasion from the north. The commissioners soon returned.

Commissioners to Foreign Courts. Soon after the Declaration of Independence, a plan of treaties with foreign governments was reported by a committee on that subject, and Franklin, Deane, and Jefferson were appointed (Sept. 26, 1776) commissioners to the French court. Unwilling to leave his wife, whose health was declining, Jefferson refused the appointment, and Arthur Lee, then in London, was substituted for him; and after the loss of New York these commissioners were urged to press the subject of a treaty of alliance and commerce. Commissioners were also appointed to other European courts in 1777; Arthur Lee to that of Madrid; his brother William (lately one of the sheriffs of London) to Vienna and Berlin, and Ralph Izard, of South Carolina, to Florence. All but the French mission were failures. Arthur Lee was not allowed to enter Madrid, and went on a fruitless errand to Germany; Izard made no attempt to visit Florence, and William Lee visited Berlin without accomplishing anything. There his papers were stolen from him, through the contrivance, it was believed, of the British resident minister.

Commissioners to urge Secession. In order to carry out the design of the few leaders of the secession scheme to have the whole fifteen slave-labor states belong to a projected "Southern Confederacy," four of the state conventions which adopted ordinances of secession appointed commissioners to go to these several states as seductive missionaries in the cause of disunion. The names and destinations of these were as follows: *South Carolina* sent to Alabama A. P. Calhoun; to Georgia, James L. Orr; to Florida, L. W. Spratt; to Mississippi, M. L. Bonham; to Louisiana, J. L. Manning; to Arkansas, A. C. Spain; to Texas, J. B. Kershaw. *Alabama* sent to North Carolina Isham W. Garrett; to Mississippi, E. W. Petters; to South Carolina, J. A. Elmore; to Maryland, A. F. Hopkins; to Virginia, Frank Gilmer; to Tennessee, L. Pope Walker; to Kentucky, Stephen F. Hale; to Arkansas, John A. Winston. *Georgia* sent to Missouri Luther J. Glenn; to Virginia, Henry L. Benning. *Mississippi* sent to South Carolina C. E. Hooker; to Alabama, Joseph W. Matthews; to Georgia, William L. Harris; to Louisiana, Wirt Adams; to Texas, H. H. Miller; to Arkansas, George B. Fall; to Florida, E. M. Yerger; to Tennessee, T. J. Wharton; to Kentucky, W. S. Featherstone; to North Carolina, Jacob Thompson, the Secretary of the Interior; to Virginia, Fulton Anderson; to Maryland, A. H. Handy; to Delaware, Henry Dickinson; to Missouri, — Russell.

Committee of Congress at Cambridge. The seeming apathy of Congress in respect to the army besieging Boston greatly perplexed Washington. The cool season was approaching, and not only powder and artillery were wanting, but fuel, shelter, clothing, provisions, and the wages of the soldiers. Washington, wearied by ineffectual remonstrances, at length wrote a letter to Congress, implying his sense that the neglect of that body had brought matters in his army to a crisis. He submitted to their consideration the wants of the army, a mutinous spirit prevailing among them, and the danger that, when the terms of enlistment of all the troops excepting the regulars should expire in December, it would be difficult to re-enlist them or get new recruits. Congress had really no power to provide an adequate remedy for this state of things; therefore it appointed a committee (Sept. 30, 1775), consisting of Dr. Franklin, Lynch, and Harrison, to repair to the camp, and, with the New England colonies and Washington, devise a plan for renovating the army. They arrived at Cambridge Oct. 15. With such a representative of Congress as Franklin and such a military leader as Washington, the New England commissioners worked harmoniously; and they devised a scheme for forming, governing, and supplying a new army of about twenty-three thousand men, whom the general was authorized to enlist without delay.

Committee of Fifty-one. The Conservative Republicans of New York, alarmed by the bold movements of the more radical Sons of Liberty, appointed a grand Committee of Fifty-one, as true "representatives of public sentiment." They repudiated a message sent to Boston (May 14, 1774) by the Sons of Liberty, recommending the revival of non-importation measures, but they heartily approved of a general congress. The radical "Liberty Boys" were offended, and their "Vigilance Committee" called a meeting of citizens (July 6) in the Fields (which see). It was the largest gathering ever before seen in New York. The meeting was addressed by Alexander Hamilton, then a student in King's (now Columbia) College. It was his first speech, and a most remarkable one; and it stirred the people with so much indignation that the alarmed Committee of Fifty-one referred the nomination of deputies to the Continental Congress to their radical brother, the "Tribune" (which see). At the same time they offended some of their own more zealous members by denouncing the resolutions adopted by the meeting in the Fields as seditious, and eleven members withdrew from the committee. Not long afterwards this timid committee disappeared.

Committee of One Hundred. When the Provincial Congress had begun its first session, the Sons of Liberty in the city of New York proceeded to organize a provisional municipal government. They called a meeting of citizens (May 5, 1775), at which a Committee of One Hundred was chosen, invested with the charge of city affairs, the people pledging themselves to obey the orders of the committee until other arrangements should be made by the Continental Congress. While the Provincial Congress legislated, the Committee of One Hundred executed the expressed will of the people.

Committee of Secret Correspondence. On Sept. 18, 1775, the Continental Congress appointed Messrs. Welling, Franklin, Livingston, Alsop, Deane, Dickinson, Langdon, McKean, and Ward a "Secret Committee" to contract for the importation from Europe of ammunition, small-arms, and cannons, and for such a purpose Silas Deane was soon sent to France. By a resolution of the Congress, April 17, 1777, the name of this committee was changed to "Committee of Foreign Affairs," whose functions were like those of the (present) Secretary of State.

Committee of Sixty. After the Provincial Assembly of New York had adjourned, never to meet again (April 3, 1775), a Committee of Sixty was appointed in the city of New York to enforce the regulations of the American Association (which see). Warmly supported by the Sons of Liberty, they took the lead in political matters. By their recommendation the people in the several counties chose representatives for a Provincial Congress, which body first convened on May 22, 1775.

Committee of States. The Articles of Confederation having provided for the appointment of a committee composed of one delegate from each state, to sit during each annual recess of Congress, such a committee was appointed at the session of 1783–84. They split into irreconcilable parties and abandoned their post (June, 1784), leaving the Confederate government or league of states without any head. The experiment was never tried again.

Committees of Correspondence. At a town meeting held in Boston (Oct. 22, 1772) a large committee, composed of the most active popular leaders, was appointed to state in an address the rights of the colonies, more especially those of Massachusetts; to communicate and publish the same to the several towns of the province, to the other colonies, and to the world; stating the infringements and violations of those rights, from time to time, by the British government, and to request an interchange of sentiments. This was done in a masterly manner, and Franklin, in England, caused the address and report to be published in London, with a preface of his own. On the reception of these documents, the Virginia House of Burgesses appointed a committee to obtain authentic accounts of all proceedings of Parliament or the ministry which might affect the rights of the colonies. The committee was also authorized to open a correspondence and communication with the other colonies. This system of committees of correspondence became general, and a powerful aid in producing unanimity of sentiment in the various colonies. This was the first and most important step towards political union.

Committees of Inspection. In many of the now American states the class known as Tories or adherents to the crown were in a minority, and in many places suffered indignities, such as, if offensively active, receiving a covering of tar and feathers, being carted around as a public spectacle, and other abuses which personal and political malignity could inflict. To prevent such disgraceful scenes, which would lead to retaliation and the rule of mob law, the Continental Congress specially committed the oversight of Tories and suspected persons to the regularly appointed committees of inspection and observation for the several counties and districts. The Tories were also exposed to the dangers from the law, for the Whigs (see *Whig and Tory*) had taken all power into their hands, and required allegiance to state governments from all the inhabitants. The consequence was that many left the states and became refugees in Great Britain or in its American provinces.

Common Schools, Early, in New England. In 1649 provision was made in the Massachusetts Code for the establishing of common schools in that province. By it every township was required to maintain a school for reading and writing; and every town of a hundred householders, a grammar-school, with a teacher qualified to "fit youths for the university" (Harvard). This school-law was re-enacted in Connecticut in the very same terms; and was adopted also by Plymouth and New Haven. The preamble to this law declared that, "it being one chief project of that old deluder, Sathan, to keep men from the knowledge of the Scriptures, as in former times keeping them in an unknown tongue, so in these later times persuading men from the use of tongues, so that at the least the true sense and meaning of the original might be clouded with false glossing of saint-seeming deceivers, and that learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers," therefore this law was enacted.

"Common Sense." At the suggestion of Dr. Benjamin Rush, of Philadelphia, it is said, Thomas Paine put forward a powerfully written pamphlet, at the beginning of 1776, in favor of the independence of the colonies. Its terse, sharp, incisive, and vigorous sentences stirred the people with irrepressible aspirations for independence. A single sentence will indicate its character: "The nearer any government approaches to a republic, the less business there is for a king; in England a king hath little more to do than to make war and give away places. Arms must decide the contest [between Great Britain and America]; the appeal was the choice of the king, and the continent hath escaped the challenge. The sun never shone on a cause of greater worth. 'Tis not the affair of a city, a county, a province, or a kingdom, but of a continent—of at least one eighth part of the habitable globe. 'Tis not the concern of a day, a year, or an age; posterity are virtually involved in it, even to the end of time. . . . Freedom hath been hunted round the globe: Asia and Africa hath long expelled her; Europe regards her like a stranger; and England hath given her warning to depart. O, receive the fugitive, and prepare an asylum for mankind." The effect of *Common Sense* was marvellous. Its trumpet tones awakened the continent, and made every patriot's heart beat with intense emotion. It was read with avidity everywhere; and the public appetite for its solid food was not appeased until one hundred thousand copies had fallen from the press. The Legislature of Pennsylvania voted to the author $2500. Washington, in a letter written at Cambridge, highly applauded it, and all over the colonies there were immediate movements in favor of absolute independence. (See *Thomas Paine.*)

Communistic Societies in America. There are but eight of these societies in name. These are the *Shakers*, established in the Eastern States in the closing decade of the last century, and in the West in 1808; the *Rappists*, established in 1805; the *Bäumelers*, or *Zoarites*, established in 1817; the *Eben-Ezers*, or *Amana* communists, established in 1844; the *Bethel Commune*, established in 1844; the *Oneida Perfectionists*, established in 1848, the *Icarians*, who date from 1849, and the *Aurora Commune*, which dates from 1852. These eight societies consist, in fact, of not less than seventy-two communes. The Shakers have fifty-eight of these, the Amana Society seven, and the Perfectionists two. The remaining societies consist of but a single commune each. Of all, only two of the societies remain under the guidance of their founders. These communes numbered in the aggregate, in 1874, about 5000 persons, including children, and were then scattered in thirteen states, in which they own probably one hundred and eighty thousand acres of land. The lowest estimate of their wealth is $12,000,000, almost the whole of it created by patient industry and frugality. All these communes have as their bond of union some form of religious belief. The Shakers and Rappists are the only celibates among these societies. For a minute account of the communistic societies in America, see a work on the subject by Charles Nordhoff, 1875.

Community System in New England. The lands of the Plymouth Colony were held in common by the "Pilgrims" and their partners, the London merchants. In 1627 the "Pilgrims" sent Isaac Allerton to England to negotiate for the purchase of the shares of the London adventurers, with their stocks, merchandise, lands, and chattels. He did so for $9000, payable in nine years in equal annual instalments. Some of the principal persons of the colony became bound for the rest, and a partnership was formed, into which was admitted the head of every family, and every young man of age and prudence. It was agreed that every single freeman should have one share; and every father of a family have leave to purchase one share for himself, one for his wife, and one for every child living with him; that every one should pay his part of the public debt according to the number of his shares. To every share twenty acres of arable land were assigned by lot; to every six shares, one cow and two goats, and swine in the same proportion. This agreement was made in full court, Jan. 3, 1628. The joint-stock or community system was then abandoned, a division of the movable property was made, and twenty acres of land nearest to the town were assigned in fee to each colonist.

Company of Free-traders. When the province of Pennsylvania was granted to William Penn, a number of settlements already existed there. A royal proclamation confirming the grant to Penn, and another from Penn himself, were sent to these settlements by the hand of William Markham in the summer of 1681. In his proclamation Penn assured the settlers that they should live free under laws of their own making. Meanwhile adventurers calling themselves the Company of Free-traders made a contract with the proprietor for the purchase of lands at the rate of about ten dollars the hundred acres, subject to a perpetual quit-rent of one shilling for every one-hundred-acre grant; the purchasers also to have lots in a city to be laid out. Three vessels filled with these emigrants soon sailed for the Delaware, with three commissioners, who bore a plan of the city, and a friendly letter from Penn to the Indians, whom he addressed as brethren.

Compton, Lizzie. A sprightly Canadian girl of this name, sixteen years of age, dressed in man's apparel, enlisted in the service of the United States during the Civil War, and served in various regiments for eighteen months. She was in seven different regiments, and participated in several battles. At Fredericksburg she was severely wounded. On account of the discovery of her sex, she was several times mustered out of the service, and then she would re-enlist in another regiment. She was in a sharp fight between Morgan's guerillas and Colonel Moore's Michigan troops at Green River, Ky. (June 4, 1863), where she was again wounded.

Conciliatory Bills (Lord North's Second). When Parliament reassembled after the Christmas holidays (January, 1778), the Opposition exposed the losses, expenses, and hopelessness of the war with the colonists; and, to the surprise and disgust of some of his most ardent supporters, Lord North presented a plan for reconciliation (Feb. 17), and declared he had always been in favor of peace, and opposed to taxing the Americans. He introduced two bills: one renouncing, on the part of the British Parliament, any intention to levy taxes in America—conceding, in substance, the whole original ground of dispute; the other authorizing the appointment of five commissioners, the commanders of the naval and military forces to be two, with ample powers to treat for the re-establishment of royal authority. Meanwhile David Hartley, an opponent of the war, was sent to Paris to open negotiations with the American commissioners there. The war had already (1775–78) cost Great Britain more than twenty thousand men, $100,000,000 of public expenditure, and five hundred and fifty British vessels, chiefly in the merchant service, captured by American cruisers, worth about $12,000,000, besides a loss of trade with America, suspension of American debts, and the confiscation of the property of American loyalists. Added to all was the danger of a war with France. Copies of these conciliatory bills arrived in America in the middle of April (1778), and the Congress took immediate action upon them, for the partisans of the crown were very active in circulating them among the people. A committee of that body criticised these bills very keenly, showing their deceptiveness. Fearing the effect of the bills upon the people, they were ordered to be printed in the newspapers, together with the report of the committee, which concluded with a resolution, unanimously adopted, denouncing as open and avowed enemies all who should attempt a separate treaty, and declaring that no conference should be held with any commissioners until the British armies should be first withdrawn, or the independence of the United States acknowledged.

Conciliatory Proposition, LORD NORTH'S (1775). In the midst of the hot debate in Parliament on the New England Restraining Bill, Lord North astonished the king, the ministry, and the nation by himself bringing forward a conciliatory proposition, not unlike that offered by Chatham just before (Feb. 1), which required the colonists to acknowledge the supremacy and superintending power of Parliament, but provided that no tax should ever be levied except by the consent of the colonial assemblies. It also contained a provision for a congress of the colonies to vote, at the time of making this acknowledgment, a free grant to the king of a certain perpetual revenue, to be placed at the disposal of Parliament. All the assemblies rejected the proposition. A committee of the Continental Congress, to which the proposition had been referred, made a report (July 31, 1775), in which the generally unsatisfactory character and the unsafe vagueness of the ministerial offer were fully exposed. The Congress accepted the report, and published it to the world.

Concord. (See *Lexington and Concord.*)

Conestoga, MASSACRE OF INDIANS AT. (See *Paxton Boys.*)

Confederate Association for the Relief of Maimed Soldiers. While the loyal people were carrying on the benevolent work of the United States Sanitary and Christian Commissions (which see) for the benefit of the Union soldiers, similar efforts, though not on so grand a scale, were put forth by the benevolent minded in the slave-labor states for the benefit of the Confederate soldiers. They labored in the good work most zealously (especially the women), to the extent of their ability, and conferred vast benefits upon the sick and wounded soldiers of the Confederate Army. We have no special reports of the result of their labors, but we know that they were a great blessing to the recipients of the kindly care of the matrons and maidens of the South. Among the variety of organizations for benevolent purposes was one called *The Confederate Association for the Relief of Maimed Soldiers.* The object was to supply artificial limbs gratuitously to soldiers who had lost their natural ones.

Confederate Commissioners. The Confederate government at Montgomery (which see) appointed three commissioners to treat with the National government upon various topics of mutual interest, and for the "settlement of all questions of disagreement between the government of the United States and that of the Confederate States upon principles of right, justice, equity, and good faith." Two of these—John Forsyth, of Alabama, and Martin J. Crawford, of Georgia—arrived in Washington March 5, 1861. On the 11th they made a formal application through a senator for an official interview with the Secretary of State. It was declined, and on the 13th they sent to the Secretary a sealed communication, in which they set forth the object of their mission and asked the appointment of an early day when they might present their credentials to the President. This first attempt of the so-called "Confederate States of America" to gain a recognition of sovereignty for the Confederacy failed, for the administration refused to receive them other than as private citizens. The commissioners urged that seven states had exercised "the inherent right of secession," withdrawn from the Union and formed a confederacy, and claimed the right of a foreign power to be treated as equals. To this the President, through the Secretary (Mr. Seward), said that he could not admit that secession was possible, that any states were out of the Union; that the "Confederate States" were not a foreign power; and that he could not "recognize them as diplomatic agents, or hold correspondence or other communication with them." This course at the outset gave the country confidence in the firmness and wisdom of President Lincoln. The commissioners, after giving the Secretary of State a lecture, returned home, April 11, 1861.

Confederate Congress, ACTS OF (1861). Jefferson Davis called the Confederate Congress to assemble at Montgomery on April 29, 1861. That body passed (May 9) an act of fifteen sections recognizing the existence of war between the United States and the Confederate States, and concerning the commissioning of privateers. The preamble declared that the Confederate States had made earnest efforts to establish friendly relations between themselves and the United States, but the latter had refused and had prepared to make war upon the former and blockade its ports. Such being the case, they declared that war existed between "the two governments." They authorized the "President of the Confederate States" to use their whole land and naval force to meet "the war thus commenced," and to issue commissions to privateers under the seal of the Confederate States. (See *Seal of the Confederate States.*) The tenth section of the act offered a bounty of $20 for each person who might be on board any armed ship or vessel belonging to the United

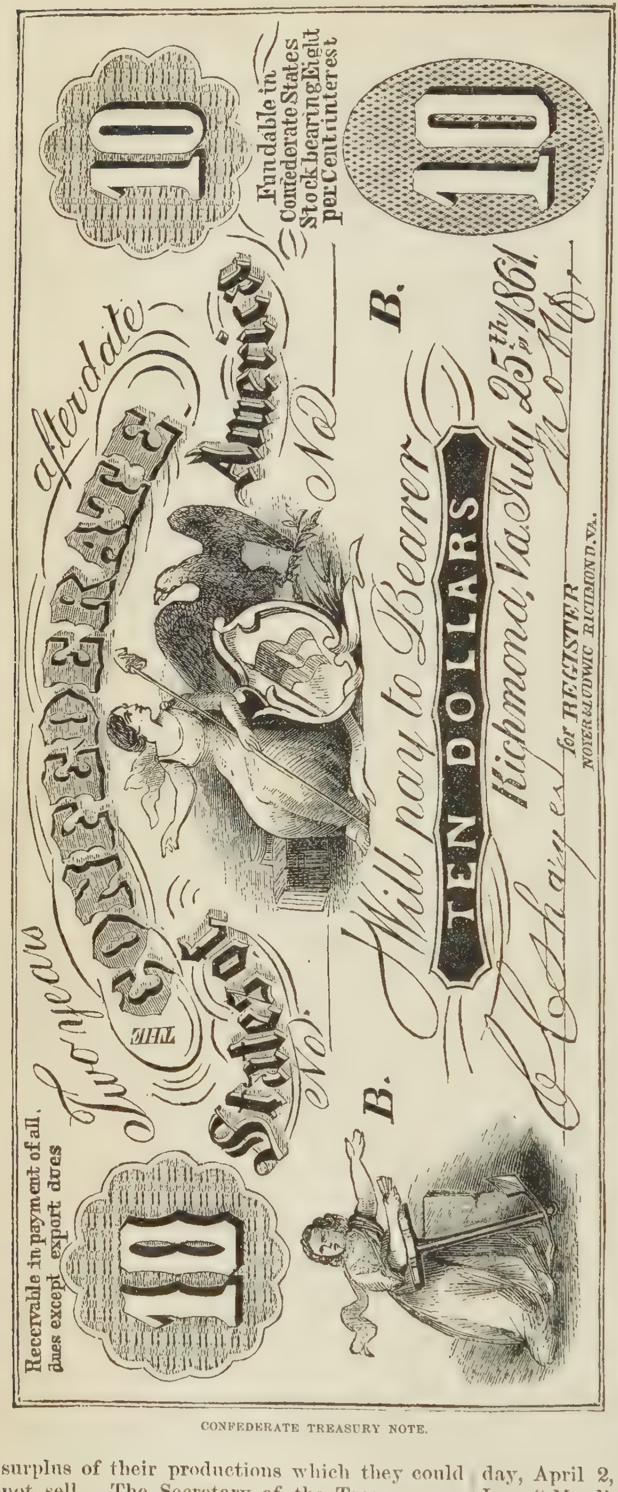
States, at the commencement of an engagement, which should be burned, sunk, or destroyed by any vessel commissioned as a privateer, of equal or inferior force. They also offered a bounty of $25 for every prisoner captured by a privateer and delivered to an agent of the "Confederacy." Davis had not waited for this legal sanction, but issued commissions for privateers immediately after his proclamation, April 17. (See *Davis's Proclamation.*)

Confederate Conscriptions. In 1862 the Confederate Congress authorized the President to call out all able-bodied persons between the ages of eighteen and forty-five to serve in the army. After the fall of Vicksburg and the disaster at Gettysburg the volunteer enlistments were few, and Davis found it difficult to recruit his shattered armies, for there was general discouragement, and no bounties were offered. So the Confederate government took measures to force men into the army, and appointed agents in every county to seize supplies, if necessary, for the use of the army; and at about the close of 1863 the Confederate Congress passed an extraordinary act, which declared "every white man in the Confederacy, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, to be in the military service and subject to the articles of war and military discipline and penalties; and that upon failure to report for duty at a military station within a certain time, he would be liable to the penalty of death as a deserter."

Confederate Constitution, The, was ratified by a state convention in Alabama March 13, 1861; by the state convention of Georgia on the 16th; by Louisiana on the 21st; by Texas on the 25th; by Mississippi on the 30th, and by South Carolina on April 5th.

Confederate Diplomatic Agents. As soon as Jefferson Davis was seated in the presidential chair (see *Inauguration of Davis*) and the league had assumed a national character, he sent commissioners to Europe to secure formal recognition by, and make commercial regulations with, the leading governments there. These commissioners were W. L. Yancey, of Alabama; P. A. Rust, of Louisiana; A. Dudley Mann, of Virginia, and T. Butler King, of Georgia. Yancey, who lacked about every requisite of a statesman, but who could fill with wild passion an excitable populace at home, was sent to England. Rust, a Frenchman, who had emigrated to Louisiana in early life, married a woman of fortune, and reached a seat on the bench of the Supreme Court of that state, was sent to France. Mann, a dull statistician of moderate ability, was sent to Holland; and King, an extensive slaveholder and farmer, was sent to Belgium. They could not inspire the confidence of the rulers and statesmen of Europe, either in the justice or the ultimate success of their cause. They wandered about, seeking in vain for willing listeners to their tales of woe and promise, in diplomatic circles, and finally abandoned the mission, to the relief of those who had become wearied by their importunities.

Confederate Finances (1861). The congress at Montgomery found it necessary to have money to carry on a war against the Union. So, abandoning the dream of free-trade in which many had indulged, and which it was believed would bring to their doors the luxuries of the world, they proposed tariff laws, and even went so far as to propose an export duty on the great staple, cotton, on whose supposed regal power they confidently leaned for support. "I apprehend," said Cobb, who proposed the last-named measure, "that we are conscious of the power we hold in our hands, by reason of our producing that staple so necessary to the world. I doubt not that power will exert an influence mightier than armies or navies. We know that by an embargo we could soon place not only the United States, but many of the European powers, under the necessity of electing between such a recognition of our independence as we require, or domestic revulsions at home." They issued bonds in February, 1861, but failed to find customers for them. In May the "Congress" gave the Secretary of the Treasury discretionary power to issue, in lieu of bonds, $20,000,000 in treasury notes, not bearing interest, in denominations of not less than $5, to "be receivable in payment of all debts or taxes due to the Confederate States, except the export duty on cotton or in exchange for bonds authorized to be issued." These notes were made payable in specie at the end of two years from the date of their issue. Another scheme was set forth in an act approved May 21, which forbade debtors to individuals or corporations in the free-labor states from making payments of the same "to their respective creditors, or their agents or assignees, during the existing war," but to pay the amount of their indebtedness "into the treasury of the Confederate States, in specie or treasury notes, and receive for the same the treasurer's certificate," these certificates to be redeemable at the close of the war and the restoration of peace, in specie or its equivalent. It was estimated that the amount due by men in the "Confederate States" to dealers in the free-labor states at that time was about $200,000,000. All honorable men refused to countenance this scheme of villany, and refrained from reporting their indebtedness, but took every opportunity to liquidate the claims of Northern creditors. This notable scheme failed to put much money in the treasury of the Confederate States. Then another scheme was planned to raise money. Cotton was made the main basis for the credit of bonds issued by the Secretary of the Treasury. They secured very little money from this source, but got from the producers almost everything required for the consumption of their armies, for a while. The plan was for the planters to subscribe for the use of the government a certain sum of money out of the proceeds of a certain number of bales of cotton, when sold, the planter being allowed to retain the custody of his cotton and the right to choose his time for its sale. When sold, he received the amount of his subscription in bonds of the Confederacy. The people had little faith in these bonds, but were willing to invest in them the


10
10
Fundable in Confederate States Stock bearing Eight per Cent interest
Two years after date
The Confederate States of America
No
B.
Will pay to Bearer
TEN DOLLARS
Richmond, Va. July 25th 1861
for Register
NOYER & LUDWIC RICHMOND, VA.
B.
Receivable in payment of all dues except export dues
10

CONFEDERATE TREASURY NOTE.

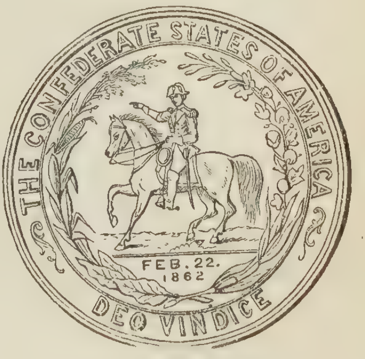
surplus of their productions which they could not sell. The Secretary of the Treasury announced in July that subscriptions to the cotton loan amounted to over $50,000,000. Bonds of this subscription to the amount of over $15,000,000 were disposed of in Europe, chiefly in England. (See *Cotton Loan*.)

Confederate Government at Richmond. Notwithstanding troops were pouring into Washington for the defence of the government, the Confederates felt confident that they would yet be able to seize the capital. Their government was removed from Montgomery to Richmond (May 21, 1861), that it might be near the theatre of operations against the National capital. They then had forty thousand troops in the field, of whom about twenty-five thousand were concentrating in Virginia. They had sent agents abroad to seek aid and recognition from foreign governments; had commissioned numerous privateers to depredate on the commerce of the United States; had extinguished the lights of one hundred and thirty-one lighthouses on the coast between Cape Henry, Va., and the Rio Grande, Texas; enlisted actively in their revolutionary schemes the governors of thirteen states; and insurrection had assumed the character of rebellion. Feeling confident of soon occupying the National capital, the Vice-President of the Confederacy (A. H. Stephens) said in a speech at Atlanta, Ga. (May 23, 1861), after referring to the occupation of the capital by loyal soldiery: "Their filthy spoliation of the public buildings and the works of art at the capital, and their preparations to destroy them, are strong evidences to my mind that they do not intend to hold or defend that place, but to abandon it, after having despoiled and laid it in ruins. Let them destroy it, savage-like, if they will. We will rebuild it; we will make the structures more glorious. Phœnix-like, new and more substantial structures will rise from its ashes. Planted anew, under the auspices of our superior institutions, it will live and flourish throughout all ages."

Confederate Government, FLIGHT OF (1865). While the inhabitants of Richmond, the Confederate capital, were at their respective places of worship (Sunday, April 2, 1865), the fearful message from Lee, "My lines are broken in three places; Richmond must be evacuated this evening," reached the doomed city. Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederacy, was at St. Paul's (Episcopal) Church, when the message was put in his hands by Colonel Taylorwood. He immediately left the church. There was a deep and painful silence for a moment, when the religious services were closed and the rector (Dr. Minnegerode) dismissed the congregation, after giving notice that General Ewell, the commander in Richmond, desired the local forces to assemble at three o'clock P.M. The Secretary of State (Benjamin), being a Jew, was not at church; the Secretary of the Navy (Mallory), a Roman Catholic, was at mass, in St. Peter's Cathedral; the Secretary of the Treasury (Trenholm) was sick; the Postmaster-general (Reagan) was at Dr. Petrie's Baptist Church; and the Secretary of War (Breckinridge) was at Dr. Duncan's Church. The inhabitants of the city were kept in the most painful suspense for hours, for rumor was busy. The government was as silent as the Sphinx. Towards evening wagons were loaded at the departments and driven to the stations of the Danville Railway, preparatory to the flight of the government officers. At eight o'clock in the evening President Davis left the city by railway, taking with him horses and carriages to use in case the road should be interrupted, declaring that he would not give up the struggle, but would make other efforts to sustain the cause. At nine o'clock the Virginia Legislature fled from the city. The Confederate Congress had already departed; and all that remained of the government in Richmond at midnight was the War Department, represented by Major Melton. The gold of the Louisiana banks that had been sent to Richmond for safe-keeping, and that of the Richmond banks, was sent away by the Danville Railway early in the day. The Confederate government halted in its flight at Danville, where an attempt was made at reorganization, to continue the contest "so long as there was a man left in the Confederacy." On hearing of the surrender of Lee, they fled from Danville to Greensborough, N. C., and made their official residence in a railroad carriage, where they remained until the 15th, when, it being seen that the surrender of Johnston was inevitable, they again took flight on horses and in ambulances for Charlotte, for the railway was crippled. (See *Stoneman's Raid.*) There Davis proposed to establish the future capital of the Confederacy. The surrender of Johnston caused the Confederacy to vanish into nothingness. The fugitive leaders of the government now took flight again on horseback, escorted by two thousand cavalry. They turned their faces towards the Gulf of Mexico, for the way to Mississippi and Texas was barred. At Charlotte, George Davis, the Confederate attorney-general, resigned his office; Trenholm gave up the secretaryship of the treasury on the banks of the Catawba, where Postmaster-general Reagan, having no further official business to transact, took Trenholm's place. The flight continued Gulfward, the escort constantly diminishing. At Washington, Ga., the rest of Davis's cabinet deserted him, only Reagan remaining faithful. Mallory, the Secretary of the Navy, doubtful whether his official services would be needed on the Gulf, fled, with Wigfall (which see), to La Grange, where he met his family and was subsequently arrested; and Benjamin fled to England. Davis's family had accompanied him from Danville to Washington; now, for prudential reasons, they separated, but were soon reunited; and near Irwinsville, the capital of Irwin County, Ga., three miles south from Macon, Davis was arrested by National cavalry on the morning of May 11, 1865, and taken a prisoner to Fortress Monroe. (See *Davis, Arrest of.*)

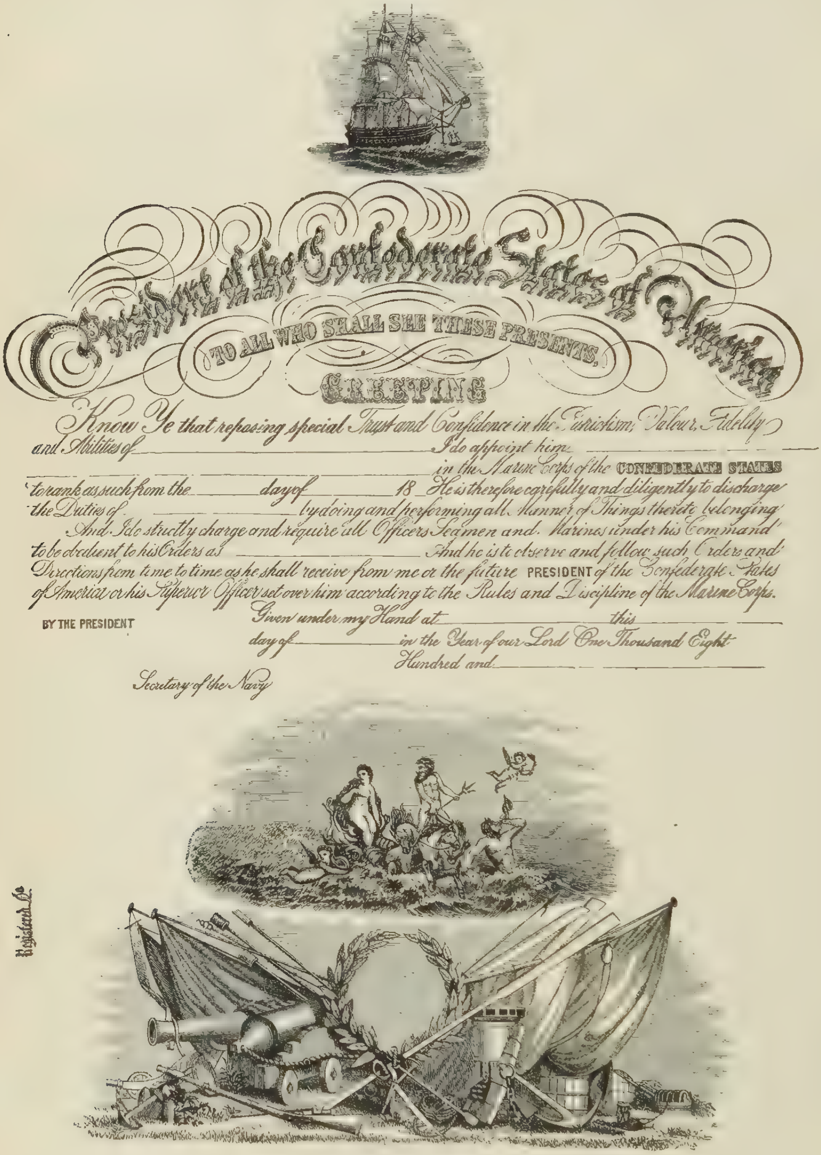
Confederate Government, PREPARATIONS OF FOR FLIGHT. President Davis and his colleagues were so thoroughly alarmed when the Nationals were approaching Richmond by land and water in May, 1862, that they made preparations to fly into South Carolina. The archives of the government were sent to Lynchburg and Columbia. The railway tracks over the bridges were covered with plank to facilitate the passage of artillery. The Secretary of the Treasury had a special train, the steam of the locomotive continually up, ready for flight. Disgusted and alarmed at this cowardice of the civil leaders of the cause, the Legislature of Virginia, then in session, passed resolutions (May 14, 1862) calling upon the government of the Confederate States to defend Richmond at all hazards, and resolved, with a clearness that deprived the trembling executive and his associates of every excuse but fear, that the "President be assured that whatever destruction or loss of property of the state or individuals shall thereby result, will be cheerfully submitted to." It is believed that this action was inspired by General Joseph E. Johnston. But for this, the members of the civil government would have been seen flying to South Carolina for personal safety.

Confederate Government Seal. A seal is a symbol of sovereignty within certain bounds. On April 30, 1863, a joint resolution of the Congress of the "Confederate States of America" became a law for the establishment of a seal, declaring that it should "consist of a device representing an equestrian portrait of Washington (after the statue which surmounts his monument at Richmond) surrounded with a wreath composed of the principal agricultural


THE CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA
FEB. 22. 1862
DEO VINDICE

PROPOSED "CONFEDERATE STATES" SEAL.

products of the Confederacy—cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, corn, wheat, and rice—and having around its margin the words, "THE CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA, FEB. 22, 1862" (the date of the establishment of the permanent government), with the motto "*Deo Vindice.*" Soon after the passage of this law, the Confederate Secretary of State (J. P. Benjamin) wrote to the Confederate representative in England (J. M. Mason), directing him to have a seal made by the best artist. Mr. Mason employed Joseph S. Wyon, chief "seal engraver to the queen," to do the work. It was completed early in July, 1864, and placed in charge of Lieutenant Chapman, of the Confederate Army, to convey it to Richmond. It was engraved in solid silver. It was sent by the way of Bermuda, but it did not reach Richmond until about the time when the Confederacy was broken up. The writer was informed by the attorney-general of the Confederacy at the time of its dissolution, that the seal was never used—no Confederate commission ever bore this emblem of sovereignty. In 1876 it was in the possession of T. J. Pickett, who was the commissioner of the Confederacy in Mexico. The engraving on page 287 is about half the size of the original.



President of the Confederate States of America

TO ALL WHO SHALL SEE THESE PRESENTS,

GREETING

Know Ye that reposing special Trust and Confidence in the Patriotism, Valour, Fidelity and Abilities of ____________ I do appoint him ____________ ____________ in the Marine Corps of the CONFEDERATE STATES to rank as such from the ______ day of ______ 18__ He is therefore carefully and diligently to discharge the Duties of ____________ by doing and performing all Manner of Things thereto belonging.

And I do strictly charge and require all Officers Seamen and Marines under his Command to be obedient to his Orders as ____________ And he is to observe and follow such Orders and Directions from time to time as he shall receive from me or the future PRESIDENT of the Confederate States of America or his Superior Officer set over him according to the Rules and Discipline of the Marine Corps.

BY THE PRESIDENT

Given under my Hand at ____________ this ____________ day of ____________ in the Year of our Lord One Thousand Eight Hundred and ____________

Secretary of the Navy

Registered

CONFEDERATE NAVAL COMMISSION.

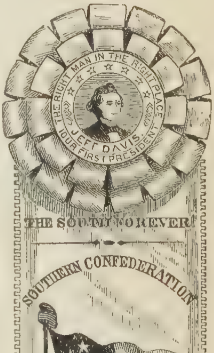
Confederate Navy (1861). The "Confederate States" lacked the ingenuity and skill to construct vessels of war, but, by the early seizure of vessels belonging to the United States and by purchase, they had several armed vessels at sea. They had appropriated to their use six United State revenue cutters, which were fitted up as privateers, and purchased and fitted out about a dozen others. The first of the purchased vessels was named the *Lady Davis*, in honor of the wife of Jefferson Davis. She was armed with 24-pounders and placed under the command of Lieutenant T. B. Huger, of the United States Navy, who had deserted his flag. This was the beginning of the "Confederate States" Navy, which never assumed formidable proportions until ships built, armed, and manned in British ports were permitted to enter the Confederate service. The Confederacy had engraved in England a very fine naval commission, which was given to the commanders of all their vessels. It was much superior in artistic execution to the commissions issued to National naval officers. Our engraving is a perfect fac-simile of it, a little less than one third the size of the original. It was printed on elegant vellum. The space within the wreath covering the trophies at the bottom was the place of the seal.

Confederate Privateers. The Confederate Congress resolved (February, 1862) to prosecute the war with vigor. Before the close of July following they had more than twenty vessels afloat as privateers to depredate upon American commerce, and had destroyed millions of dollars' worth of property. At the first, the most formidable of these were the *Nashville* and *Sumter*.

PRIVATEER SHIP SUMTER.

The former was a side-wheel steamer, carried a crew of eighty men, and was armed with two long 12-pound rifled cannons. She was destroyed (Feb. 28, 1862) by the *Montauk*, Captain Worden, in the Ogeechee River. The career of the *Sumter* was also short, but much more active and destructive. She had a crew of sixty-five men and twenty-five marines, and was heavily armed. She had run the blockade at the mouth of the Mississippi River (Jan. 30, 1861), ran among the West India Islands, making many prizes of vessels bearing the American flag, and became the terror of the American merchant service, skilfully eluding National vessels of war sent out to capture her. She crossed the Atlantic, and, at the close of 1861, was compelled to seek the shelter of friendly British guns at Gibraltar. There she was watched by the *Tuscarora*, United States Navy, and was sold early in 1862. Mr. Laird, a ship-builder at Liverpool and a member of the British Parliament, contracted to build sea-rovers for the Confederates. The first of his production that went to sea was the *Oreto*. Mr. Adams, the American Minister, called the attention of the British government to the matter (Feb. 18, 1862), but nothing was done. She went to a British port of the Bahamas, and ran the blockade at Mobile, under British colors, with a valuable cargo. Her name was changed to *Florida*, and she was placed in charge of a late officer of the United States Navy (John Newland Maffit), and again went to sea in December. The *Florida* hovered most of the time off the American coast, closely watched, everywhere leaving a track of desolation behind her. She ran down to the coast of South America, and, alarmed at the presence of a National vessel of war, ran in among the Brazilian fleet in the harbor of Bahia. Captain Collins, of the *Wachusett*, ran in (Oct. 7, 1864), boarded the *Florida*, lashed her to his vessel, and bore her to Hampton Roads, Va., where she was sunk. The most famous of the Anglo-Confederate vessels was the *Alabama*, built by Laird and commanded by Raphael Semmes, who had been captain of the *Sumter*. Her career is elsewhere related. (See *Alabama*.) The career of the *Shenandoah*, another Anglo-Confederate privateer, was largely in the Indian, Southern, and Pacific oceans, plundering and destroying American vessels. On the borders of the Frozen ocean, near Behring's Strait, she attended a convention of American whaling ships (June 28, 1865) without being suspected, as she bore the United States flag. Suddenly she revealed her character, and before evening she had made prizes of ten whalers, of which eight were burned in a group before midnight. It was the last act in the drama of the Civil War. Her commander, informed of the close of the war, sailed for England, gave up the vessel to a British warship as a prize, and made himself rich by pocketing the money that belonged to his companions. His name was James L. Waddell, and he bore a commission from the Confederate Secretary of the Navy. The *Shenandoah* was a Clyde-built steamer, long and rakish, of seven hundred and ninety tons burden. She was manned, says her historian (C. E. Hunt), by "Southern gentlemen." Against the sending out of all these vessels Mr. Adams protested in vain.

Confederate Rosette and Badge. The rosette was made of blue



CONFEDERATE ROSETTE AND BADGE.

satin ribbon, surrounding a disk containing two circles, in the centre of which was a portrait of Jefferson Davis. On one were the words, "OUR FIRST PRESIDENT. THE RIGHT MAN IN THE RIGHT PLACE." On the other were seven stars and the name of JEFFERSON DAVIS. Attached to this was a badge of white satin, on which was printed, in proper colors, the "Confederate" flag. Over it were the words, "THE SOUTH FOREVER. SOUTHERN CONFEDERATION." Below it were the words "JEFF. DAVIS, President; A. H. STEPHENS, Vice-President." (See *Secession Cockade.*)

Confederate States Congress, THIRD SESSION OF THE. The government of the Confederate States was transferred from Montgomery to Richmond, and there the third session was opened at noon, July 20, 1861. The members were called to order by Howell Cobb. President Davis, in his message, congratulated his associates on the accession of states to the league; declared that the National government had revealed its intention to make the war one of subjugation; that the Confederates had not begun the war; that the Confederacy was "a great and powerful nation;" that their nationality had been recognized by the establishment of "blockades by sea and land;" and that the National government had repudiated the idea of the Confederates being citizens of the United States, by making war upon them "with a savage ferocity unknown to modern civilization." He charged that "rapine and plunder" was the rule of the loyal soldiers; that they plundered and destroyed private houses; that they made special war on women and children by depriving them of the means of procuring medicines, and that they had committed outrages on defenceless women. The Congress passed an act (Aug. 8, 1861) which authorized the banishment from the limits of the Confederate States of every masculine citizen of the United States (with some exceptions named) over fourteen years of age who acknowledged its authority. The courts were authorized to arrest all Union men who did not proclaim their allegiance to the Confederacy or leave its limits within forty days, and to treat them as "alien enemies." Another act authorized the confiscation of every species of property of such "alien enemies," or absent citizens of the United States, with exceptions already alluded to (citizens of slave-labor states yet in the Union). Measures for the increase and officering of the army and navy and for extensive financial operations were adopted. It was reported that the Confederates then had 200,000 soldiers in the field, and President Davis was authorized to increase this force by an addition of 400,000 volunteers, to serve for not less than one year nor more than three years. He was also authorized to send additional commissioners to Europe; also, to inflict retaliation upon the persons of prisoners of war.

Confederate States Government, PERMANENT. The provisional government of the so-called Confederate States ended on Feb. 8, 1862, when the permanent government was organized. Jefferson Davis had been unanimously chosen President for a term of six years. He chose for his cabinet Judah P. Benjamin, of Louisiana, Secretary of State; George W. Randolph, of Virginia, Secretary of War; S. R. Mallory, of Florida, Secretary of the Navy; C. G. Memminger, of South Carolina, Secretary of the Treasury; J. H. Reagan, of Texas, Postmaster-general, and T. H. Watts, of Alabama, Attorney-general. Randolph resigned in the autumn, and James A. Seddon, a wealthy citizen of Richmond, was made Secretary of War in his place. On the same day a Congress, professedly elected by the people, assembled at Richmond, in which all of the slave-labor states were represented excepting Maryland and Delaware. Whether the members of Congress had been elected on the following Virginia plan is not recorded: "It being necessary to form a ticket of electors," said a leading newspaper of Richmond, "and the time being too short to call a convention of the people, it was suggested that the Richmond editors should prepare a ticket, thus relieving the people of the trouble of making elections." The ticket was so formed and voted upon. "Every district in the state," said the journalist, "is embraced in this editorial report." Devices for seals of the various departments were adopted, and the seals were made in England. (See *Confederate Government Seal.*)

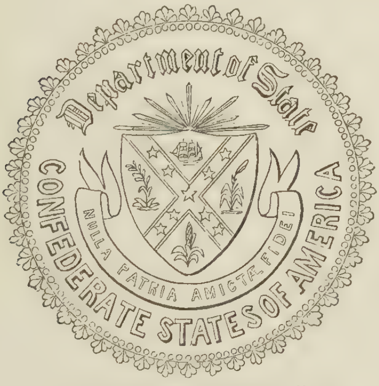
"Confederate States of America." When the convention at Montgomery (which see) adopted a permanent constitution, the name "Confederate States of America" was given to the league. This was a misnomer, for no states, as states, had confederated. No state, as a state, was at any time during the war in insurrection or rebellion; only certain persons in certain states were in a condition of insurrection or rebellion. An ancient poet asked, "What constitutes a state?" and answered his own question, "Men, high-minded men"—in other words, as applied to our free government, the people. The people in the "seceded states" had never been asked to sanction the ordinances of secession; had no voice in the choice of members of the convention at Montgomery, which assumed the powers of a general government; had never spoken concerning the constitution which these men had framed, and had no voice in forming the government called the "Confederate States of America." It was only a confederation of politicians, leagued for the avowed purpose of overturning the government of the United States. Equally misnamed is a history of the war by Alexander H. Stephens, which he calls a *War between the States.* There never was a war between the states.

"Confederate States of America," PERMANENT CONSTITUTION OF THE. On the 11th of March the "Congress" at Montgomery adopted a permanent constitution for the Confederacy, and gave to the league the title of "Confederate States of America." In its preamble the doctrine of state supremacy was fully recognized in the following words: "We, the people of the

Confederate States, each state acting in its sovereign and independent character," etc. It was the Constitution of the United States, with certain omissions and alterations. It fixed the term of service of the President and Vice-President at six years, and made the former ineligible to reelection.

"Confederate States of America," RATIFICATION OF PERMANENT CONSTITUTION OF THE. The Constitution was submitted to the several revolutionary or secession conventions for ratification. This was done on their reassembling, respectively. The Convention of Alabama ratified it on March 13, 1861; of Georgia on March 14th; of Louisiana, March 21st; of Mississippi, March 26th; of South Carolina, April 3d. In the Mississippi Convention some of the ablest men proposed to submit the Constitution to the people, but this democratic idea was voted down by the voices of seventy-eight against seven. None of the conventions ever ventured to allow the people to vote freely on their own acts, or on the subject of forming a Southern confederacy. The whole authority in the new government was vested, by palpable usurpation, in the hands of the politicians. The revolutionary movements in which the people were so deeply interested were wholly controlled by a few self-constituted leaders.

"Confederate States," STATE DEPARTMENT SEAL OF THE. At Richmond the Congress of the Confederate States devised seals for their several departments. That of the State Department, which would be seen abroad more than any other, had in its centre an escutcheon quartered by a St. Andrew's cross bearing ten stars. In the upper quartering was a ship under full sail, and in each of the other three was an agricultural product of the South. From the top of the escutcheon were emitted rays of light. Under it was a ribbon bearing the motto "NULLA PATRIA AMICTÆ FIDEI;" meaning, "No country, no fatherland, that does not keep faith;" that is to say, "We reject the National government because it is faithless." Around the whole were the words "DEPARTMENT OF STATE. CONFEDERATE STATES OF AMERICA."



CONFEDERATE "STATE DEPARTMENT" SEAL.

Confederates, CONVENTION OF, AT MONTGOMERY (1861). On the same day (Feb. 4, 1861) when the Peace Congress (which see) assembled at Washington to consider measures for preserving the Union, delegates from six states wherein conventions had adopted ordinances of secession assembled at Montgomery, Ala., to form a confederacy for the destruction of the Union. In that convention, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida were represented. They met in the State House at Montgomery, a city then of sixteen thousand inhabitants, situated on the Alabama River, three hundred miles by its course from the Gulf of Mexico. The delegates were forty-two in number.[*] The sessions began in the legislative hall, with R. W. Barnwell, of South Carolina, as temporary chairman. Rev. Basil Manly invoked the blessings of God upon the premeditated labors of the convention. Howell Cobb, of Georgia, was appointed permanent president of the convention, and Johnson F. Hooper, of Montgomery, was chosen clerk. In his speech on taking the chair Cobb declared that they met as "representatives of sovereign states which had dissolved their political connection with the United States;" that the separation was a "fixed, an irrevocable fact—perfect, complete, and perpetual;" counselled his associates to assume the responsibility necessary for the accomplishment of the work they had entered upon; and concluded by saying, "With a consciousness of the justice of our cause, and with confidence in the guidance and blessings of a kind Providence, we will this day inaugurate for the South a new era of peace, security, and prosperity." It was agreed that all votes should be taken by states. It was perceived at the outset that perfect harmony in the convention could not be expected. Nearly all of the delegates, as private letters show, were aspirants for office in the inchoate empire. Each felt himself, like Bottom the Weaver, capable of performing any part in the drama then opening, either as "Lion," "Pyramus," "Wall," or "Moonshine." The South Carolinians were specially willing to bear the burden of public office. Judge McGrath, who laid aside his judicial robes at Charleston, sent word by Memminger that he would like to be made attorney-general. Robert Barnwell Rhett, the "father of secession in South Carolina," thought himself peculiarly fitted for secretary of war, and evinced, in letters to his son, special sensitiveness because his claims to distinction had been overlooked. Memminger aspired to be secretary of the treasury, and James Chesnut, Jr., who had "patriotically" made a sacrifice of his seat in the United States Senate, was spoken of as a fitting head of the new nation. Some autograph letters before the writer are rich revelations of disappointed ambition. In the convention, Rhett counselled the same violence that the South Carolinians had practised at Charleston, and when his recommendations were met by calm opposition, he denounced his associates as cowards and imbeciles. "If the people of Charleston should burn the whole crew in effigy I should not be surprised," he wrote, Feb. 11, 1861. Men like Stephens, Hill, Brooke, and Perkins controlled the fiery spirits like Rhett and Toombs in the convention, and it soon assumed a dignity suited to the gravity of the occasion. The sessions were generally held in secret. On the second day Memminger, of South Carolina, offered resolutions declaring it to be expedient forthwith to form a confederacy of "seceded states," and that a committee of thirteen be appointed to report a plan for a provisional government on the basis of the Constitution of the United States, and that all propositions in reference to a provisional government be referred to that committee. Alexander H. Stephens then moved that the term "congress," instead of "convention," be used when applied to the body then in session, which was agreed to. Commissioners from North Carolina appeared (Feb. 6), and were invited to seats in the convention. They came only as commissioners from a "state yet in the Union," instructed to effect an "honorable and amicable adjustment of all the difficulties that distract the country, upon the basis of the Crittenden Compromise (which see), modified by the Virginia Legislature." Their mission was fruitless, for that "congress" was opposed to any form of conciliation. On the 7th a resolution from the Legislature of Alabama, offering the "Provisional Government of the Confederacy of Seceding States the sum of $500,000 as a loan," was accepted. On the same day Memminger, chairman of the committee of thirteen, presented a plan of government. It was discussed in secret session, when the Constitution of the United States, with some important modifications, was adopted as the form of government of the new Confederacy. (See *Confederate States of America.*) This provisional Constitution received the unanimous vote of the convention; yet the violent Rhett fulminated, through the *Charleston Mercury*, anathemas against it, especially on account of a tariff clause, the prohibition of the African slave-trade, and the adoption of the three-fifths rule of representation for slaves, as in the National Constitution. "Let your people," he said, "prepare their minds for a failure in the future permanent Southern Constitution, for South Carolina is about to be saddled with almost every grievance, except abolition, against which she so long struggled, and has just withdrawn from the United States Government." On the 9th of February the president of the convention and all the members took the oath of allegiance to the provisional Constitution, and at noon the doors of the hall were thrown open to the public, and the convention proceeded to the election of a President and Vice-President of the Confederacy. Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, was chosen President by unanimous vote; and by a like vote Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, was chosen Vice-President. (See *Inauguration of Davis and Stephens.*) The chairman of the convention appointed committees on foreign relations, postal affairs, finance, commerce, military and naval affairs, judiciary, patents and copyrights, and printing. All the laws of the United States not incompatible with the new order of things were continued in force temporarily. A committee was appointed to report a constitution of permanent government for the Confederacy. On the 13th a delegate from Texas (John Gregg) took his seat in the convention. The others were on the way. Preparations were made for the organization of an army and navy, and to make provision for deserters of the old flag. On Feb. 18 Davis and Stephens were inaugurated, and the oath of office was administered to Davis by Howell Cobb, president of the congress. The convention authorized him to accept one hundred thousand volunteers, and to assume control of "all military operations between the Confederate States;" and at the middle of March it recommended the several states to cede to the "Confederate States" the forts, arsenals, dock-yards, and other public establishments within their respective domains which they had wrested from the United States.*

---

[*] The following are the names of the delegates: *South Carolina*—R. B. Rhett, James Chesnut, Jr., W. P. Miles, T. J. Withers, R. W. Barnwell, C. G. Memminger, L. M. Keitt, W. W. Boyce. *Georgia*—Robert Toombs, Howell Cobb, Benjamin H. Hill, Alexander H. Stephens, Francis Barbour, Martin J. Crawford, E. A. Nisbett, Augustus B. Wright, Thomas R. R. Cobb, Augustus Keenan. *Alabama*—Richard W. Walker, Robert H. Smith, Colin J. McRae, John Gill Shortor, S. F. Hale, David P. Lewis, Thomas Fearn, J. L. M. Curry, W. P. Chilton. *Mississippi*—Willie P. Harris, Walker Brooke, A. M. Clayton, W. S. Barry, J. T. Harrison, J. A. P. Campbell, W. S. Wilson. *Louisiana*—John Perkins, Jr., Duncan F. Kenna, C. M. Conrad, E. Spencer, Henry Marshall. *Florida*—Jackson Morton, James Powers, W. B. Ochiltree.

Confederates on the Line of the Potomac. Detachments of Confederates from headquarters at Manassas took a position at Munson's Hill, within six miles of the Capitol as the bird flies, and they kept up the blockade of the Potomac below Washington by batteries on the Virginia shore. When the government proposed to remove that blockade, and National troops began to push back the Confederate advance, the latter retired from Munson's Hill, late in September. After that there were some struggles for the possession of the Upper Potomac. Skirmishes occurred at Lewinsville, Va., and at Darnestown, Md., in which the Nationals were victors. By the middle of October (1861) the Confederates occupied a line from Fairfax Courthouse well up towards Leesburg. Meanwhile some National troops had crossed the river at Harper's Ferry (Oct. 8, 1861) to seize some wheat, when a large body of Confederates menaced them. Colonel Geary went over with reinforcements for the Nationals, and on the hills back of the village he had a severe engagement with the insurgents and repulsed them. Then all the Nationals recrossed the river with their spoils. At Lewinsville the Nationals lost two killed and ten wounded. The skirmish at Darnestown, Md., between National pickets and four hundred and fifty Virginians, continued about two hours. The assailants (the Virginians) were repulsed, with a loss of ten killed and many wounded; only one National was killed. At Harper's Ferry Geary lost four killed, seven wounded, and two taken prisoners.

---

* The proceedings of this convention, and of the "Provisional Government of the Confederate States," have never been printed. The original manuscripts were discovered by some of General Wilson's command at Athens, Ga., after the downfall of the Confederacy. They were in three boxes in one of the recitation-rooms of the University of Georgia. A correspondent of the *New York Herald*, writing from Athens on the 19th of June, 1865, gives the following interesting history of these papers, which consist of journals, correspondence, etc.: "As the Provisional Congress was about to expire, a proposition was made that the journals should be published. This was objected to on the ground of furnishing much valuable information, and a law was passed authorizing and requiring the president of the Congress, Howell Cobb, to have three copies made of all the journals. He was at that time in the army, commanding the Sixteenth Georgia Regiment, and down on the Peninsula, below Richmond. He at once engaged J. D. Hooper, former clerk, to undertake the job. Whatever were his hinderances it is not known; but he did very little, and, after having them on hand for a long time, died. They were then shipped to a gentleman in Georgia, with a request to complete the work. Papers were missing, requiring months to find; materials hard to get, and the work therefore never was completed. They were at one time held in Atlanta, but the Unionists coming too near, were hurried off to West Point, Ga. There a stirring rumor of a raid springing up, they were carried to Tallapoosa County, Ala., on a plantation. In marching from Dadeville to Loachapoka, General Rousseau passed within four miles of the house where they were; and when his men were destroying the railroad at Notasulga, and were having the little fight near Chehaw, the boxes were hid out in the woods two miles off, and were watched by two negro men. They were then removed to Augusta, Ga., and thence, when Sherman came tearing down through Georgia like a wild horse, they were pushed along into the upper part of South Carolina. Thence, in the spring, they were brought over to this place." These journals are among the archives of the "Confederate Government" at Washington city.

Confederates, THE, ABANDONED BY GREAT BRITAIN. In April, 1864, the British minister at Washington was permitted to send to Jefferson Davis a letter from Earl Russell, the British foreign secretary, in which that officer, in the name of "her Majesty's government," protested against the further procuring by the Confederates of vessels within the British dominions to be used for piratical or privateering purposes. He said, "Her Majesty's government protests and remonstrates against any further efforts on the part of the *so-called Confederate States* to procure vessels in Great Britain for hostile purposes against the United States." And "her Majesty's government further protests and remonstrates against all acts in violation of the neutrality laws of the realm." These words, uttered by one who personally and in the name of his government had given the insurgents all the "aid and comfort" in his power which a wise prudence would allow, kindled the hot indignation of the Confederates. Mr. Davis instructed one of his assistants to reply that it "would be inconsistent with the dignity of the position he [Mr. Davis] fills as chief magistrate of a nation comprising a population of more than twelve millions, occupying a territory many times larger than the United Kingdom, and possessing resources unsurpassed by those of any other country on the face of the globe, to allow the attempt of Earl Russell to ignore the actual existence of the Confederate States, and to contemptuously style them 'so called,' to pass without a protest and a remonstrance. The President therefore does protest and remonstrate against this studied insult; and he instructs me to say that in future any document in which it may be repeated will be returned unanswered and unnoticed."

Confiscation Act, CONFEDERATE. From the Confederate "Department of Justice" went out instructions, late in the summer of 1861, to put in force the Confiscation Act of the Confederate Congress at its third session (which see), that all persons, Americans or Europeans, having a domicile in the "Confederate States, and carrying on business or traffic within the states at war with the Confederacy" were "deemed enemies;" that the property of every kind of these persons should be seized and held, and that the receivers of the same should apply to the clerk of courts for writs of garnishment [a warning or notice to a person to appear in court and give information, such person being called a garnishee], commanding persons suspected of holding in trust the property of an "alien enemy" to appear and answer such questions, under oath, touching such custody, as might be propounded. The authorized persons making the seizures were furnished with a formula of questions for the garnishees, which implied the establishment of a court of inquisition of the most despotic kind. Under this searching sequestration act a vast amount of property belonging to loyal owners in the free-labor states was seized, swelling the entire loss to the inhabitants of those states by the repudiation of or inability to pay honest debts by the business men of the South to about $300,000,000. Few men had the boldness to oppose this measure. It was a strong arm for producing a solid South (which see). J. L. Pettigrew, of Charleston, however, boldly opposed it in open court, denouncing the law as unknown to the jurisprudence of any civilized nation. He was served with a writ of garnishment, but refused to obey it, telling the court plainly that such proceedings were "no better than those which made the English Star Chamber and Spanish Inquisition odious to every lover of liberty."

Congregational Church IN SOUTH CAROLINA. Hearing of spiritual destitution in South Carolina, a church was gathered at Dorchester, Mass., with the design of settling in that Southern colony to encourage and promote the growth of religion there. With its pastor, Joseph Lord, this congregation arrived at Charleston at the close of the year 1695, formed a settlement on the northern bank of the Ashley River, which they called Dorchester, and there, on Feb. 2, 1696, the Lord's Supper was for the first time administered in that colony.

Congress and the Roman Catholics. With a singular lack of discretion, the first Continental Congress, while anxious to have the Canadians for their allies in the inevitable struggle then impending, offended the Roman Catholics of that country by expressions in their address to the people of Great Britain. They asserted that the Roman Catholic religion had "dispensed impiety, bigotry, persecution, murder, and rebellion through every part of the world." In the address to the inhabitants of the province of Quebec, drawn up by John Dickinson, all old religious prejudices and jealousies were condemned as unworthy of high-minded men, and the Swiss cantons were cited as examples of a union composed of Roman Catholic and Protestant states. This somewhat soothed the irritation caused by the other address, but the words of the latter were remembered to the injury of the American cause.

Congress, Apathy of the (1779). Faction had corrupted or enfeebled patriotism in Congress in 1779, and there prevailed a general apathy in that body concerning public affairs. Washington saw clearly the danger, and frequently warned Congress of it, assuring them that the British ministers plainly intended to prosecute the war vigorously, and make a permanent conquest of the South. But the Congress did not provide for reinforcements for the army, for they believed the war was near its end. In this belief they were confirmed by the action of the French minister at Philadelphia, who had been instructed to ascertain the ultimate demands of the United States, and to mould them into a form acceptable to Spain. (See *Peace, Anxiety for*, and *Convention between France and Spain*.) The answer of Congress to the British communication in 1778 implied a willingness to treat with Great Britain on her recognition of American independence. But they could not, without violating the treaty with France, make a peace that did not include the latter country. On Jan. 14, 1779, the Congress resolved unanimously "that as neither France nor these United States may of right, so they will not conclude either truce or peace with the common enemy without the formal consent of their ally first obtained."

Congress at New London. In 1711 a congress of colonial governors was held at New London, Conn., to concert measures concerning the proposed campaign against Canada.

Congress for Permanent Independence. Late in December, 1776, the Continental Congress, which had fled from Philadelphia and reassembled at Baltimore, cast aside its hitherto temporizing policy. Up to this time, the Congress had left on their journal the suggestion that a reunion with Great Britain might be the consequence of a delay in France to declare immediately and explicitly in their favor. Now they voted to "assure foreign courts that the Congress and people of America are determined to maintain their independence at all events." It was resolved to offer treaties of commerce to Prussia, Austria, and Tuscany, and to ask for the intervention of those powers to prevent Russian or German troops from serving against the United States. They also drew up a sketch for an offensive alliance with France and Spain against Great Britain. These measures delighted the more radical members in Congress and, with the victory at Trenton which immediately followed, inspirited the people.

Congress, NATIONAL, CALLED SESSION OF THE (1861). On Thursday, July 4, 1861, the Thirty-seventh Congress assembled in the Capitol at Washington in extraordinary session, in compliance with the call of President Lincoln, April 15. In the Senate twenty-three states, and in the House of Representatives twenty-two states and one territory, were represented. There were forty senators and one hundred and fifty-four representatives. Ten states, in which the political leaders had adopted ordinances of secession, were not represented. In both Houses there was a large majority of Unionists. It was the first session of this Congress, and Galusha A. Grow, of Pennsylvania, was chosen speaker of the House of Representatives. The President, in his message, confined his remarks to the special object for which the Congress had been called together. He recited the many and grave offences of the conspirators against the life of the nation, such as the seizure of public property, making preparations for war, and seeking the recognition of foreign powers as an independent nation. In the act of firing on Fort Sumter, "discarding all else," he said, "they have forced upon the country the distinct issue, 'immediate dissolution or blood.'" He reviewed the conduct of the Virginia politicians, condemned the policy of armed neutrality proposed in some of the border states, alluded to the call for soldiers, and the necessity of vindicating the power of the National government. "It is now recommended," he said, "that you give the legal means for making the contest a short and decisive one; that you place at the control of the government for the work at least 400,000 men and $400,000,000. . . . A right result at this time will be worth more to the world than ten times the men and ten times the money. . . . The people will save the government if the government itself will do its part only indifferently well." He alluded to the preponderance of Union sentiment among the *people* in the South, and stated the remarkable fact that, while large numbers of officers of the army and navy had proved themselves unfaithful, "not one common soldier or sailor is known to have deserted his flag. . . . This is the patriotic instinct of plain people. They understand, without an argument, that the destroying of the government which was made by Washington means no good to them." The President assured the people that the sole object of the exercise of the war-power should be the maintenance of the national authority and the salvation of the life of the republic. After expressing a hope that the views of Congress were coincident with his own, the President said, "Having chosen our course without guile and with pure motives, let us renew our trust in God and go forward without fear and with manly hearts." There were important reports from the departments accompanying the President's message. The Secretary of War (Mr. Cameron) recommended the enlistment of men for three years, with a bounty of $100, for the additional regiments of the regular army; also, that appropriations be made for the construction, equipment, and current expenses of railways and telegraphs for the use of the government; for the furnishing of a more liberal supply of approved arms for the militia, and an increase in the clerical force of his department. The Secretary of the Treasury (Mr. Chase) asked for $240,000,000 for war expenses, and $80,000,000 to meet the ordinary demands for the fiscal year. He proposed to raise the $80,000,000, in addition to the sum of nearly $66,000,000, by levying increased duties on specified articles, and also by certain internal revenues, or by the direct taxation of real and personal property. For war purposes, he proposed a national loan of not less than $100,000,000, to be issued in the form of Treasury notes, bearing an annual interest of seven and three tenths per cent., or one cent a day on fifty dollars, in sums from $50 to $5000. He proposed to issue bonds or certificates of debt, in the event of the national loan proving insufficient, to an amount not exceeding $100,000,000, to be made redeemable at the pleasure of the government after a period not exceeding thirty years, and bearing interest not exceeding seven per cent. He also recommended the issue of another class of Treasury notes, not to exceed in amount $50,000,000, bearing an interest of 3.65 per cent., and exchangeable, at the will of the holder, for Treasury notes. The Secretary of the Navy asked Congress to sanction his acts (see *Navy, Creation of*), and recommended the appointment of an assistant-secretary in his department. Congress acted promptly on the suggestions of the President. It was found at the outset that there were a few members of Congress who were in thorough sympathy with the Secessionists; but, while these prolonged the debates, the majority of loyal men was so overwhelming that the disloyal ones could not defeat the will of the people. On the first day of the session Senator Wilson, of Massachusetts, Chairman of the Military Committee of the Upper House, gave notice that he should, the next day, submit six bills having for their object the suppression of the rebellion. These were all adopted afterwards. They were, 1. To ratify and confirm certain acts of the President for the suppression of insurrection and rebellion; 2. To authorize the employment of volunteers to aid in enforcing the laws and protecting public property; 3. To increase the present military establishment of the United States; 4. To provide for the better organization of the military establishment; 5. To promote the efficiency of the army; 6. For the organization of a volunteer militia force, to be called the National Guard of the United States. At an early day the Senate took measures to purge itself of disloyal members by expelling the following ten Senators: James M. Mason and Robert T. Hunter of Virginia, Thomas L. Clingman and Thomas Bragg of North Carolina, James Chesnut, Jr., of South Carolina, A. O. P. Nicholson of Tennessee, W. K. Sebastian and Charles B. Mitchell of Arkansas, and John Hemphill and Louis T. Wigfall of Texas. On July 13 the places of Mason and Hunter were filled by John S. Carlisle and W. J. Willey, appointed by the Legislature of "reorganized (West) Virginia." On the same day John B. Clark, of Missouri, was expelled from the House of Representatives as a traitor to his country. Every measure for the suppression of the rebellion proposed by the President and heads of departments was adopted. On the 19th the venerable J. J. Crittenden (see *Crittenden Compromise*), who was then a member of the House of Representatives, offered a joint resolution, "That the present deplorable civil war has been forced upon the country by the disunionists of the Southern States, now in revolt against the constitutional government, and in arms around the capital; that in this national emergency, banishing all feelings of mere passion or resentment, we will recollect only our duty to our country; that this war is not waged, on our part, in any spirit of oppression, nor for any purpose of conquest or subjugation, nor for the purpose of overthrowing or interfering with the rights or established institutions of those states, but to defend and maintain the supremacy of the Constitution, and to preserve the Union, with all the dignity, equality, and rights of the several states, unimpaired; and that as soon as these objects are accomplished the war ought to cease." It was laid over until Monday. On Sunday (July 21) the battle of Bull's Run was fought. Notwithstanding the capital was filled with fugitives from the shattered army, and it was believed by many that the seat of government was at the mercy of its enemies, Congress, with sublime faith, debated as calmly as before. By an almost unanimous vote, Mr. Crittenden's resolution was adopted, and a few days afterwards one identical with it passed the Senate by a vote almost as decisive. It was such a solemn refutation of the false charges of the Confederate leaders, that it was a war for subjugation and emancipation of the slaves, that it was not allowed to be published in the Confederacy. On the same day Congress resolved to spare nothing essential for the support of the government, and pledged "to the country and the world the employment of every resource, national and individual, for the suppression, overthrow, and punishment of rebels in arms." They passed a bill providing for the confiscation of property used for insurrectionary purposes, and that the master of a slave who should employ him in any naval or military service against the government of the United States should forfeit all right to his services thereafter. When Congress had finished the business for which it was called, and had made ample provision in men and means for the suppression of the rebellion, they adjourned (Aug. 6), after a session of thirty-three days. The product of its labors consisted in the passage of sixty-one public and seven private bills and five joint resolutions. On the day before their adjournment they requested the President to appoint a fast-day.

Congress, NATIONAL, EXTRAORDINARY SESSION OF THE (1797). On May 13, there was a full quorum of both houses of Congress assembled at Philadelphia. In the Senate was a decided Federal majority. The object of the session was to consider the relations with France. To these the President alluded in his opening message, and declared his intention to adhere to the neutral policy of the last administration. The answer to the speech was an approval of it; yet sympathy for the French caused much hesitation in deciding upon positive measures. But measures *were* adopted looking to a possible war with France. In a session of eight weeks acts were passed apportioning to the states a detachment of 80,000 militia, to be ready to march at a moment's warning; appropriating $115,000 for the further fortification of harbors; prohibiting the exportation of arms and ammunition, and encouraging their importation; authorizing the equipment of three frigates, and their employment, with an increased number of revenue cutters, for the defence of the coast. And the act imposed a fine of $10,000 and ten years' imprisonment on any citizen who might be engaged in fitting out any private armed vessel to cruise against nations with whom the United States were at peace, or against the vessels and property of their fellow-citizens. The sum of $800,000 was appropriated to carry out these measures, and the duties on some imported goods were increased. These measures were violently opposed by the Republicans, but they were finally passed. The administration, willing to try further peaceable measures, sent two envoys extraordinary to France. (See *Envoys to France.*)

Congress, NATIONAL, EXTRAORDINARY SESSION OF THE (1837). In consequence of the embarrassments occasioned by the Specie Circular (which see) and the sudden collapse of the credit system (which see), there had been in the city of New York alone mercantile failures to the amount of more than $100,000,000. Fifteen months before property had been destroyed in that city by a disastrous fire (December, 1835) of the estimated value of over $20,000,000. The effects of these failures and losses by fire were felt to the remotest parts of the Union, and credit and confidence were destroyed. Early in May (1837) a deputation of merchants and bankers waited upon President Van Buren with a petition praying him to defer the collection of duties, rescind the Specie Circular, and call an extraordinary session of Congress. Their prayer was rejected; and when that fact became known, nearly all the banks in the country suspended specie payment. On May 16 the Legislature of New York passed an act authorizing the suspension of specie payments for one year. The measure embarrassed the national government, for it was unable to obtain silver and gold to discharge its own obligations. The public good demanded legislative relief, and the President called an extraordinary session of Congress to convene Sept. 4. In his message to that body he proposed the establishment of an independent treasury for the public funds, totally distinct from all banking institutions; but during a session of forty-three days Congress did very little for the general relief from commercial depression, excepting the authorizing of an issue of Treasury notes in amount not exceeding $10,000,000.

Congress, NATIONAL, EXTRAORDINARY SESSION OF THE (1841). On March 17, 1841, President Harrison issued a proclamation for the assembling of the Twenty-seventh Congress in extraordinary session on May 31, next ensuing. They convened at the appointed time. The President, in his message, referred to the usefulness of a national bank, so that it was believed he would sanction a bill for the creation of one. The Congress proceeded to adopt measures for the relief of the business community. They repealed the Sub-Treasury Act, and passed a bankrupt law which untied the energies of thousands of enterprising and honest men, though it bore hard on the creditor class for a while. The Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Ewing, strongly urged the chartering of another United States Bank. It was known that the President had decided constitutional objections to the old bank, and had assisted Jackson in his war upon it. A bill was proposed, free, it was thought, from his objections. It was passed Aug. 6, as the great Whig measure of the session, and sent to the President. At the end of ten days he vetoed it, giving his objections. The Whigs in Congress were bewildered, and great anxiety was felt throughout the country. It could not be carried over the veto. Another bill was prepared, and by Mr. Webster laid before the President, who approved it. While this was pending, a private letter, written by Mr. Botts, of Virginia, was made public, in which the President was charged with infidelity to the party in power. "He will be an object of execration with both parties," wrote Mr. Botts. This so irritated the President that he resolved not to sanction any law for chartering a national bank that might be passed at that session. The second bill was passed early in September, which he also vetoed. He had expressed a strong desire to have this matter postponed until the regular session, but the friends of the measure were impatient. They now denounced him as a traitor to the party which had elevated him. His act caused the dissolution of the cabinet—Mr. Webster only remaining. He did so because public interests would suffer by his leaving at that juncture. Mr. Webster felt that the bank matter had been pushed with too much haste and persistency, considering the state of the President's mind, and he wrote: "I thought his known wishes ought to be complied with. I think so still."

Congress, PAY OF MEMBERS OF (1814). The pay of members of Congress (House of Representatives) had been six dollars a day until 1814, when, on account of the increased expense of living, they fixed it at an annual salary of $1500, without regard to the length of the session. At the same time bills were introduced to increase the salaries of foreign ministers, but these failed to pass. This act of the members of Congress in voting themselves a higher salary produced great excitement throughout the country. It opposed the popular doctrine that all public officers and servants should be kept on short allowance; and so indignant were the frugal people that at the next election many of the offending Congressmen lost their election. Even the popular Henry Clay was driven to a close canvass. The act was repealed.

Congress, THE RESIDENCE OF. The question, where shall be the permanent residence of Congress, or seat of the general government, was agitated in the summer of 1783. Philadelphians supposed it would be fixed at that city, but when they adjourned to Princeton (see *Philadel-*

phia, Riot in), the question excited much interest and a great deal of local feeling. One party wished the national capital to be at the Delaware River — in other words, at Philadelphia; another wished it to be on the Potomac. Maryland offered to cede Annapolis for the purpose; New York offered Kingston on the Hudson; and the Council of Pennsylvania, anxious to bring Congress back from Princeton, apologized for their timid conduct in the presence of militiamen. It was finally agreed that two federal cities should be erected—one near the Falls of the Delaware, the other near the falls of the Potomac, the sessions to be held alternately in each. Until these cities should be built the sessions were to be held alternately at Annapolis and Trenton. This plan was not carried out. In 1790 a tract of land ten miles square, lying on each side of the Potomac, was ceded to the United States by Maryland and Virginia, and was called the District of Columbia. There the seat of government was fixed, and has remained ever since. The capital city—named Washington in honor of the beloved patriot—was laid out in 1791, and the erection of the Capitol was commenced in 1793, the seat of the national government being removed to Washington city in 1801.

Congressional Reports. At the first session of the National Congress, held at New York, reporters had been admitted to the floor of the House, and the debates had not only been published from day to day in the newspapers, but, at the close of the session, were collected in two octavo volumes, called *The Congressional Register*. These reports were not satisfactory to some members, who proposed to withdraw from the reporters the privileges of the floor. The reporters retired to the gallery. At the next session the subject came up, and there was a tacit admission of a discretionary power in the speaker to admit to the floor or galleries such stenographers as he might think proper. The *Congressional Register* did not extend beyond a third volume. After the removal of Congress to Philadelphia the country was mainly indebted to the enterprise of the publisher of the *Philadelphia Gazette*, who employed a stenographer or two for that purpose, and from the columns of which most of the other newspapers copied. In 1796 a scheme was brought forward to employ a reporter as an officer of the House at a salary of $4000 a year, but it was not adopted.

Congreve Rockets, THE, in the military art, is a very destructive species of firework, the best kind of which was invented by Sir William Congreve, and called after his name. The body of the implement is cylindrical, and its head conical. It is filled with very inflammable materials, on the combustion of which, as in the common sky-rocket, the body is impelled forward with an accelerated motion.

Connecticut, ACTS OF. Connecticut, in 1774, was second only to Massachusetts in population, wealth, patriotism, and military resources. In 1774 its Legislature provided for organizing an effective militia, prohibited the importation of slaves, and ordered the several towns to provide double the usual quantity of balls and flints. They also directed the issue of £15,000 in bills of credit of the colony, and made a small increase of the taxes. This was the first issue of paper money in the colonies in preparing for the war for independence.

Connecticut and New Netherland. The Charter of Connecticut, given in 1662 (see *Consolidation of Connecticut and New Haven*), included not only the whole of Long Island, but Northern New Netherland, in the Hudson River region. By a treaty which Stuyvesant had made at Hartford in 1650, the English towns on Long Island were allowed the right to accept the protection of Connecticut, if they chose to do so. This right was now questioned, and it complicated matters so far as the claims of the Dutch were concerned. But Stuyvesant would not yield without a struggle to a curtailment of his domains, and for two years the controversy went on. Stuyvesant visited Boston and conferred with the Commissioners of the United New England Colonies, but gained nothing. Commissioners sent to Hartford were equally unsuccessful. Meanwhile, emissaries from New England stirred up the settlers in Westchester County (N. Y.) and all over Long Island with discontent of Dutch rule. Led by two bold men, a considerable armed force went from town to town on Long Island changing the names of places, deposing magistrates, and proclaiming the territory a part of the dominions of Charles II. Stuyvesant, seeing how matters were going, lowered his pretensions, and agreed that the towns on Long Island, Dutch and English, should be free, respectively, from interference from either government. These disputations, and the interference of John Scott, produced stirring events whose records fill a large space in the local and intercolonial history of Long Island, New Netherland, and Connecticut.

Connecticut and Pennsylvania. There was civil war in Pennsylvania, at one time, between the settlers from Connecticut in the Wyoming Valley and the Pennsylvanians. Connecticut claimed the soil under its ancient charter. (See *Western Reserve.*) Finally, late in 1781, Pennsylvania applied to a Federal court, established under the Articles of Confederation, to decide the territorial question as to the righteous claimant to Wyoming and the northern half of Pennsylvania, claimed by Connecticut as within her chartered limits. A court of five judges met (November, 1782) at Trenton, N. J., and made, at the close of a six weeks' session, a unanimous decision in favor of Pennsylvania. Connecticut acquiesced when Congress confirmed the decision, and the town and county of Westmoreland, organized by the Connecticut Assembly, ceased to exist. The people of Wyoming continued uneasy, and once or twice were on the point of rebellion, chiefly because the Pennsylvanians refused to recognize the land titles claimed by Connecticut.

Connecticut, CHARTER OF. On the restoration of monarchy in England, the Connecticut colonists had fears regarding their political future, for they had been stanch republicans during the interregnum. The General Assembly therefore resolved to make a formal acknowledgment of their allegiance to the king, and ask him for a charter. A petition to that effect was signed in May, 1661, and Governor Winthrop bore it to the monarch. He was at first coolly received, but by the gift to the king of a precious memento of the sovereign's dead father, the heart of Charles was touched, and, turning to Lord Clarendon, who was present, he said, "Do you advise me to grant a charter to this good man and his people?" "I do, sire," answered Clarendon. "It shall be done," said Charles, and Winthrop was dismissed with a hearty shake of his hand, and a blessing from the royal lips. (See *Winthrop, John.*) A charter was issued May 1, 1662 (N. S.). It confirmed the popular constitution, and contained more liberal provisions than any that had yet been issued by royal hands. It defined the boundaries so as to include the New Haven Colony and a part of Rhode Island on the east, and westward to the Pacific Ocean. The New Haven Colony reluctantly gave its consent to the union in 1665, but Rhode Island refused. A dispute concerning the boundary-line between Connecticut and Rhode Island lasted more than sixty years. The charter, engrossed on parchment and decorated with a finely executed miniature of Charles II. (done in India-ink by Samuel Cooper, it is supposed, who was an eminent London miniature painter of the time), was brought across the sea in a handsome mahogany box, in which it is still preserved in the State Department of Connecticut. (See *Charles II.*) It was of so general a character, and conferred such large powers, that when Connecticut became an independent state it was considered a good fundamental law for the commonwealth, and was not changed until 1818. It provided for the election of the governor of the colony and the magistrates by the people, substantially as under the previous constitution; allowed the free transportation of colonists and merchandise from England to the colony; guaranteed to the colonists the rights of English citizens; provided for the making of laws and the organization of courts by the General Assembly, and the appointment of all necessary officers for the public good; for the organization of a military force, and for the public defence. Determined to hold absolute rule over New England, King James II. made Andros a sort of viceroy (see *Andros*), with instructions to take away the colonial charters. For the purpose of seizing that of Connecticut, whose General Assembly had refused to surrender it, Andros arrived at Hartford, where the Assembly was in session in their meeting-house, Oct. 31, 1687 (O. S.). He was received by the Assembly with the courtesy due to his rank when he appeared before them, with armed men at his back, and demanded the charter to be put into his hands. It was then near sunset. A debate upon some unimportant subject was continued until after the candles were lighted. Then the long box containing the charter was brought in and placed upon the table. A preconcerted plan to save it was now put into operation. Just as the usurper was about to grasp the box with the charter, the candles were snuffed out. When they were relighted the charter was not there, and the members were seated in proper order. The charter had been carried out in the darkness by Captain Wadsworth, and deposited in the trunk of a hollow oak-tree on the outskirts of the village. (See *Charter Oak.*) Andros was compelled to content himself with dissolving the Assembly, and writing in a bold hand "FINIS" in the journal of that body. When the Revolution of 1688 swept the Stuarts from the English throne, the charter was brought from its hiding-place, and under it the colonists of Connecticut flourished for one hundred and twenty-nine years afterwards.

Connecticut, COLONY OF, one of the original thirteen English-American colonies, was probably first discovered by a European, Adrian Block, at the mouth of the Connecticut River, in 1613. (See *New York.*) That stream the Dutch called *Versch*-water (fresh-water) River; the Indians called it *Qua-nek-ta-cut*, "long river." The Dutch laid claim to the adjoining territory by right of discovery, while the English made a counter-claim soon afterwards, based upon a patent issued by the king to English subjects. The agent of the Dutch West India Company took formal possession by proclamation of the Connecticut Valley so early as 1623 in the name of the States-General of Holland, and a peaceable and profitable trade with the Indians might have been carried on had not the Dutch exasperated the natives by seizing one of their chiefs and demanding a heavy ransom for his release. A Dutch embassy which visited Plymouth tried to get the Pilgrims to abandon Cape Cod Bay and seat themselves, under the jurisdiction of New Netherland, in the fertile Connecticut Valley (see *Dutch, The, at Plymouth*); and a Mohegan chief, moved by equally strong self-interest, invited them to the same territory, his object being to make the English a barrier between his people and the powerful and warlike Pequods. (See *Pequod War.*) In 1632 Edward Winslow visited the Connecticut Valley, and confirmed the truth of all the pleasant things the Dutch and Indians had said about it. The fame of it had already reached Old England, and two years before Winslow's visit Charles I. had granted the soil of that region to Robert, Earl of Warwick, and he transferred it to William, Viscount Say and Seal; Robert, Lord Brook, and their associates. This was the original grant of Connecticut, and the territory was defined as extending westward from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. The Dutch, having purchased the valley from the Indians, the rightful owners, built a redoubt just below the site of Hartford, called Fort Good Hope, in 1633, and took possession. Governor Winthrop of Massachusetts, wrote to Van Twiller at Manhattan that England had granted the valley to English subjects, and the Dutch must "forbear to build there." Van Twiller courteously replied that the Dutch had already purchased the country from the Indians and "set up a house, with intent to plant." The Dutch finally withdrew, and in 1635–36 the first permanent settlement in the valley was made at Hartford by emigrants from Massachusetts. The first church was built there in 1635, and the first court, or legislative assembly, was convened at Hartford in 1636. The next year occurred the distressing war with the Pequods, which resulted in their annihilation. (See *Connecticut Valley, First Settlers in.*) A year later a settlement was begun on the site of New Haven, and a sort of theocratic government for it was established. (See *New Haven Colony.*) Governor Winthrop's son, John, came from England, and assumed the office of governor of the colony in the Connecticut Valley in 1636, with instructions to build a fort and plant a colony at the mouth of the Connecticut River. A dispute with the Plymouth people arose about the right of emigrants from Massachusetts in the valley, but it was soon amicably settled. A constitution for the government of the colony in the valley was approved by a general vote of the people (Jan. 14, 1639). It was a remarkable document, and formed the basis of a charter afterwards obtained from the king. (See *Connecticut, First Constitution of.*) When monarchy was restored in England the people hastened to avow their allegiance to the crown and apply for a charter. One was procured from Charles II. in 1662 embracing the Connecticut and New Haven colonies, and the union was perfected in 1665. It gave the people jurisdiction over the whole lands within its limits; provided for the election of a governor, deputy-governor, twelve assistants, or magistrates, and two deputies from each town; indeed, it substantially agreed with the former constitution. It was so acceptable to the people of Connecticut that it was the only constitution of the province and state until 1818, when the present one was formed. The government was at first a pure democracy, but it became a representative one in 1670. By order of James II. Governor Andros was ordered to take away the charter, but he was outwitted by the political leaders, and it was saved. (See *Charter Oak.*) Andros seized the government, but it resumed its independent functions (May 9, 1689) after the accession of William and Mary. There were some changes in the colonial government, and from the union of the colonies until 1701 the General Assembly had met at Hartford. Thereafter it was ordered that the May session should be held in Hartford, and the October session in New Haven. The laws of the colony were very rigid, and some were severe. (See *Blue Laws.*) In the war for independence no other state, in accordance with its population, furnished so many men for the public service, or so much aid, according to its means; for a most patriotic, energetic, and indefatigable governor (see *Trumbull*) was at the head of its affairs. (See *Brother Jonathan.*) The delegates from Connecticut in Congress were instructed by the unanimous vote of the General Assembly to vote for independence, and after that it took its place with the twelve other colonies as an independent state.

Connecticut Commission. The Puritan settlement on the Connecticut River made by the ministers at Newton (Messrs. Hooker and Stone) in 1636, with all their congregations, was so remote from the seat of government that Roger Ludlow and seven others were commissioned by the authorities of Massachusetts to exercise all the powers of government there, legislative and executive. This commission was limited to one year. With the aid of a jury they dispensed civil and criminal justice. Their first court was held April 26, 1636.

Connecticut Emigrants near Natchez. Late in the spring of 1781 news reached the Connecticut settlers near Natchez that a British fleet was ascending the Mississippi. This intelligence caused them to attack and capture Fort Passmore, to use it as a defence. The rumor was false; and when the Connecticut people saw their mistake, and heard of the capture of Pensacola by the Spaniards, they so feared Spanish vengeance that they resolved to flee through the woods to Georgia. Men, women, and children set out on horseback, and during a journey of four months they suffered terribly from hunger and the hostility of the Indians. On reaching the frontiers of that state they divided into two companies. One fell among American patriots on the frontier, the other made their way to the British post at Sunbury.

Connecticut, FIRST CONSTITUTION OF. A constitution for the colony of Connecticut (in the valley) was adopted by the vote of the people Jan. 14, 1639. It was the first example in history of a written constitution organizing a government and defining its powers; and its leading features have been copied into the constitutions of the several states of our Union. After declaring that the Word of God requires human governments, and that the object of such governments is to protect and preserve the moral and civil welfare of the people, it provided for three departments of government—legislative, judicial, and executive—all to be filled by persons to be appointed by, and to derive their power from, the people. The freemen consisted of those who had been admitted inhabitants by the towns themselves. These were to meet annually in April at a "court of election" for the choice of so many magistrates and other public officers as should be found requisite, one of whom was to be designated as governor. All elections were by ballot. The governor was voted for first, and elected by a plurality vote; then the magistrates or assistants were voted for in a similar manner. The governor sat with the magistrates in their judicial capacity, and both the governor and magistrates sat with the deputies elected by the several towns in a legislative capacity. If the deputies constituted a majority of the General Assembly, the legislative power was substantially in the hands of the people, while the governor and magistrates could advise as to necessary legislation. As there were to be two sessions of the Legislature annually, one in the spring, called "Court of Election," and the other in the fall, for enacting laws and performing other public services, the towns chose their deputies semi-annually. Under this constitution the Connecticut colony flourished. It recognized no higher human power than the people. Connecticut, under it, was practically an independent government. The constitution formed the basis of the charter granted by Charles II. in 1662. (See *Connecticut, Charter of.*)

Connecticut, First Division of the Legislature of, into Two Houses. In 1696 the General Assembly of Connecticut was first divided into two houses. The governor (or, in his absence, the deputy-governor) and assistants composed the upper house, and the deputies regularly returned from the towns in the colony were called the lower house. The governor presided in the upper house; the lower house chose a speaker to preside over their deliberations. All laws became so only by the mutual consent of the two houses.

Connecticut, First General Court in. The commission of Ludlow and others having expired, the commissioners' court in the valley of the Connecticut was succeeded in 1637 by a general court, which consisted of eight magistrates chosen by all the freemen, and three deputies from the three towns or settlements, then containing about two hundred and fifty inhabitants. The first session of this court was begun May 1, 1637, at Hartford. They deliberated upon a subject in which the existence of the little colony was concerned. The Pequods, who had killed thirty Englishmen in the valley, and tortured their captives, were attempting to form a confederacy of the tribes to extirpate the English, and the destruction of the colony seemed imminent. That first general court determined that the three towns of Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield should carry on an offensive war against these Indians, and voted that ninety men should be immediately raised for the purpose. (See *Pequod War.*)

Connecticut Mediation. In hopes that matters might yet be reconciled, notwithstanding British soldiers and armed patriots had come to blows, Governor Trumbull and the Connecticut Legislature sent a deputation to Gage (May 1, 1775) as mediators. Alarmed by this movement, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts remonstrated against any separate negotiations. They also voted General Gage to be a public enemy, and an instrument in the hands of tyrants, whom there was no further obligation to obey. The Connecticut deputation did nothing.

Connecticut, Original Patent of. Robert, Earl of Warwick, having received in 1630 a grant from the Council of Plymouth of "all that part of the northeast extending from the Narraganset River one hundred and twenty miles in a straight line near the shore towards the southeast, as the coast lies, towards Virginia, and within that breadth from the Atlantic Ocean to the South Sea [Pacific]," made over to William, Viscount Say and Seal, and Robert, Lord Brook, and associates, the whole territory of this grant by a patent issued March 19, 1631. This is the original patent of Connecticut.

Connecticut Regiments, Mutiny of. Pressed down by want—want of clothes, food, and pay—two of the Connecticut regiments in the Continental army at Morristown, in May, 1780, paraded under arms, declaring their intention to return home or to obtain subsistence for themselves. The appeals of Washington (whom they almost adored) to their patriotism brought them back to duty; and on the appearance of the enemy at that time they rallied as one man in defence of the flag. Greene had just written privately to the President of Congress in Pennsylvania: "Should there be a want of provisions, we cannot hold together many days, in the present temper of the army."

Connecticut River, Depredations in the. On the first alarm occasioned by the blockade of the New England coast, militia had been called out to guard the more exposed points of the Connecticut shores. Regulars had afterwards been substituted by the War Department, but during the winter of 1813–14 these had been withdrawn. Governor Smith remonstrated, and warned the government of the danger, but his words were unheeded. The consequence was that six boats, with two hundred men from the British blockading squadron, entered the mouth of the Connecticut River (April 8, 1814), ascended that stream several miles, and destroyed full twenty vessels which had collected there as a place of safety. It was this neglect of the New England coast by the national government that formed one of the grounds of complaint by the Hartford Convention (which see).

Connecticut Sanctions Independence. On June 14, 1776, the Connecticut Assembly instructed its delegates in Congress in favor of independence, foreign alliance, and a permanent union of the colonies. The plan of a confederation was not to go into effect until it should receive the assent of the several legislatures.

Connecticut Stamp-master, The. Jared Ingersoll, then in England, accepted the office of stamp-master or stamp-distributor, under the provision of the Stamp Act. He arrived at Boston from abroad in August, 1765. He was late agent of the Province of Connecticut. His advent in Connecticut was hailed with scorn, even by former personal friends. Assured of the protection of the governor, Ingersoll proceeded to execute the duties of his office. The people threatened him. The initials of his name were pointed to as those of Judas Iscariot. His house was surrounded and a demand made for him to resign. "I know not," he said, "if I have power to resign." A town meeting in New Haven (September, 1765) earnestly desired Ingersoll "to resign the stamp office immediately. "I shall wait," said Ingersoll, "to see how the General Assembly is inclined." Already the people were moving elsewhere. Several hundred were on horseback, in three divisions, from Norwich, New London, and Windham, and other adjacent towns, with eight days' provisions. The men were armed with newly barked cudgels. Ingersoll proposed to meet them at Hartford. He set out alone, but soon found himself under a large escort of mounted club-armed men, who conducted him to Wethersfield and there bade Ingersoll resign. He asked leave to go to Hartford. "You shall not," it was answered, "go two rods until you resign." He had sent a messenger to the governor and the Assembly and tried to delay the act until he should hear from them. The people became alarmingly impatient, and Ingersoll, saying "The cause is not worth dying for," publicly resigned, declaring it was his own free act. "Swear to it," said the crowd. He excused himself. "Then shout 'Liberty and property' three times." He did so. After dinner a cavalcade of one thousand horsemen escorted him from Wethersfield to Hartford, and Ingersoll was compelled to read the paper which he had signed in the hearing of the Assembly. This is a fair representative picture of the treatment of the stamp-distributors in all the colonies. They all resigned.

Connecticut State Army. The project of invading Canada had drawn off the regulars in garrison on the sea-board towards the inland frontier, even before the declaration of war (June, 1812). On this account a call for militia detachments to do garrison duty was made. The governors of Massachusetts and Connecticut denied the necessity for such a call, and the former urged weighty objections to it. He said the coasts of Massachusetts were thickly populated and its militia well disciplined, and at the first appearance of danger of invasion they could immediately be summoned to the defence of the territory. The Articles of War enacted by Congress gave the command, when the militia and regulars acted together, to the superior officer present, whether of the militia or the regular army; in cases of equal rank the regular officers to take precedence. To secure the command of the New England militia to regular officers, the first calls had been made for detached companies, without the regular quota of field officers. This was complained of as being an irregularity, to which the governors of Massachusetts and Connecticut refused to submit. They even denied the constitutional validity of the Articles of War, in which they were supported by the opinions of the judges of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. Finally the Legislature of Connecticut passed a law (October, 1812) for raising a provincial army of two thousand six hundred men for special state defence, and made Colonel David Humphreys commander-in-chief of it. The avowed object of the measure was to provide for the defence of the soil of Connecticut by a method less expensive and vexatious than by furnishing detachments of militia.

Connecticut, STATE OF. Under the charter given by Charles II., in 1662, Connecticut, like Rhode Island, assumed independence in 1776, and did not frame a new constitution of government. Under that charter it was governed until 1818. Connecticut, under its charter, claimed lands in Pennsylvania and Ohio, and in trying to enforce this claim much trouble ensued. (See *Susquehanna Company, Western Reserve,* and *Fire Lands.*) During the Revolution that state was lavish in its supply of men and money for the American cause, and while other colonies were at the beginning annoyed by royal governors, Connecticut from the beginning was governed by rulers chosen by the people. In 1814 Hartford, Conn., became the theatre of a famous convention which attracted much anxious attention for a while. (See *Hartford Convention.*) In 1818 a convention of delegates from each town in the state assembled at Hartford and framed a constitution, which was adopted by the people at an election on the 5th of October. During the late Civil War that state furnished to the National army 54,882 soldiers, of whom 1094 men and 97 officers were killed in action, 666 men and 48 officers died from wounds, and 3246 men and 63 officers from disease. There were reported "missing" 389 men and 21 officers.

STATE SEAL OF CONNECTICUT.

Connecticut Towns PLUNDERED AND BURNED. Tryon, the plunderer of Danbury (which see), was employed by Sir Henry Clinton to again visit New England with the torch. On the vessels of Sir George Collier, soon after their return from the King's Ferry (which see), he sailed on the night of July 4, 1779, with two thousand five hundred men (many of them German mercenaries), for the shores of Connecticut. They plundered New Haven on the 5th, laid East Haven in ashes on the 6th, destroyed Fairfield in the same way on the 8th, and plundered and burned Norwalk on the 12th. Not content with this wanton destruction of property, the invaders insulted and cruelly abused the inhabitants. The Hessians were particularly active in the latter capacity. While Norwalk was burning Tryon sat in a rocking-chair on a hill and viewed the scene with apparent pleasure. After devastating these pleasant New England villages, Tryon boasted of his clemency in leaving a single house standing. More villages would have been laid waste had not the marauder been recalled by alarming events on the Hudson.

Connecticut Valley, ENGLISH COLONISTS INVITED TO THE. Wah-qui-ma-cut, a sachem seated in the Connecticut Valley, solicited (1631) the governors of Plymouth and Massachusetts to make settlements there. The object of the sachem was to secure protection for his people against the warlike Pequods. Governor Bradford and Edward Winslow visited Governor Winthrop and proposed to him and his council to join in a trade to the Connecticut Valley, and to make a plantation there, as the Dutch were making efforts to that end. It was declined, and the Plymouth people resolved to undertake the enterprise at their own risk. (See *Connecticut, Colony of.*) In October, 1633, the materials for a house, entirely prepared, were put on board a vessel and sent by a chosen company to the Connecticut River. The Dutch had built a light fort just below the site of Hartford, and when the Plymouth vessel approached the commander of the fort forbade the adventurers to pass. The commander of the enterprise (William Holmes) went resolutely forward, and, landing on the west side of the river, set up the house on the site of Windsor and palisaded it. This was the first house built by Europeans in the Valley of the Connecticut. (See *Connecticut Valley, First Settlers in.*)

Connecticut Valley, First Settlers in. The Dutch built a redoubt on the river just below the site of Hartford, and called it Fort Good Hope. There they prepared to plant a colony. The Plymouth settlers bought a tract of land above the Dutch fort from the Indians, and sent a wooden house, in pieces, on a small vessel commanded by Captain William Holmes, to be set up in their domain. When the vessel approached the fort the Dutch commander ordered Holmes to heave to; and as he "sailed right on" the Hollander threatened to open great guns upon him. Holmes passed by unharmed, landed his cargo on the site of Windsor, put up the house, and took formal possession of the country in the name of his king. The few Englishmen with him formed the whole colony; and so the first European settlement was made in the Connecticut Valley. Van Twiller, at Manhattan, blustered, and sent an armed force to expel the intruders; but they remained in spite of the Dutchman. And when the latter finally withdrew, there was an influx of settlers from Massachusetts. In the autumn of 1635 a company of men, women, and children, with oxen and cows, traversed the broken country through tangled morasses, across running streams, and over rugged and lofty hills, more than one hundred miles, until they reached the Valley of the Connecticut, then white with snow. The ice in the river prevented a vessel laden with supplies for them ascending the stream. On the sites of Wethersfield and Hartford they built log huts and a little church edifice in the drifting snow. Some of them, fearing starvation, made their way to the mouth of the river, and thence to Boston in a passing vessel. Those who remained suffered dreadfully, living some of the time upon acorns. Many of the cattle perished for want of food. In 1636 Rev. Thomas Hooker, a zealous dissenting minister who came to Boston from Holland in 1633, led a company of one hundred men, women, and children to the Connecticut Valley. They wisely made the journey in summer, driving before them one hundred and sixty head of cattle, the cows pasturing in grassy savannas and furnishing much wholesome food for the company. The women and children were conveyed in wagons drawn by oxen, while the stalwart men cleared the way with their axes. On the 4th of July the company stood on the banks of the Connecticut, where, under the shadow of trees, they sang hymns of praise. On the following Sabbath Mr. Hooker preached and administered the communion in the little church built the previous winter. There were now (1636) five feeble settlements in the Connecticut Valley.

Connecticut Witches. Historians aver that the Connecticut Colony never had a trial for witchcraft within its borders. There seems to be documentary evidence to the contrary, and there is in existence in Fairfield a record of a trial there of "Mercy Desborough, wife of Thomas Desborough," charged with "familiarity with Satan," and, in a preternatural way, "having afflicted and done harm to the bodies and estates of sundry of their majesties' subjects." This trial occurred in September, 1692. The testimony against her was so absurd and inconclusive that the judges did not deem it sufficient to convict her. Her person was searched for the traditionary "witchmarks," and she was subjected to the infallible test of binding the accused person hand and foot and throwing him or her into deep water. If the body floated, guilt was clearly established; if it sank, innocence was as clearly proven. Mrs. Desborough was so bound and cast into the water; and in the proceedings of the trial the following affidavit appears: "Mr. John Wakeman, aged thirty-two years, and Samuel Squiers make oath that they saw Mercy Desborough put into the water and that she swam like a cork. This was done in court, Sept. 15, 1692. Attest, John Allyn, Secretary." The judges were still unsatisfied, and adjourned the court to Oct. 28, when the case was given to the jury, who found the person "guilty, according to the indictment," and she was sentenced to death. Other prisoners, tried on a similar indictment, were acquitted. Her life was spared, a numerously signed petition for a commutation of her sentence having been presented to the court.

Conner, David, was born in Harrisburg, Penn., about 1792; died in Philadelphia March 20, 1856. He entered the navy in January, 1809, and as acting-lieutenant was in the action between the *Hornet* and *Peacock* (which see). He was made a lieutenant in 1813, and remained on the *Hornet*. In her action with the *Penguin* Conner was dangerously wounded, and for his brave conduct was presented with a medal by Congress, and by the Legislature of Pennsylvania with a sword. He was promoted to the rank of commander in March, 1825, and to captain in 1835. During the war with Mexico (1846–48) he commanded the American squadron on the Mexican coast, and assisted in the reduction of the fortress of San Juan de Ulloa in the spring of 1847. He captured Tampico in November, 1846. His last service was in command of the Philadelphia Navy-yard.

Conquest of Jamaica. When Cromwell had made peace with the Dutch (1654) he declared war against Spain, and sent a fleet under Admiral Penn and an army under General Venables to attack the Spanish West Indies. Edward Winslow went with the fleet as one of Cromwell's commissioners to superintend the conquered countries. By volunteers from Barbadoes and the Leeward Islands the army was increased to ten thousand. Santo Domingo was first attacked. The English were repulsed, and then proceeded to Jamaica, which they easily took possession of, for it was inhabited by only a few of the enervated descendants of old Spanish colonists and some negro slaves. Winslow died at sea soon after the repulse at Santo Domingo, and Sedgwick, of Massachusetts, was put in his place. He framed an instrument of government for Jamaica, having a supreme executive council, of which he was the head. Cromwell, anxious to retain and people the island with subjects of Great Britain, ordered the enlistment in Ireland of one thousand girls and young men, and sent them over. "Idle, masterless robbers and vagabonds, male and female," were arrested and sent to Jamaica; and to have a due admixture of good morals and religion in the new colony, Cromwell sent agents to New England for emigrants. Many at New Haven, not prospering at home, were disposed to go, but, the magistrates opposing, few went. So was first settled by the English the flourishing island of Jamaica, which they yet retain.

Conscriptions. In October, 1814, the Acting Secretary of War (James Monroe) proposed vigorous measures for increasing the army and giving it material strength. Volunteering had ceased, and he proposed to raise, by conscription or draft, sufficient to fill the existing ranks of the army to the full amount of 62,448 men; also an additional regular force of 40,000 men, to be locally employed for the defence of the frontiers and sea-coast. Bills for this purpose were introduced into Congress (Oct. 27, 1814); and this and other war measures were more favorably received than usual because of the waning prospects of peace with Great Britain, excepting on terms humiliating to the United States. The proposition to raise a large force by conscription brought matters to a crisis in New England. Because of the unpatriotic course of the Peace Faction in New England, the President insisted upon the exclusive control of all military movements there, while states in other portions of the Union were left to act, in the matter of local defences, wholly at the discretion of the local governors. The clamor raised against the measure of conscription became more and more intense; and radical and indiscreet men of the opposition proposed the secession of the New England States from the Union as a cure for existing evils. Thoughtful men pondered the situation of affairs with great anxiety, and the famous gathering of representatives of the New England States known as "The Hartford Convention" was the result.

Conservatives. The advocacy of an extensive specie currency, and the proposition for a Sub-Treasury (which see), in 1837, alienated many of the Democratic party, and they formed a powerful faction known as "Conservatives." They finally joined the Whigs, and, in 1840, assisted them materially in electing General Harrison President.

Consignees of Tea Cargoes. Those who accepted the office of consignees of the tea cargoes of the East India Company were held in equal disrepute with the stamp-distributers (which see). They were requested to refrain from receiving the proscribed article. The request of a public meeting in Philadelphia (Oct. 2, 1773), that Messrs. Wharton should not act, was complied with, and their answer was received with shouts of applause. Another firm refused, and they were greeted with groans and hisses. A public meeting in Boston (Nov. 5) appointed a committee to wait upon the consignees in that town and request them to resign. These consignees were all friends of Governor Hutchinson—two of them were his sons and a third his nephew. They had been summoned to attend a meeting of the Sons of Liberty (under Liberty Tree) and resign their appointments. They contemptuously refused to comply; now, in the presence of the town committee, they so equivocated that the meeting voted their answer "unsatisfactory and daringly affrontive." Another committee was appointed for the same purpose at a meeting on the 18th, when the consignees replied: "It is out of our power to comply with the request of the town." The meeting broke up with ominous silence. The consignees became alarmed, and asked leave to resign their appointments into the hands of the governor and council. The prayer was refused, and the consignees fled to the protection of the castle. At a meeting held first in Faneuil Hall and then in the South Meeting-house (Nov. 29), a letter was received from the consignees, offering to store the tea until they could write to England and receive instructions. The offer was rejected with disdain. The sheriff then read a proclamation from the governor, ordering the meeting to disperse. It was received with hisses. Then the meeting ordered that two tea vessels hourly expected at Boston should be moored at Griffin's Wharf, where the cargoes were afterwards destroyed. (See *Boston Tea Party.*) At the demand of a popular meeting in New York (Nov. 25) the appointed consignees there declined to act, whereupon Governor Tryon issued an order for the cargo of any tea-ship that might arrive to be deposited in the barracks.

Consolidation of Connecticut and New Haven. In 1662 Governor Winthrop procured a charter for the Connecticut colony. (See *Winthrop, John, II.*) It differed from other charters in vesting jurisdiction in a corporation of resident freemen instead of an English corporation or single proprietor with or without a local assembly. The charter included the New Haven colony. (See *New Haven.*) That colony refused to accede to the proposed union, chiefly because Connecticut preferred a property qualification required of freemen instead of the spiritual one of church membership, and the known inclination of the Connecticut people towards the adoption of the "half-way covenant"—that is, a compromise between the rigid discipline, dogmas, and exclusiveness of the early Church in New England and the more liberal views which the grown-up children of those old Puritans had adopted, and which had been authorized by a synod held in 1659. By degrees these and other objections were removed, and in May, 1665, the consolidation of the colonies of Connecticut and New Haven was accomplished. This was an important event. In October a Court of Assistants for the new colony was established. It was to consist of at least seven assistants; to have original cognizance of all crimes relating to life, liberty, or banishment; and in all other cases to have appellate jurisdiction. (See *Court of Assistants.*) At that time Connecticut and New Haven consisted of nineteen towns. Only one town, in the New Haven jurisdiction (Branford), persisted in opposing the union. Mr. Pierson, the minister of Branford, and almost his whole church and congregation, were so dissatisfied with it that they removed to Newark, N. J.

Conspiracy against Washington. In the summer of 1777 Washington began to feel the malign influence of the intrigues of Gates against him, such as Schuyler had endured. The same faction in Congress which favored Gates's pretensions in the case of Schuyler (see *Schuyler and Gates*) also favored his ambitious schemes for his elevation to the position of commander-in-chief of the American armies. After Gates had superseded Schuyler (August, 1777), that faction induced the Congress to lavish all their favors upon the former, the favorite of the New England delegation, and to treat Washington with positive neglect. They did not scruple to slight his advice and to neglect his wants. With unpatriotic querulousness some of the friends of Gates in Congress wrote and spoke disparagingly of Washington as a commander while he was on his march to meet Howe (August, 1777). John Adams, warped by his partiality for Gates, wrote, with a singular indifference to facts, concerning the relative strength of the two armies: "I wish the Continental army would prove that anything can be done. I am weary with so much insipidity. I am sick of Fabian systems. My toast is, 'A short and violent war.'" After the defeat of Wayne (see *Paoli Tavern*) that followed the disaster at the Brandywine, the friends of Gates in Congress renewed their censures of Washington, and John Adams exclaimed, "O Heaven, grant us one great soul! One leading mind would extricate the best cause from that ruin which seems to await it." And after the repulse of the British before forts Mercer and Mifflin (October, 1777), Adams exclaimed: "Thank God, the glory is not immediately due to the commander-in-chief, or idolatry and adulation would have been so excessive as to endanger our liberties." After the surrender of Burgoyne the proud Gates insulted Washington by sending his report immediately to Congress instead of to the commander-in-chief, and was not rebuked; and he imitated the treasonable conduct of Lee by disobeying the orders of Washington to send troops (not needed there) from the Northern Department to assist in capturing Howe and his army or expelling them from Philadelphia. The powerful Gates faction in Congress sustained him in this disobedience, and caused legislation by that body which was calculated to dishonor the commander-in-chief and restrain his military operations. They forbade him to detach more than two thousand five hundred men from the Northern army without first consulting Gates and Governor Clinton, and so making him subservient to his inferiors. The Adamses and Gerry, of Massachusetts, and Marchant, of Rhode Island, actually voted for a resolution forbidding Washington to detach any troops from the Northern Department without the consent of Gates and Clinton. Emboldened by the evident strength of his faction in Congress, Gates pursued his intrigues with more vigor, and his partisans there assured him that he would soon be virtual commander-in-chief, when, late in November, 1777, he was made president of a new Board of War, which was vested with large powers, and by delegated authority assumed to control military affairs which properly belonged to the commander-in-chief. Gates found a fitting instrument in carrying forward the conspiracy in General Conway, who, it was rumored, was about to be appointed a major-general in the Continental army, to which appointment Washington made the most serious opposition, because of Conway's unfitness; also because it was likely to drive from the service some of the best generals. Conway heard of this opposition. His malice was aroused, and his tongue and pen were made so conspicuously active that he was considered the head and front of the conspiracy, which is known in history as "Conway's Cabal." He wrote anonymous letters to members of Congress and to chief magistrates of states, filled with complaints, vile insinuations, and false statements concerning the character of Washington, in which the late disasters to the American arms were charged to the incapacity and timid policy of the commander-in-chief. He also wrote forged letters as if from the pen of Washington. He did his best to sow the seeds of discontent among the officers of the army, and caused some of them to write flattering letters to Gates, and so fed his hopes of having the chief command. Members of Congress joined in this letter-writing in disparagement of the chief. A delegate from Massachusetts (Mr. Lovell) in a letter to Gates said, after threatening Washington with "the mighty torrent of public clamor and vengeance:" "How different your conduct and your fortune! this army will be totally lost unless you come down and collect the virtuous band who wish to fight under your banner." And Dr. Benjamin Rush, of Philadelphia, in an anonymous letter to Patrick Henry, after declaring that the army at Valley Forge had no general at its head, said: "A Gates, a Lee, or a Conway would in a few weeks render them an irresistible body of men. Some of the contents of this letter ought to be made public, in order to awaken, enlighten, and alarm our country." Henry treated the anonymous letter with contemptuous silence, and sent it to Washington. Rush's handwriting betrayed him. Conway had written to Gates concerning Washington: "Heaven has been determined to save your country, or a weak general and bad counsellors would have ruined it." When these words reached Washington, he let Conway know the fact. A personal interview ensued, during which Conway justified his words and offered no apology. He boasted of his defiance of the commander-in-chief, and was commended by Gates, Mifflin, and others. The Gates faction in Congress procured Conway's appointment as inspector-general of the army, with the rank of major-general, and made him independent of the chief. The conspirators hoped these indignities would cause Washington to resign, when his place might be filled by Gates. Then the conspiracy assumed another phase. Without the knowledge of Washington the Board of War devised a winter campaign against Canada, and gave the command to Lafayette. It was a trick of Gates to detach the marquis from Washington. It failed. Lafayette was summoned to York to receive his commission from Congress. There he met Gates, Mifflin, and others, members of the Board of War, at table. Wine circulated freely, and toasts abounded. At length, the marquis, thinking it time to show his colors, said: "Gentlemen, I perceive one toast has been omitted, which I will now propose." They filled their glasses, when he gave, "The commander-in-chief of the American armies." The coldness with which that toast was received confirmed Lafayette's worst opinion respecting the men around him, and he was disgusted. The conspirators, finding they could not use the marquis, abandoned the expedition. So, also, was the conspiracy abandoned soon afterwards. Some of Gates's New England friends became tired of him. Conway, found out, was despised, and left the army. He quarrelled with General Cadwallader and fought a duel with him. Conway was wounded, and, expecting to die, wrote an apologetic letter to Washington, deploring the injury he had attempted to do him. He recovered and returned to France.

Conspiracy against Washington, How DEFEATED. When the conspiracy to deprive Washington of the chief command (see *Gates, Conspiracy of*) was ripe, a day was secretly chosen when a committee of Congress should be appointed to arrest Washington at Valley Forge. At that time there was a majority of the friends of the conspirators in Congress (then sitting at York, Penn.), because of the absence of the New York delegation. Only Francis Lewis and Colonel William Duer were at York. The latter was very ill. Lewis, having been informed of the designs of the conspirators, sent a message to Duer. The latter asked his physician whether he could be removed to the court-house, where Congress was in session. "Yes," said the doctor, "but at the risk of your life." "Do you mean that I would expire before reaching the place?" asked Duer. "No," said the physician, "but I would not answer for your life twenty-four hours afterwards." "Very well," responded Duer, "prepare a litter." It was done, and Duer was carried to the floor of Congress. The arrival of Gouverneur Morris, of the New York delegation, at the same time, satisfied the conspirators that they would be defeated, and they gave up the hazardous undertaking.

Conspiracy in the West. As the time for the choice of Mr. Lincoln's successor to the Presidency of the United States in 1864 was approaching, the members of a secret league existing west of the Alleghany Mountains appeared more and more active. The following outline of the conspiracy against the life of the republic is drawn from well-authenticated facts: There was a secret military organization, composed at the time (August, 1864) of the Democratic convention, of about five hundred thousand men, with a commander-in-chief, a general, and subordinate officers, all bound to a blind obedience to the orders of their superiors, and pledged "to take up arms against any government found waging war against a people endeavoring to establish a government of their own choice"—in other words, to assist the insurgents then in arms against the government of the United States. There was to be a general uprising of the members of this league in Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, and Kentucky, in co-operation with a Confederate force under Price, who was to invade Missouri. (See *Missouri, Last Invasion of.*) Price (though rather late) performed his part, but the timid leaguers failed to keep their promises. The plot, it is said, originated with the Confederate authorities at Richmond, and was chiefly directed by Jacob Thompson (ex-Secretary of the Interior), in Canada, with the important aid of Vallandigham (which see). Price was the "Grand Commander" of the Missourian and Southern members of the league, and Vallandigham the "Grand Commander" of the Northern members. The first blow—the signal for the uprising—was to have been struck at the time of the meeting of the Democratic convention at Chicago (Aug. 21), when eight thousand Confederate prisoners confined at Camp Douglas, near that city, were to be liberated and armed by the Confederate refugees in Canada there assembled, and five thousand sympathizers with the Confederate cause then residing in Chicago. Then the Confederate prisoners at Indianapolis were to be released and armed, and the hosts of Knights of the Golden Circle (which see)—the secret conspirators—were to gather at appointed rendezvous to the number of full one hundred thousand men. This force, springing out of the earth, as it were, in the rear of Generals Grant and Sherman, would, it was believed, compel the raising of the sieges of Richmond and Atlanta, and secure peace on the basis of the independence of the "Confederate States." Vallandigham was to go boldly from exile in Canada to Chicago to act as circumstances might require. When the convention met he was there. The Confederate refugees in Canada were also there, with a vast number of sympathizers, who were publicly harangued from balconies of hotels and other places in the most incendiary and revolutionary language, not only by professional politicians, but by clergymen. The conspiracy was foiled by the vigilance and activity of Colonel B. J. Sweet, a young officer who was in command at Chicago. He became acquainted with the secrets of the conspirators. Of this they were timely informed, and they postponed the contemplated uprising by a release of the Confederate prisoners at Camp Douglas until the night of the presidential election. At that time a large number of Confederate officers in disguise were in Chicago. Their plans were all matured when young Colonel Sweet interposed by the arrest of about one hundred of these and Illinois conspirators. Hundreds of their fire-arms were also seized.

Conspiracy of Tecumtha. In 1810 Tecumtha (written also Tecumseh) and his brother, the Prophet (which see), endeavored to confederate the Indian tribes in the Northwest for the extermination of the white settlers north of the Ohio. The cunning Tecumtha made use of the popularity of his brother as a prophet, or medicine man, whose influence had been very great over large portions of the Delawares, Shawnoese, Wyandots, Miamis, Ottawas, Pottawatomies, Kickapoos, Winnebagoes, and Chippewas. It was among the more remote tribes that a greater part of these converts were obtained. In the summer of 1808 the Prophet removed his village to Tippecanoe Creek (a northern branch of the Upper Wabash), among the Delawares and Miamis. There through 1809 the Prophet attracted large numbers of Indians, when military exercises were interspersed with religious mummeries and warlike sports. These military exercises, and an alleged secret intercourse of the brothers with the British traders and agents, had drawn upon the Prophet and his brother the suspicions of Harrison, the Governor of the Indian Territory and Superintendent of Indian Affairs. With consummate duplicity, the Prophet, visiting Harrison at Vincennes, allayed his suspicions by assuming to be a warm friend of peace, his sole object being to reform the Indians and to put a stop to their use of whiskey. Not long afterwards, a treaty made with several tribes by Harrison was denounced by Tecumtha, and serious threats were made by him. Harrison invited the brothers to an interview at Vincennes (August, 1810), when the latter appeared with many followers and showed so much hostility that the governor ordered him and his people to quit the neighborhood. (See *Harrison and Tecumtha.*) In the summer of 1811 Tecumtha journeyed to the land of the Creeks, Choctaws, and Chickasaws to engage them to join in his conspiracy, but failed; and a battle that occurred on the Tippecanoe in November following left Tecumtha and his brother without hope of confederating the tribes for their murderous purpose. (See *Tippecanoe, Battle of the.*)

Constellation and La Vengeance. Early on the morning of Feb. 1, 1800, Commodore Truxtun, cruising off Guadaloupe in the frigate *Constellation,* gave chase to a sail that appeared to the southward, but it was about fifteen hours before he came within hailing distance of the vessel. It proved to be the large French frigate *La Vengeance,* which opened a battle by firing on the *Constellation* at eight o'clock in the evening. A desperate engagement at pistol-shot distance ensued, which lasted until one o'clock in the morning (Feb. 2), the combatants all the while running free, side by side, and pouring broadsides into each other. Suddenly *La Vengeance* ceased firing and disappeared in the gloom. Truxtun supposed she had gone to the bottom. He found his own ship greatly crippled. Nearly all her shrouds had been cut away. A squall came on and the shattered main-mast fell into the sea, carrying with it a midshipman and several topmen who were aloft. *La Vengeance* (which carried 54 guns and 400 men) was not lost, but had fled, in a crippled condition, to Curaçao, where she arrived on the 6th. Captain Pitot, her commander, said he twice struck his flag during the engagement, which Truxtun did not observe. Truxtun bore away to Jamaica, and it was some time before he learned the name of his antagonist. This victory gave Truxtun great renown at home and abroad. Congress thanked him (March 29) and voted him a gold medal. *La Vengeance* would have been a rich prize. She had on board the governor of Guadaloupe and his family, and two French generals, a full cargo of sugar and coffee, and a large amount of specie. She lost, in killed and wounded, 162. The *Constellation* lost, in killed and wounded, 39.

Constellation and L'Insurgente. At noon on Feb. 9, 1799, while the United States frigate *Constellation,* Commodore Truxtun, was cruising off the Island of Nevis, W. I., the French frigate *L'Insurgente* appeared to the southward. Truxtun gave chase, and at a little past three o'clock in the afternoon brought on an engagement. It lasted an hour and a quarter, when *L'Insurgente* surrendered. Captain Barreault did not yield until his fine ship was dreadfully shattered and he had lost 70 men killed and wounded. The *Constellation* had only three men wounded. This victory produced great exultation in the United States, and the little navy was declared to be equal in prowess to any in the world. The *Constellation* carried 32 guns and 300 men; *L'Insurgente* carried 40 guns and 409 men. Truxtun was everywhere eulogized. The merchants of Lloyd's Coffee-house, London, sent him a service of plate worth over three thousand dollars, on which a representation of the action was engraved; and a song called "Truxtun's Victory" was everywhere sung, beginning with the words:

> "Come all ye Yankee sailors, with swords and pikes advance,
> 'Tis time to try your courage and humble haughty France.
> The sons of France our seas invade,
> Destroy our commerce and our trade:
> 'Tis time the reckoning should be paid
> To brave Yankee boys."

Consternation in New England. Rumors spread over New England in 1697 that a French armament from Europe and a land force from Canada were about to fall upon the English colonies. Such an expedition had actually been ordered from France; and it was placed under the command of the Marquis of Nesmond, an officer of great reputation. He was furnished with ten men-of-war, a galiot, and two frigates;

and was instructed to first secure the possessions in the extreme east, then to join fifteen hundred men to be furnished by Count Frontenac, and proceed with his fleet to Boston harbor. After capturing Boston and ravaging New England, he was to proceed to New York, reduce the city, and thence send back the troops to Canada by land, that they might ravage the New York colony. Nesmond started so late that he did not reach Newfoundland until July 24, when a council of war decided not to proceed to Boston. All New England was alarmed, and preparations were made on the seaboard to defend the country. The Peace of Ryswick (which see) was proclaimed at Boston Dec. 10, and the English colonies had repose from war for a while.

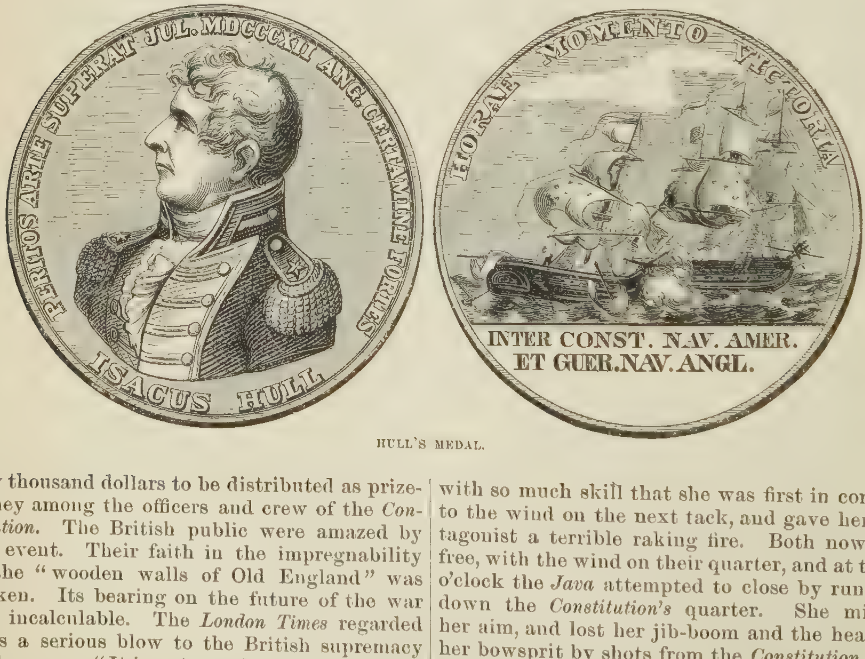
Constituent Convention, PROPOSED. The difficulty of raising money for the current expenses of the United States government in 1782 alarmed its friends. Robert Morris's scheme for taxation had failed to meet support. (See *Morris's Funding Scheme.*) A part of his plan was to collect the taxes due the general government by its own officers; and by a vote of Congress he was authorized to appoint receivers of taxes at different points. Alexander Hamilton was appointed receiver at New York, and was instructed by Morris to forward the views of Congress respecting an amendment of the Articles of Confederation so as to give more power to the general government in the matter of taxation. Hamilton had perceived the facility with which the Eastern States had met in convention, and he conceived the idea of a constituent convention. He repaired to Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson, where the Legislature of the State of New York was in session (July, 1782), and explained to them his views on the only methods by which the United States could obtain a national constitution. His father-in-law (General Schuyler) seconded his views. He was a State Senator; and on July 19 that gentleman invited the Senate to consider the state of the nation. On his motion it was agreed that the general government ought to have power to provide revenue for itself; and it was resolved "that the foregoing important end can never be attained by partial deliberations of the states separately; but that it is essential to the common welfare that there should be, as soon as possible, a conference of the whole on the subject; and that it would be advisable, for this purpose, to propose to Congress to recommend, and to each state to adopt, the manner of assembling a general convention of the states, specially authorized to revise and amend the confederation, reserving a right to the respective legislatures to ratify their determinations." The resolution proposed by Schuyler was carried unanimously in both branches of the Legislature; and Hamilton, who drafted them, was elected, almost without opposition, one of the delegates to the Congress from New York. Robert Morris was rejoiced by these auspicious events, and, when he welcomed young Hamilton (then only twenty-five years of age) to the national Legislature, said, "A firm, wise, manly system of federal government is what I once wished, what I now hope, what I dare not expect, but what I will not despair of." Hamilton, of New York, was the first to recommend a general convention to form a national constitution; and the Legislature of the State of New York, through Senator Schuyler, was the first to take official action in favor of the measure.

Constitution and Guerrière, THE. The *Constitution*, 44 guns, Captain Isaac Hull, sailed from Boston Aug. 2, 1812, and cruised eastward in search of British vessels. Hull was anxious to find the *Guerrière*, 38 guns, Captain James Richard Dacres, who had boastfully enjoined the Americans to remember that she was not the *Little Belt*. (See *President and Little Belt, The.*) The British newspapers, sneering at the American navy, had spoken of the *Constitution* as "a bundle of pine boards sailing under a bit of striped bunting." They had also declared that "a few broadsides from England's wooden walls would drive the paltry striped bunting from the ocean." Hull was eager to pluck out the sting of these insults. He sailed as far as the Bay of Fundy, and then cruised eastward of Nova Scotia, where he captured a number of British merchant vessels on their way to the St. Lawrence. On the afternoon of Aug. 19 he fell in with the *Guerrière*, in latitude 41° 40′, longitude 55° 48′. Some firing began at long range. Perceiving a willingness on the part of his antagonist to have a fair yard-arm to yard-arm fight, Hull pressed sail to get his vessel alongside the *Guerrière*. He was fat, wearing very tight white breeches, and walked the deck watching the movements of the enemy with keen interest; and when the *Guerrière* began to pour shot into the *Constitution*, Lieutenant Morris, Hull's second in command, asked, "Shall I open fire?" Hull quietly replied, "Not yet." The question was repeated when the shots began to tell on the *Constitution*, and Hull again answered, "Not yet." When the vessels were very near each other, Hull, filled with intense excitement, bent himself twice to the deck and shouted, "Now, boys, pour it into them!" The command was instantly obeyed. When the smoke of the broadside cleared away it was discovered that the commander, in his energetic movements, had split his breeches from waistband to knee; but he did not stop to change them during the action. The guns of the *Constitution* were double-shotted with round and grape, and their execution was terrible. The vessels were within pistol-shot of each other. Fifteen minutes after the contest began the mizzen-mast of the *Guerrière* was shot away, her main-yard was in slings, and her hull, spars, sails, and rigging were torn in pieces. By a skilful movement, the *Constitution* now fell foul of her foe, her bowsprit running into the larboard quarter of her antagonist. The cabin of the *Constitution* was set on fire by the explosion of the forward guns of the *Guerrière*, but the flames were soon extinguished. Both parties attempted to board, while the roar of the great guns was terrific. The sea was rolling heavily, and would not allow a safe passage from one vessel to the other. At length the *Constitution* became disentangled and shot ahead of the *Guer-*

rière, when the main-mast of the latter, shattered into weakness, fell into the sea. The *Guerrière*, shivered and shorn, rolled like a log in the trough of the sea, entirely at the mercy of the billows. Hull sent his compliments to Captain Dacres, and inquired whether he had struck his flag. Dacres, who was a "jolly tar," looking up and down and at the stumps of his masts, coolly and dryly replied, "Well, I don't know; our mizzen-mast is gone; our main-mast is gone; upon the whole, you may say we *have* struck our flag." Too much bruised to be saved, the *Guerrière* was set on fire and blown up after her people were removed. So ended the career of the vessel that "was not the *Little Belt*." This exploit of Hull made him the theme of many toasts, songs, and sonnets. One rhymester wrote concerning the capture of the *Guerrière:*

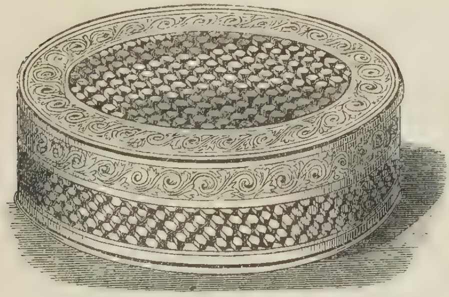
> "Isaac did so maul and rake her,
> That the decks of Captain Dacre
> Were in such a woful pickle,
> As if Death, with scythe and sickle,
> With his sling, or with his shaft,
> Had cut his harvest fore and aft.
> Thus, in thirty minutes, ended
> Mischiefs that could not be mended;
> Masts and yards and ship descended
> All to Davy Jones's locker—
> Such a ship, in such a pucker."

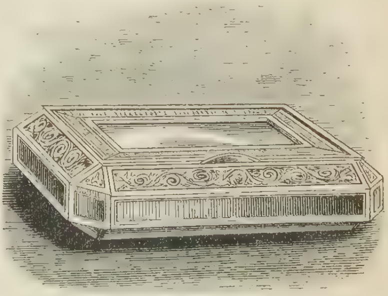
Hull had only seven men wounded. He carried the first tidings of his victory to Boston. It was received with unbounded joy throughout the country. The people of Boston gave him and his officers a public banquet, in which six hundred citizens participated. The authorities of New York gave him the freedom of the city in a gold box. Congress thanked him and awarded him a gold medal, and appropriated fifty thousand dollars to be distributed as prize-money among the officers and crew of the *Constitution*. The British public were amazed by the event. Their faith in the impregnability of the "wooden walls of Old England" was shaken. Its bearing on the future of the war was incalculable. The *London Times* regarded it as a serious blow to the British supremacy of the seas. "It is not merely that an English frigate has been taken," said that journal, "but that it has been taken by a *new enemy*—an enemy *unaccustomed to such triumphs*, and likely to be rendered *insolent* and *confident* by them." This triumph made the Americans very confident, if not insolent.



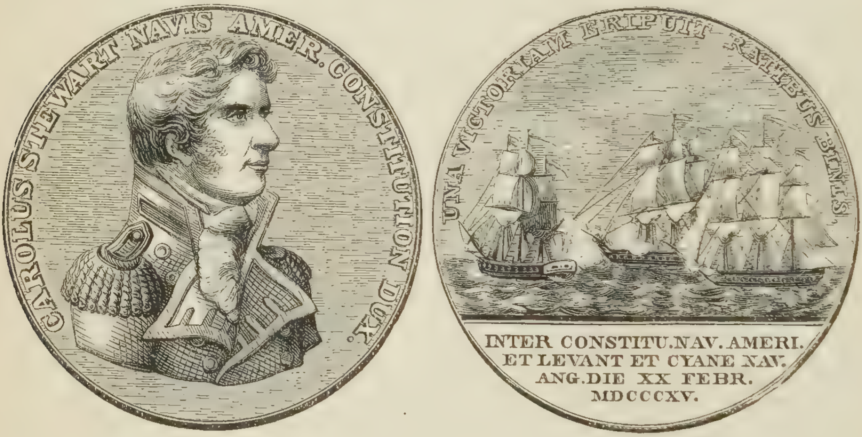
HULL'S MEDAL.

Constitution and Java, THE. After his victory over the *Guerriere* (which see), Captain Hull generously retired from the command of the *Constitution* to allow others to win honors with her. Captain William Bainbridge was appointed his immediate successor, and was placed in command of a small squadron—the *Constitution*, 44 guns; *Essex*, 32; and *Hornet*, 18. Bainbridge sailed from Boston late in October, 1812, with the *Constitution* and *Hornet*. The *Essex* was ordered to follow to designated ports, and if the flag-ship was not found at any of them, to go on an independent cruise. After touching at these ports, Bainbridge was off Bahia or San Salvador, Brazil, where the *Hornet* blockaded an English sloop-of-war, and the *Constitution* continued down the coast. On Dec. 29 she fell in with the British frigate *Java*, 38 guns, Captain Henry Lambert, one of the finest vessels in the royal navy. They were then about thirty miles from the shore, southeast of San Salvador. About two o'clock in the afternoon, after running upon the same tack with the *Constitution*, the *Java* bore down upon the latter with the intention of raking her. This calamity was avoided, and very soon a most furious battle at short range was begun. When it had raged about half an hour the wheel of the *Constitution* was shot away, and her antagonist, being the better sailer, had the advantage of her for a time. Bainbridge managed his crippled ship with so much skill that she was first in coming to the wind on the next tack, and gave her antagonist a terrible raking fire. Both now ran free, with the wind on their quarter, and at three o'clock the *Java* attempted to close by running down the *Constitution's* quarter. She missed her aim, and lost her jib-boom and the head of her bowsprit by shots from the *Constitution*. In a few moments the latter poured a heavy raking broadside into the stem of the *Java*. Another followed, when the fore-mast of the *Java* went by the board, crushing in the forecastle and main-deck in its passage. At that moment the *Constitution* shot ahead, keeping away to avoid being raked, and finally, after manœuvring nearly an hour, she forereached her antagonist, wore, passed her, and luffed up under her quarter. Then the two vessels lay broadside to broadside, engaged in deadly conflict yard-arm to yard-arm. Very soon the *Java's* mizzen-mast was shot away, leaving nothing but the main-mast, the yards of which had been carried away. The fire of the *Java* now ceased, and Bainbridge was under the impression that she had struck her colors. He had fought about two hours, and occupied an hour in repairing damages, when he saw an ensign fluttering over the *Java.* Bainbridge was preparing to renew the conflict, when the *Java's* colors were hauled down and she was surrendered. She was bearing as passenger to the East Indies Lieutenant-general Hyslop (just appointed governor-general of Bombay) and his staff, and more than one hundred English officers and men destined for service in the East Indies. The *Java* was a wreck, and the *Constitution* was very much cut in her sails. The commander of the *Java* was mortally wounded. Her officers and crew numbered about 446 persons. Some of the above-named passengers assisted in the contest. How many of the British were lost was never revealed. It was believed their loss was near 100 killed and 200 wounded. The *Constitution* lost 9 killed and 25 wounded. Bainbridge was also wounded. After every living being had been transferred from the *Java* to the *Constitution*, the former was fired and blown up (Dec. 31, 1812). The prisoners were paroled at San Salvador. The news of the victory created great joy in the United States. Bainbridge received honors of the most conspicuous kind—a banquet at Boston (March 2, 1813); thanks of legislatures; the freedom of the city of New York, in a gold box, by its authorities; the same by the authorities of the city of Albany; an elegant service of silver-plate by the citizens of Philadelphia; and the thanks of Congress, with a gold medal for himself and silver ones for his officers, besides fifty thousand dollars in money to Bainbridge and his companions-in-arms as compensation for their loss of prize-money. The conflict between the *Constitution* and the *Java* was the closing naval engagement of the first six months of the war. From this time the *Constitution* was ranked among the seamen as a "lucky ship," and she was called "Old Ironsides."


NEW YORK GOLD BOX.


ALBANY GOLD BOX.

Constitution, Cruise of the (1814). When Bainbridge relinquished the command of the *Constitution*, 44 guns, in 1813, she was thoroughly repaired and placed in charge of Captain Charles Stewart. She left Boston harbor, for a cruise, on Dec. 30, 1813, and for seventeen days did not see a sail. At the beginning of February, 1814, she was on the coast of Surinam, and, on the 14th, captured the British war-schooner *Picton*, 16 guns, together with a letter-of-marque which was under her convoy. On her way homeward, she chased the British frigate *La Pique*, 36 guns, off Porto Rico, but she escaped under cover of the night. Early on Sunday morning, April 3, when off Cape Anne, she fell in with two heavy British frigates (the *Junon* and *La Nymphe*); and she was compelled to seek safety in the harbor of Marblehead. She was in great peril there from her pursuers. These were kept at bay by a quickly gathered force of militia, infantry, and artillery, and she was soon afterwards safely anchored in Salem harbor. Thence she went to Boston, where she remained until the close of the year. At the end of December (1814) the *Constitution*, still under the command of Stewart, put to sea. Crossing the Atlantic, she put into the Bay of Biscay, and then cruised off the harbor of Lisbon. Stewart sailed southwards towards Cape St. Vincent, and, on Feb. 20, 1815, he discovered two strange sails, which, towards evening, flung out the British flag. Then Stewart displayed the American flag. By skilful management he obtained an advantageous position, when he began an action with both of them; and, after a severe fight of about fifteen minutes in the moonlight, both vessels became silent, and, as the cloud of smoke cleared away, Stewart perceived that the leading ship of his assailants was under the lee-beam of his own vessel, while the sternmost was luffing up as with the intention of tacking and crossing the stem of the *Constitution.* The latter delivered a broadside into the ship abreast of her, and then, by skilful management of the sails, backed swiftly astern, compelling the foe to fill again to avoid being raked. For some time both vessels manœuvred admirably, pouring heavy shot into each other whenever opportunity offered, when, at a quarter before seven o'clock, the British ship struck her flag. She was the frigate *Cyane*, 36 guns, Captain Falcoln, manned by a crew of one hundred and eighty men. Stewart now sought her consort, which had been forced out of the fight by the crippled condition of her running-gear. She was ignorant of the fate of the *Cyane.* About an hour after the latter had surrendered, she met the *Constitution* searching for her. Each delivered a broadside, and, for a while, there was a brisk running fight, the *Constitution* chasing, and her bow guns sending shot that ripped up the planks of her antagonist. The latter was soon compelled to surrender, and proved to be the *Levant*, 18 guns, Captain Douglass. The *Constitution* was then equipped with 52 guns, and her complement of men and boys was about four hundred and seventy. The loss of the *Constitution* in this action was three killed and twelve wounded; of the two captured vessels, seventy-seven. The *Constitution* was so little damaged that three hours after the action she was again ready for conflict. That battle on a moonlit sea lasted only forty-five minutes. Placing Lieutenant Ballard in command of the *Levant*, and Lieutenant Hoffman of the *Cyane*, Stewart proceeded with his prizes to one of the Cape de Verd Islands, where he arrived on March 10, 1815. The next day the *Constitution* and her prizes were in imminent peril by the appearance of English vessels of war coming portward in a thick fog. He knew they would have no respect for the neutrality of the port (Porto Praya), and so he cut the cables of the *Constitution*, and, with his prizes, put to sea. They were chased by the strangers, which were the British frigate *Leander*, 50 guns, Sir George Collier; *Newcastle*, 50 guns, Lord George Stuart; and *Acasta*, 40 guns, Captain Kerr. They pressed hard upon the fugitives. The *Cyane* was falling astern, and must soon have been overtaken. Stewart ordered her commander to tack. He obeyed, and she escaped in the fog, reaching New York in April. The three ships continued to chase the *Constitution*, the *Newcastle* firing her chase guns without effect. Meanwhile the *Levant* fell far in the rear. Stewart signalled her to tack, which she did, when the three vessels gave up the chase of the *Constitution*, and pursued the *Levant* into Porto Praya harbor—a Portuguese port. Regardless of neutrality, one hundred and twenty prisoners, whom Stewart had paroled there, seized a battery, and opened upon the *Levant*, which, receiving the fire of her pursuers at the same time, was compelled to surrender. Stewart crossed the Atlantic, landed many of his prisoners in Brazil, and at Porto Rico heard of the proclamation of peace. Then he returned home, taking with him the news of the capture of the *Cyane* and *Levant*. The *Constitution*—"Old Ironsides" as she was called—was hailed with delight, and Stewart received public honors. The Common Council of New York gave him the freedom of the city in a gold box, and a public dinner to him and his officers. The Legislature of Pennsylvania voted him a gold-hilted sword; and Congress voted him and his men the thanks of the nation and directed a medal of gold, commemorative of the capture of the *Cyane* and *Levant*, to be presented to him. The *Constitution* was always fortunate. Her crews were principally New England men; and, from the time of the Tripolitan War (which see) until she left off cruising and became a school-ship, she was always regarded as a "lucky vessel." Stewart was known in his later days as "Old Ironsides."


CAROLUS STEWART NAVIS AMER. CONSTITUTION DUX.
UNA VICTORIAM ERIPUIT NAVIBUS BINIS.
INTER CONSTITU. NAV. AMERI.
ET LEVANT ET CYANE NAV.
ANG. DIE XX FEBR.
MDCCCXV.

STEWART'S MEDAL.

Constitution, Famous Retreat of the. The frigate *Constitution*, 44 guns, Captain Isaac Hull, had just returned from foreign service when war was declared. She sailed from Annapolis (July 12, 1812) on a cruise to the northward. On the 17th she fell in with a small squadron under Captain Broke, when one of the most remarkable naval retreats and pursuits ever recorded occurred. The *Constitution* could not cope with the whole squadron, and her safety depended on successful flight. There was almost a dead calm, and she floated almost independent of her helm. Her boats were launched, and manned by strong seamen with sweeps. A long 18-pounder was rigged as a stern-chaser, and another of the same calibre was pointed off the forecastle. Out of her cabin windows, which by sawing were made large enough, two 24-pounders were run, and all the light canvas that would draw was set. A gentle breeze sprang up, and she was just getting under headway, when a shot at long range was fired from the *Shannon*, Broke's flag-ship, but without effect. Calm and breeze succeeded each other, and sweeps and sails kept the *Constitution* moving in a manner that puzzled her pursuers. At length the British discovered the secret, and instantly the *Shannon* was urged onward by the same means, and slowly gained on the *Constitution*. The *Guerriere*, 38 guns, Captain Dacres, another of the squadron, had now joined in the chase. All day and all night the pursuit continued; and at dawn of the second day of the chase the whole British squadron were in sight, bent on capturing the plucky American frigate. There were now five vessels in chase, clouded with canvas. Expert seamanship kept the space between the *Constitution* and her pursuers so wide that not a gun was fired. She was four miles ahead of the *Belvidere*, the nearest vessel of the squadron. At sunset (July 19) a squall struck the *Constitution* with great fury, but she was prepared for it. Wind, lightning, and rain made a terrible commotion on the sea for a short time, but the gallant ship outrode the tempest, and at twilight she was flying before her pursuers at the rate of eleven knots an hour. At midnight the British fired two guns, and the next morning gave up the chase, which had lasted sixty-four hours. The newspapers were filled with the praises of Hull and his good ship, and doggerel verse in songs and sonnets, like the following, abounded:

> "'Neath Hull's command, with a taught band,
> And naught beside to back her,
> Upon a day, as log-books say,
> A fleet bore down to thwack her.
>
> "A fleet, you know, is odds or so
> Against a single ship, sirs,
> So 'cross the tide her legs she tried,
> And gave the rogues the slip, sirs."

Constitution, NATIONAL, AMENDMENTS TO THE. At the first session of Congress under the National Constitution—begun in the city of New York, March 4, 1789—many amendments to that Constitution were offered for consideration. Ten of these Congress proposed to the legislatures of the several states. They were ratified by the requisite number at the middle of December, 1791. Another, the XIth, was proposed March 5, 1794, and was ratified in 1798. Another, the XIIth, was proposed Dec. 12, 1803, and was ratified in 1804. These, with the other ten, became a part of the National Constitution. Another article was proposed by Congress May 1, 1810, but was never ratified. (See the Constitution, art. II., § 9, clause 3.) It was to prohibit citizens of the United States accepting or retaining any title of nobility or honor, present, pension, or emolument from any "person, king, or foreign power," without the consent of Congress, under the penalty of disfranchisement. Another amendment, the XIIIth, was adopted by Congress Jan. 31, 1865, and its ratification announced Dec. 18. It provides for the abolition of slavery. A XIVth amendment was adopted by Congress June 13, 1866, and its ratification proclaimed July 20, 1868. It guarantees civil rights to freedmen; enforces the payment of the National debt, and prohibits the payment of the Confederate public debt. A XVth amendment was adopted and proclaimed March 30, 1870, which guaranteed the right of suffrage to all citizens without distinction of race or color.

Constitution, NATIONAL, RATIFICATION OF THE. The convention that framed the National Constitution was divided by many conflicting opinions. So with the people, after it was adopted in convention and presented to them for consideration. It was violently opposed by extreme "state-supremacy men." Of those who signed the document in convention probably not one approved of every part. Hamilton, one of the most earnest advocates of the paper, when urging all to sign it, said, "No man's ideas are more remote from the plan than my own; but is it possible to deliberate between anarchy and confusion on the one hand and the chance of good on the other?" And when it was submitted to the people, Hamilton, Madison, and Jay wrote a series of powerful papers in favor of the Constitution, which, in collected form, make a volume called *The Federalist.* These appeared in a New York newspaper. The first number was written by Hamilton on board an Albany sloop on her passage down the Hudson River. There was an injunction of secrecy upon the proceedings of the convention; so the public did not know the drift of the debates. But there was much of the same kind of discussion and argument in public halls and in the newspaper press. The friends of the Constitution, who now began to be called "Federalists," were doubtful of the final result. Conventions in the various states were called to consider it. When these assembled there was intense excitement in the public mind everywhere. The convention in Delaware was the first to ratify it, by unanimous vote, Dec. 7, 1787; that of Pennsylvania, 46 to 23, Dec. 12; that of New Jersey, unanimously, Dec. 18. The Georgia convention also ratified it, by unanimous vote, Jan. 2, 1788; that of Connecticut, 128 to 40, Jan. 9; of Massachusetts, 187 to 168, Feb. 6; of Maryland, 63 to 12, April 28; of South Carolina, 149 to 73, May 23; of New Hampshire, 57 to 46, June 21. The consent of the people of nine states was necessary to make the new constitution the supreme law of the land. This was accomplished by the vote of New Hampshire, which spread joy among the Federalists. Virginia followed four days after New Hampshire—89 to 79, July 25; New York, 30 to 28, July 26; and North Carolina, Nov. 21. Rhode Island stood out until May 29, 1790, when the national government had been in operation under the new Constitution more than a year. (See *National Constitution.*)

Constitution, NATIONAL, RECORDS OF THE

CONVENTION THAT FRAMED THE. The injunction of secrecy as to the proceedings of the convention was never removed. The journal, at the final adjournment, was intrusted to the custody of Washington, who afterwards deposited it in the Department of State. It was first printed by order of Congress in 1818. Mr. Yates, one of the members from New York, took short notes of the earlier proceedings before he left the convention in disgust. These were published after his death in 1821. Madison's more perfect notes were published in three volumes in 1840. Luther Martin, one of the delegates from Maryland (who was absent at the time of the signing of the instrument), gave a "representation" of the convention to the Legislature of Maryland.

Constitution, THE FRIGATE, SAVED BY A POEM. The famous frigate *Constitution*, called "Ironsides," is yet (1880) afloat. Many years ago the Navy Department concluded to break her up and sell her timbers, as she was thought to be a decided "invalid." The order had gone forth, when the execution of it was arrested by the opposition of public sentiment created and called forth largely by the following poetic protest by Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes:

THE CONSTITUTION IN 1876.

"Ay, tear her tattered ensign down!
Long has it waved on high.
And many an eye has danced to see
That banner in the sky.
Beneath it rang the battle-shout,
And burst the cannon's roar;
The meteor of the ocean air
Shall sweep the clouds no more.

"Her deck once red with heroes' blood,
Where knelt the vanquished foe,
When winds were hissing o'er the flood
And waves were white below,
No more shall feel the victor's tread,
Or know the conquered knee:
The harpies of the shore shall pluck
The Eagle of the Sea!

"O! better that her shattered hulk
Should sink beneath the wave;
Her thunders shook the mighty deep,
And there should be her grave.
Nail to the mast her holy flag,
Set every threadbare sail,
And give her to the God of Storms,
The lightning, and the gale!"

"Old Ironsides" was saved and created into a school-ship.

"Constitutionalists" and "Friends of the People." In 1805 the conservative portion of the Democratic party in Pennsylvania, who were moderate in their views and gave a firm support to the National Constitution, took the name of "Constitutionalists," and organized what they called the "Constitutional Society." The other section of the party constituted themselves into rival clubs, called the "Friends of the People." The strife between them was bitter, and their denunciations of the leaders of each were greatly enjoyed by the Federalists.

Consular Convention with France. A convention of this kind, framed in accordance with a plan agreed to by the Continental Congress in 1782, was signed in Paris by Franklin in 1784. It gave to the consuls of the two nations complete jurisdiction over the merchants and mariners of the nation they represented, and could not fail to produce serious collisions in its exercise. The Continental Congress therefore instructed Jefferson to ask for a modification, and especially for the insertion of a limitation of time. Long negotiations ensued. This modification and others were secured in the summer of 1789, and, being signed anew, the convention was submitted to the Senate for ratification. Mr. Jay, then holding the position (from the old Congress) of Secretary of Foreign Affairs, was called upon for a report upon the subject. He said it was still objectionable; but the United States could not honorably decline ratifying it, and it was done.

Consuls, AUTHORITY OF. Early in the first session of the Second Congress the subject of consuls at foreign ports, their authority, fees, etc., was brought up in Congress for the first time. A bill was reported Nov. 14, 1791, and became a law April 10, 1792. It was made their duty to receive and authenticate all protests and declarations made before them by American citizens, or by foreigners in relation of American citizens; copies of which, under their seals, were to have the same validity as the originals. They were to take possession of the property of citizens dying within their consulate having no partner or representative, and to act, in every particular, as a legal representative of the deceased in trust for heirs. In case of the stranding of a vessel within their consulate, they were to take measures, at the expense of the owner, for saving the vessel and cargo. They were to provide for and send home, at the government expense, American seamen left abroad. No salaries were allowed the consuls, except where they acted as diplomatic agents, as in the Barbary States; but they were entitled to certain fees, which were sometimes abundant and sometimes very meagre compensation. With some modifications as to compensation, the same consular system now prevails.

Continental Army, CONDITION OF THE. At the beginning of 1781, when the revolt of the Pennsylvania line occurred, the condition of the army was most wretched. A committee of Congress reported that it had been "unpaid for five months; that it seldom had more than six days' provisions in advance, and was on several occasions, for sundry successive days, without meat; that the medical department had neither sugar, coffee, tea, chocolate, wine, nor spirituous liquors of any kind; and that every department of the army was without money, and had not even the shadow of credit left." The clothing of the soldiers was in tatters, and distress of mind and body prevailed everywhere in the service. No wonder that some of the soldiers, who believed that their term of service had expired, mutinied, and marched towards Philadelphia to demand redress from the Congress. (See *Pennsylvania Line, Revolt of the.*)

Continental Army, FORMATION OF THE. On the morning after the affair at Lexington and Concord (April 20, 1775) the Massachusetts Committee of Safety sent a circular letter to all the towns in the province, saying: "We conjure you, by all that is dear, by all that is sacred; we beg and entreat you, as you will answer it to your country, to your consciences, and, above all, to God himself, that you will hasten and arrange, by all possible means, the enlistment of men to form the army, and send them forward to headquarters at Cambridge with that expedition which the vast importance and instant urgency of the affair demands." This call was answered by many people before it reached them. It arose spontaneously out of the depths of their own patriotic hearts. The field, the workshop, the counter, the desk, and even the pulpit, yielded their tenants, who hurried towards Boston. Many did not wait to change their clothes. They took with them neither money nor food, intent only upon having their firelocks in order. The women on the way opened wide their doors and hearts for the refreshment and encouragement of the patriotic volunteers, and very soon all New England was represented at Cambridge in a motley host of full twenty thousand men. On the afternoon of the 20th (April) General Artemas Ward assumed the chief command of the gathering volunteers. The Provincial Congress labored night and day to provide for their organization and support. The second Continental Congress convened at Philadelphia (May 10), and on the 7th of June, in a resolution for a general fast, had spoken for the first time of "the twelve united colonies." To make the bond stronger, they then, at the suggestion of John Adams, adopted the army at Cambridge as a Continental army, and proceeded (June 15, 1775) to appoint George Washington the commander-in-chief of it. They chose for his assistants Artemas Ward, Charles Lee, Philip Schuyler, and Israel Putnam, major-generals; and Seth Pomeroy, Richard Montgomery, David Wooster, William Heath, Joseph Spencer, John Thomas, John Sullivan, and Nathaniel Greene, brigadier-generals. Horatio Gates was appointed adjutant-general. The pay of a major-general was fixed at $166 a month; of a brigadier-general, $125; of the adjutant-general, $125; commissary-general of stores and provisions, $80; quartermaster-general, $80; deputy quartermaster-general, $40; paymaster-general, $100; deputy paymaster-general, $50; chief-engineer, $60; assistant engineer, $20; aide-de-camp, $33; secretary to the general, $66; secretary to a major-general, $33; commissary of musters, $40. Washington refused to receive any pay for his service, and required that only his expenses should be reimbursed. (See *Washington.*) The pay of all subalterns, commissioned and warrant, was afterwards (July 29) determined.

Continental Army, FIRST ORGANIZATION OF THE (1775). Washington took command of the Continental army at Cambridge in July, 1775. The general officers had already been appointed by Congress. Washington found an undisciplined force, and immediately took measures to bring order out of confusion. Congress had provided for one adjutant-general, one quartermaster-general and a deputy, one commissary-general, one paymaster-general and a deputy, one chief-engineer and two assistants, of the grand army, and an engineer and two assistants for the army in a separate department; three aides-de-camp, a secretary to the general and to the major-generals, and a commissary of musters. Joseph Trumbull, son of the governor of Connecticut, was appointed commissary-general; Thomas Mifflin, quartermaster-general; and Joseph Reed, of Philadelphia, was chosen by Washington to the important post of secretary to the commander-in-chief.

Continental Army, SECOND ORGANIZATION OF THE (1778). During the encampment at Valley Forge a committee of Congress spent some time with Washington in arranging a plan for the reorganization of the army. By it each battalion of foot, officers included, was to consist of five hundred and eighty-two men, arranged in nine companies; the battalion of horse and artillery to be one third smaller. This would have given the army sixty thousand men; but, in reality, it never counted more than half that number. General Greene was appointed quartermaster-general; Jeremiah Wadsworth, of Connecticut, commissary-general; Colonel Scammel, of New Hampshire, adjutant-general; and Baron de Steuben, a Prussian officer, inspector-general. To allay discontents in the army because of the great arrearages of the soldiers' pay, auditors were appointed to adjust all accounts; and each soldier who should serve until the end of the war was promised a gratuity of $80. The officers were promised half-pay for seven years from the conclusion of peace.

Continental Army, THIRD ORGANIZATION OF THE. In the spring of 1779, on the report of a committee of Congress, that body proceeded to a new organization of the army. Four regiments of cavalry and artillery, hitherto independent establishments raised at large, were now credited towards the quota of the states in which they had been enlisted. The state quotas were reduced to eighty battalions: Massachusetts to furnish fifteen; Virginia and Pennsylvania, eleven each; Connecticut and Maryland, eight each; the two Carolinas, six each; New York, five; New Hampshire and New Jersey, three each;

Rhode Island, two; and Delaware and Georgia, one each. Congress allowed $200 bounty for each recruit, and the states made large additional offers; but the real amount was small, for at that time the Continental paper money had greatly depreciated. It was found necessary to replenish the regiments by drafts from the militia. The whole force of the American army, exclusive of a few troops in the Southern department, consisted, late in the spring of 1779, of only about eighty-six thousand effective men. At that time the British had eleven thousand at New York and four or five thousand at Newport, besides a considerable force in the South.

Continental Army, Fourth Organization of the (1780). A committee of Congress, of which General Schuyler was chairman, were long in camp, maturing, with Washington, a plan for another reorganization of the army. Congress agreed to the plan. The remains of sixteen additional battalions were to be disbanded, and the men distributed to the state lines. The army was to consist of fifty regiments of foot, including Hazen's, four regiments of artillery, and one of artificers, with two partisan corps under Annard and Lee. There were to be four other legionary corps, two thirds horse and one third foot. All new enlistments were to be "for the war." The officers thrown out by this new arrangement were to be entitled to half-pay for life. The same was promised to all officers who should serve to the end of the war. The army, as so arranged, would consist of thirty-six thousand men: never half that number were in the field.

Continental Army, Miserable Condition of the (1780). The subject of the whole organization of the army was referred by Congress to a committee, of which General Philip Schuyler was chairman. This committee visited Washington's camp at Morristown in the spring of 1780, and, in conjunction with the commander-in-chief, were vested with extensive powers. In a report which they made to Congress in May, soon after their arrival, the committee represented "that the army was five months unpaid; that it seldom had more than six days' provisions in advance, and was on several occasions, for sundry successive days, without meat; that the army was destitute of forage; that the medical department had neither sugar, tea, chocolate, wine, nor spirits; and that every department was without money, or even the shadow of credit."

Continental Army, Reorganization of the. In October, 1775, a committee of Congress visited the camp at Cambridge, and, in consultation with Washington and committees of the New England colonies, agreed upon a plan for the reorganization of the besieging army. It was to consist of twenty-six regiments, besides riflemen and artillery. Massachusetts was to furnish sixteen; Connecticut, five; New Hampshire, three; and Rhode Island, two—in all about twenty thousand men; the officers to be selected out of those already in the service. It was easier to plan an army than to create one.

Continental Army, The, on July 4, 1776. According to a return submitted to Congress, the Continental army, on the day when the Declaration of Independence was adopted, consisted of seven thousand seven hundred and fifty-four men present fit for duty, including one regiment of artillery. Their arms were in a wretched condition. Of nearly fourteen hundred muskets, the firelocks were bad; more than eight hundred had none at all; and three thousand eight hundred and twenty-seven—more than half the whole number of infantry—had no bayonets. Of the militia who had been called for, only eight hundred had joined the camp. With this force Washington was expected to defend an extended line of territory against an army of about thirty thousand men.

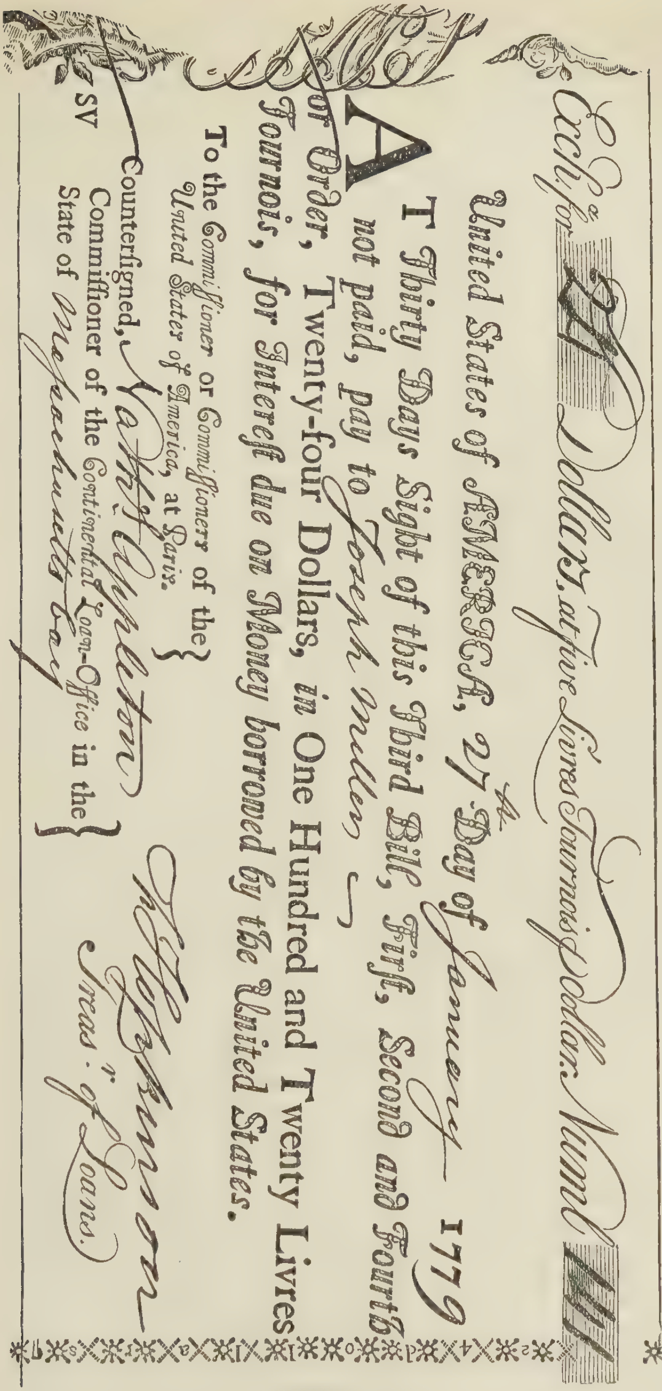
Continental Army, Troops furnished for the, by each State.

New Hampshire....	12,497	Delaware..........	2,386
Massachusetts......	67,907	Maryland..........	13,912
Rhode Island.......	5,908	Virginia...........	26.678
Connecticut........	31,939	North Carolina.....	7,263
New York..........	17,781	South Carolina.....	6,417
New Jersey........	10,726	Georgia............	2.679
Pennsylvania.......	25,678	Total..........	231,771

Not one of this band of patriots is now (1880) living on the earth. (See *Cook, Lemuel*, and *Hutchings, William*.)

Continental Bills of Exchange. On Oct. 3, 1776, the Continental Congress resolved to borrow $5,000,000 for the use of the United States, at the annual interest of four per cent., and directed certificates to be issued accordingly by the manager of a loan office which was established at the same time. When foreign loans were made, drafts or bills of exchange were used for the payment of interest. On the opposite page is a fac-simile of one of these drafts, slightly reduced in size. It is drawn on the commissioner of Congress, then in Paris, signed by Francis Hopkinson (a signer of the Declaration of Independence), the Treasurer of Loans, and countersigned by Nathaniel Appleton, commissioner of the Continental Loan Office in Massachusetts.

Continental Congress, Appointment of Delegates to the. The Assembly of Rhode Island appointed delegates June 15; the Connecticut Assembly had authorized such action on the 3d, and the Committee of Correspondence chose them on the 13th. The New Hampshire Legislature had, after some difficulty with the governor, appointed a Committee of Correspondence, and that committee met at Portsmouth to appoint delegates on June 5, but being dispersed by the governor and sheriff, a convention at Exeter appointed them. Similar conventions were held in Maryland and New Jersey (July 21, 23, 25). In New York a city committee of fifty-one, in connection with a committee of mechanics, nominated delegates. A poll was opened, at which the mayor and aldermen presided, when delegates were chosen (July 28), and were adopted by some of the interior districts. The counties of Orange, Kings, and Suffolk sent separate deputies. Governor Penn, of Pennsylvania, refused to call an Assembly, when the inhabitants



No. SV

Exch. for 24 Dollars, at five Livres Tournois ꝑ Dollar. Numb. 447

United States of AMERICA, 27th Day of January 1779

AT Thirty Days Sight of this Third Bill, Firſt, Second and Fourth not paid, pay to Joseph Mullen or Order, Twenty-four Dollars, in One Hundred and Twenty Livres Tournois, for Intereſt due on Money borrowed by the United States.

To the Commiſſioner or Commiſſioners of the United States of America, at Paris.

Counterſigned, Nath. Appleton Commiſſioner of the Continental Loan-Office in the State of Massachusetts bay

F. Hopkinson Treas.r of Loans

CONTINENTAL DRAFT.

of Philadelphia met in town meeting (July 18), and appointed a committee for the city and county. On their invitation a "Committee of the Province," composed of delegates chosen in the several counties, met at Philadelphia (July 6), and requested the Assembly (which had just been convened for another purpose) to appoint delegates to the Congress. It was speedily done. The Assembly of Delaware did the same (Aug. 1); and on the same day the Virginia Convention chose delegates from that colony. A like convention held in North Carolina (Aug. 25) took similar action; and at a public meeting of men from all parts of South Carolina, held at Charleston (July 6), delegates were chosen, and the act was ratified by the Assembly. The influence of Governor Wright prevented the selection of delegates from Georgia.

Continental Congress, END OF THE (1789). The Congress was barely kept alive, for several months before it expired, by the occasional attendance of one or two members. Among the last entries in its journals by Charles Thomson, its permanent secretary, was one under date of "Tuesday, Oct. 21, 1788," as follows: "From the day above mentioned to the 1st of November there attended occasionally, from New Hampshire, et cetera, many persons from different states. From Nov. 3 to Jan. 1, 1789, only six persons attended altogether. On that day Reed, of Pennsylvania, and Barnwell, of South Carolina, were present; and after that only one delegate was present (each time a different one) on nine different days." The very last record was: "Monday, March 2. Mr. Philip Pell, from New York." The history of that Congress has no parallel. At first it was a spontaneous gathering of representative patriots from the different English-American colonies to consult upon the public good. They boldly snatched the sceptre of political rule from their oppressors, and, assuming imperial functions, created armies, issued bills of credit, declared the provinces to be independent states, made treaties with foreign nations, founded an empire, and compelled their king to acknowledge the states which they represented to be independent of the British crown. The brilliant achievements of that Congress astonished the world. Its career was as short as it was brilliant, and its decadence began long before the war for independence had closed. Its mighty efforts had exhausted its strength. It was smitten with poverty, and made almost powerless by a loss of its credit. Overwhelmed with debt; a pensioner on the bounty of France; unable to fulfil treaties it had made; insulted by mutineers; bearded, encroached upon, and scorned by the state authorities, the Continental Congress sunk fast into decrepitude and contempt. With ungrateful pride, the recipients of its benefits seem not to have felt a pang of sorrow or uttered a word of regret when the once mighty and beneficent Continental Congress expired.

Continental Congress in 1779. The moral as well as the numerical strength of the Congress was at a low mark in 1779, and the general distrust of its ability to meet its engagements caused a very rapid depreciation of its paper-money. Many of the ablest members had left that body, and were devoting their energies to the affairs of their respective states. The number in attendance seldom amounted to thirty, and was often less than twenty-five. The commander-in-chief passed five weeks at Philadelphia in the winter of 1778–79 in consultation with the members of Congress. They were weeks of anxiety for him. His letters at that period evince his serious alarm at the state of affairs. In a letter to Colonel Harrison (Dec. 30, 1778) he implored him to endeavor to rescue his country by sending the best and ablest men to Congress. He depicted the sad falling off in morals of men in high places and in general society. "This is not an exaggerated account," he said. "That it is an alarming one, I do not deny; and I confess to you that I feel more real distress on account of the present appearance of things than I have done at any one time since the commencement of the dispute. . . . Providence has heretofore taken us up, when all other means and hope seemed to be departing from us. In this I will confide."

Continental Congress, PRESIDENTS OF THE.

Name.	Where from.	When Elected.
Peyton Randolph	Virginia	Sept. 5, 1774.
Henry Middleton	South Carolina	Oct. 2, 1774.
Peyton Randolph	Virginia	May 10, 1775.
John Hancock	Massachusetts	May 24, 1775.
Henry Laurens	South Carolina	Nov 1, 1777.
John Jay	New York	Dec. 10, 1778.
Samuel Huntington	Connecticut	Sept. 28, 1779.
Thomas McKean	Delaware	July 10, 1781.
John Hanson	Maryland	Nov. 5, 1781.
Elias Boudinot	New Jersey	Nov. 4, 1782.
Thomas Mifflin	Pennsylvania	Nov. 3, 1783.
Richard Henry Lee	Virginia	Nov. 30, 1784.
Nathan Gorham	Massachusetts	June 6, 1786.
Arthur St. Clair	Pennsylvania	Feb. 2, 1787.
Cyrus Griffin	Virginia	Jan. 22, 1788.

Continental Congress, PROPOSITION FOR A. The Boston Port Bill (which see) aroused and united the colonies, and there seemed to be an almost universal desire for a general Congress to consult upon public affairs. Measures were taken in that direction as follows: At a town meeting at Providence, May 17, 1774; a committee of a town meeting at Philadelphia, May 21; a town meeting in New York city, May 23; the House of Burgesses of Virginia, May 27; a county meeting in Baltimore County, Md., May 31; a town meeting at Norwich, Conn., June 6; a county meeting at Newark, N. J., June 11; the Massachusetts Assembly and a town meeting in Boston, June 17; a county meeting at New Castle, Del., June 29; the Committee of Correspondence at Portsmouth, N. H., July 6; a general provincial meeting at Charleston, S. C., July 6, 7, and 8; a district meeting at Wilmington, N. C., July 21. Within the space of sixty-four days twelve of the thirteen colonies spoke out in favor of a general Congress, Georgia alone remaining silent. The resolution of the Massachusetts Assembly declared that "a meeting of committees from the several colonies on the continent is highly expedient and necessary to consult upon the present state of the country, and the miseries to which we are and must be reduced by the operation of certain acts of Parliament; and to deliberate and determine on wise and proper measures to be recommended to all the other colonies for the recovery and re-establishment of our just rights and liberties, civil and religious, and the restoration of union and harmony between Great Britain and America, which is most ardently desired by all good men." The committee of New York having requested the patriots of Massachusetts to name a day and place for the meeting of the Congress, the 1st of September was appointed the time and Philadelphia the place designated.

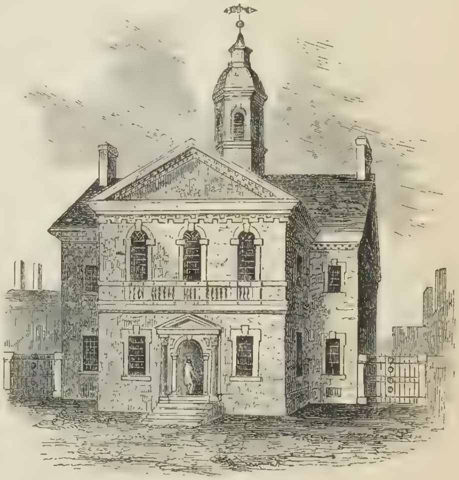
Continental Congress (1777), FLIGHT OF THE. After the battle of the Brandywine (which see), the necessity for abandoning Philadelphia was perceived. The Congress, which had returned to Philadelphia at the beginning of March (1777), from their exile in Baltimore, now resolved (Sept. 14) to adjourn to Lancaster. After the ordinary adjournment on Thursday, Sept. 18, the president received a letter from Colonel Hamilton, of Washington's staff, which intimated the necessity of removing the Congress immediately from Philadelphia. The members left at once, and reassembled at Lancaster. The public papers had already been removed to Lancaster under the charge of Abraham Clark, one of the members, in wagons guarded by troops. Regarding Lancaster as too much exposed, the Congress adjourned to York, on the other side of the Susquehanna River, on the 27th, where they met on Tuesday, Sept. 30, and continued the sessions there until after Philadelphia was evacuated by the British, June 18, 1778.

Continental Congress, SESSIONS OF THE, were commenced at the following times and places: Sept. 5, 1774, Philadelphia; May 10, 1775, ditto; Dec. 20, 1776, Baltimore; March 4, 1777, Philadelphia; Sept. 27, 1777, Lancaster, Penn.; Sept. 30, 1777, York, Penn.; July 2, 1778, Philadelphia; June 30, 1783, Princeton, N. J.; Nov. 26, 1783, Annapolis, Md.; Nov. 1, 1784, Trenton, N. J.; Jan. 11, 1785, New York. This continued to be the place of meeting from that time until the adoption of the Constitution of the United States in 1788. From 1781 to 1788 Congress met annually on the first Monday in November, which time was fixed by the Articles of Confederation (which see).

Continental Congress, Settlement of the Accounts of the. The extent and intensity of the struggle of the Continental Congress during the fifteen years of its existence to maintain its financial credit and carry on the war may never be known. Enough is known to prove that it involved great personal sacrifices, much financial ability, unwearied patriotism, and abounding faith in the cause and its ultimate triumph. As that Congress approached its demise, it addressed itself to a final settlement of its fiscal accounts. Since the adoption of the peace establishment, commencing with 1784, the liabilities incurred by the general government, including two instalments of the French debt, amounted to a little more than $6,000,000, over one half of which had been met. Only $1,800,000 of the balance had been paid in by the states; the remainder had been obtained by three Dutch loans, amounting in the whole to $1,600,000, a fragment of which remained unexpended. The arrearage of nearly $8,000,000 consisted of interest on the French debt, and two instalments of over-dues. This indebtedness was passed over to the new government. The accounts of the quartermaster, commissary, clothing, marine, and hospital departments were either settled or about to be settled. The accounts of many of the loan offices were unsettled. There seems to have been much laxity in their management. The papers of the first Virginia loan office were lost. In South Carolina and Georgia, the loan office proceeds had been appropriated to state uses, and from only five states had returns been made. Out of more than $2,000,000 advanced to the Secret Committee for Foreign Affairs (which see), prior to August, 1777, a considerable part remained unaccounted for. The expenditure of full one third of the money borrowed abroad remained unexplained.

Continental Congress, The, before the Confederation, was a fluctuating body, it being a rare occurrence, after the first three or four years, that all the states were simultaneously represented. The number of members present did not generally exceed thirty, and these had to do a vast amount of business, much of it of an executive character, performed by committees. Unlike the Congress of our day, the time of the Congress was not wasted by long speeches, and the debates generally took the form of animated conversations. The members were paid by the states they represented. The president of the Congress was provided with a house at the public charge; so also were the expenses of his household paid. He was regarded as the representative of the sovereignty of the Union, and on that idea the ceremonial of his household was regulated. From the first Continental Congress (1774) until the ratification of the Articles of Confederation (March 1, 1781) the presidential chair had been filled by Peyton Randolph, John Hancock, Henry Laurens, and Samuel Huntington.

Continental Congress, The First, assembled in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia, on the 5th of September, 1774, when eleven of the English-American colonies were represented by forty-four delegates—namely, two from New Hampshire, four from Massachusetts, two from Rhode Island, three from Connecticut, five from New York, five from New Jersey, six from Pennsylvania, three from Delaware, three from Maryland, six from Virginia, and five from South Carolina. Three deputies from North Carolina appeared on the 14th. Peyton Randolph, of Virginia, was chosen president of the Congress, and Charles Thomson, of Pennsylvania, was appointed secretary. Other delegates appeared afterwards, making the whole number fifty-four. Each colony had appointed representatives without any rule as to number, and the grave question at once presented itself, How shall we vote? It was decided to vote by colonies, each colony to have one vote, for as yet there were no means for determining the relative population of each colony. Patrick Henry, in a speech at the opening of the business of the Congress, struck the key-note of union by saying, "British oppression has effaced the boundaries of the several colonies; the distinction between Virginians, Pennsylvanians, and New-Englanders is no more. *I am not a Virginian, but an American.*" This was the text of every speech afterwards. It was voted that the session of the Congress should be opened every morning with prayer, and the Rev. Jacob Duché, of the Protestant Episcopal Church, was employed as chaplain. There was much difference of opinion concerning the duties and powers of the Congress, Henry contending that an entirely new government must be founded; Jay, that they had not assembled to form a new government, but as a continental committee of conference, to try to correct abuses in the old. The members were unanimous in their resolves to support Massachusetts in resistance to the unconstitutional change in her charter. They appointed a committee to state the rights



CARPENTERS' HALL.

of the colonists in general, the several instances in which those rights had been violated or infringed, and to suggest means for their restoration. Other committees for various duties were appointed, and at about the middle of September the Congress was a theatre of warm debates, which took a wide range. On the 20th of September they adopted a request for the colonies to abstain from commercial intercourse with Great Britain. (See *American Association.*) They tried to avoid the appearance of revolution while making bold propositions. Some were radical, some conservative, and some very timid. The tyranny of Gage in Boston produced much irritation in the Congress; and on the 8th of October, after a short but spicy debate, it passed the most important resolution of the session, in response to the Suffolk resolutions (which see), as follows: "That this Congress approve the opposition of the inhabitants of Massachusetts Bay to the execution of the late acts of Parliament; and if the same shall be attempted to be carried into execution by force, in such case all Americans ought to support them in their opposition." Thus the united colonies cast down the gauntlet of defiance. On the 14th the Congress adopted a *Declaration of Colonial Rights.* This was followed on the 20th by the adoption of *The American Association*, or general non-importation league. An *Address to the People of Great Britain*, written by John Jay, and a memorial *To the Inhabitants of the Several British-American Colonies*, from the pen of Richard Henry Lee, were adopted on the 21st. On the 26th—the last day of the session—a *Petition to the King* and an *Address to the Inhabitants of the Province of Quebec*, or Canada, both drawn by John Dickinson, were agreed to. A vote of thanks to the friends of the colonists in Parliament was sent to the colonial agents, with the petition to the king. Having already recommended the holding of another Continental Congress at Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775, this Congress adjourned in the afternoon of Oct. 26, 1774; and the next day the members started for home, impressed with the belief that war was inevitable. The actual sessions of the Congress occupied only thirty-one days. Their proceedings produced a profound sensation in both hemispheres. The state papers they put forth commanded the admiration of the leading statesmen of Europe. The king and his ministers were highly offended; and early in January Lord Dartmouth issued a circular letter to all the royal governors in America signifying his majesty's pleasure that they should prevent the appointment of deputies to another Continental Congress within their respective governments, and exhort all persons to desist from such proceedings. The members of the first Continental Congress were cautious concerning the assumption of direct political authority. They had met as a Continental committee of conference. Even the American Association (which see), the nearest approach to it, was opposed by Galloway of Pennsylvania, Duane of New York, and all the South Carolina delegation but two.

ROOM IN WHICH CONGRESS MET IN CARPENTERS' HALL.

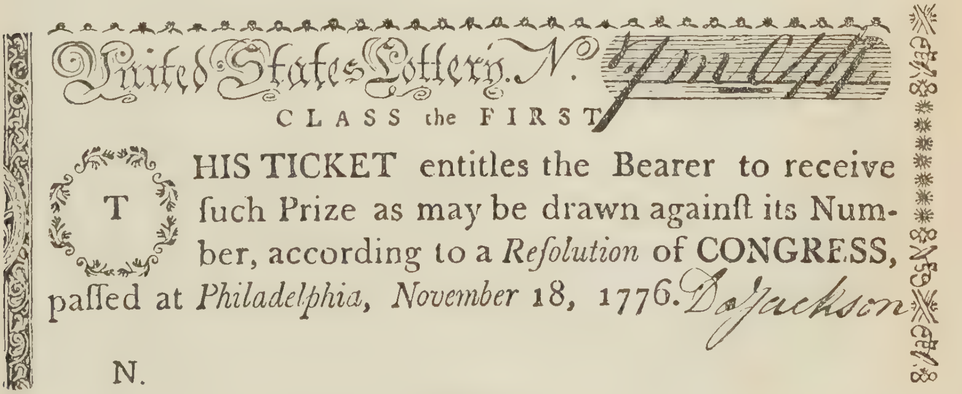
Continental Congress, The Second, met in Philadelphia May 10, 1775. Peyton Randolph was chosen president; Charles Thomson, secretary; Andrew McNeare, door-keeper, and William Shed, messenger. To this Congress all eyes were anxiously turned. Randolph was soon called to Virginia to attend a session of the Assembly as speaker, when his seat was temporarily filled by Thomas Jefferson, and his place as president by John Hancock. On the 25th of May Georgia was represented in the Continental Congress for the first time, Lyman Hall having been elected special representative from the parish of St. Johns and admitted to a seat, but without a vote. In Committee of the Whole the Congress considered the state of the colonies. A full account of recent events in Massachusetts was laid before them; also a letter from the Congress of that province, asking advice as to the form of government to be adopted there, and requesting the Continental Congress to assume control of the army at Cambridge. (See *Continental Army, Formation of the.*) This second Congress was regarded by the colonists as no longer a committee of conference, but a provisional government. The first Congress claimed no political power, though their signatures to the American Association implied as much. The present Congress, strengthened by the public voice of the colonists, entered at once upon the exercise of comprehensive authority, in which the functions of supreme executive, legislative, and sometimes judicial powers were united. These powers had no fixed limits of action nor formal sanction, except the ready obedience of a large majority in all the colonies. The Committee of the Whole reported and the Congress resolved (May 26) that war had been commenced by Great Britain. The case had been formulated in Massachusetts in an epigram, as follows:

"THE QUARREL WITH AMERICA FAIRLY STATED.

Rudely forced to drink tea, Massachusetts in anger
Spills the tea on John Bull—John falls on to bang her;
Massachusetts, enraged, calls her neighbors to aid,
And gives Master John a severe bastinade.
Now, good men of the law, pray who is in fault,
The one who began or resents the assault?"

The Congress denied any intention of casting off their allegiance, and expressed an anxious desire for peace; at the same time voted that the colonies ought to be put in a position of defence against any attempt to force them to submit to Parliamentary schemes of taxation. Another petition to the king was adopted; and it was resolved that no provisions ought to be furnished by the colonists to the British army or navy; that no bills of exchange drawn by British officers ought to be negotiated, and that no colonial ships ought to be employed in the transportation of British troops. Committees were appointed to prepare an address to the people of Great Britain and Ireland; also to the Assembly of Jamaica, and an appeal to the "oppressed inhabitants of Canada." They also issued a proclamation (June 9) for a day (July 20) of general solemn fasting and prayer. They resolved that no obedience was due to the late act of Parliament for subverting the charter of Massachusetts, and advised the Congress of that province to organize a government in as near conformity to the charter as circumstances would admit. The Congress adopted the army at Cambridge as a Continental one; appointed a commander-in-chief (June 15), with four major-generals and eight brigadiers; arranged the rank and pay of officers, and perfected a preliminary organization of the army. They worked industriously in perfecting a national civil organization and for support of the military force, authorizing the issue of bills of credit to the amount of $2,000,000, at the same time taking pains not to give mortal offence to the British government. But the inefficiency of the executive powers of Congress was continually apparent. The sagacious Franklin, seeing the futility of attempting to carry on the inevitable war with such a feeble instrument, submitted a basis of a form of confederation, similar in some respects to the one he proposed in convention at Albany twenty-one years before. (See *Albany, Fourth Colonial Convention at.*) It was a virtual declaration of independence, but it was not acted upon at that time. (See *Articles of Confederation.*) The Congress also established a postal system (July 26, 1775) and appointed Dr. Franklin postmaster-general. It also established a general hospital, with Dr. Benjamin Church as chief director. The army before Boston and an expedition for the conquest of Canada engaged much of the attention of the Congress for the rest of the year.

Continental Congress, WEAKNESS OF THE, AT FIRST. The first Continental Congress that met in Philadelphia in September, 1774, was only a Committee of Conference from twelve colonies, and not invested with any legislative or executive authority. So with the second Congress that assembled in the same city in May, 1775. It had no civil or military power to legally execute its commands, nor the power to appoint one. "Nor was one soldier enlisted," says Bancroft, "nor one officer commissioned in its name. They had no treasury; and neither authority to levy a tax or borrow money. Their members had been elected, in part at least, by tumultuary assemblies or bodies which had no recognized legal existence; they were intrusted with no powers but those of counsel; most of them were held back by explicit or implied instructions; and they represented nothing more solid than the unformed opinion of an unformed people. Yet they were encountered by the king's refusal to act as a mediator, the decision of Parliament to enforce its authority, and the actual outbreak of civil war. The waters had risen, the old roads were obliterated, and they must strike out a new path for themselves and for the continent. The exigency demanded the instant formation of one great commonwealth and the declaration of independence. 'They are in rebellion,' said Edmund Burke, 'and have done so much as to necessitate them to do a great deal more.'"


United States Lottery. N°

CLASS the FIRST

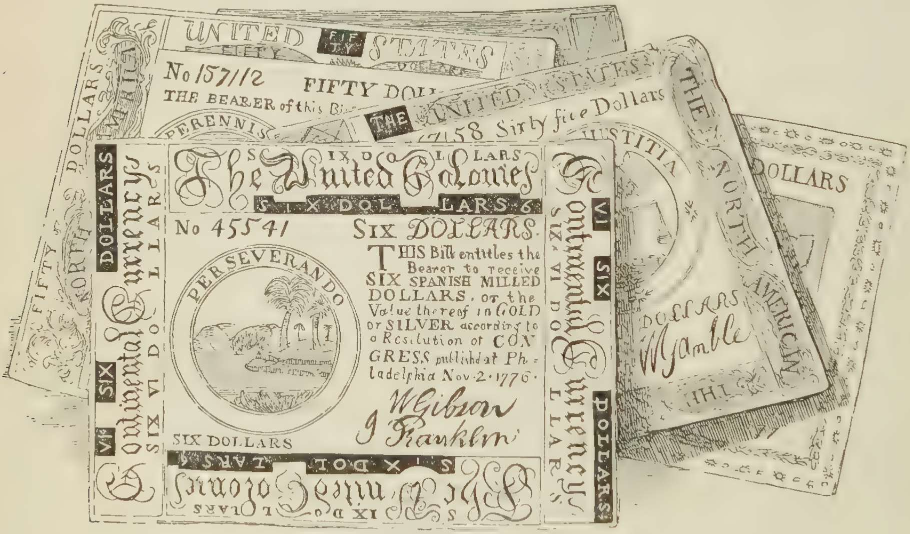
THIS TICKET entitles the Bearer to receive ſuch Prize as may be drawn againſt its Number, according to a *Reſolution* of CONGRESS, paſſed at *Philadelphia, November* 18, 1776. D. Jackson

N.

LOTTERY TICKET.

Continental Lottery, THE. On Nov. 1, 1776, the Congress by resolution authorized the raising of a sum of money by lottery for "defraying the expenses of the next campaign." A committee appointed to arrange a plan for the same reported a scheme on the 18th, which contemplated the issue of one hundred thousand tickets, each divided into four billets, and to be drawn in four classes. The total sum to be raised was $5,000,000, in the form of a loan at four per cent. The drawer of more than a minimum prize in each class—$20 in the first, $30 in the second, $40 in the third, and $50 in the fourth—was to receive either a treasury note, payable in five years, or the pre-emption of such billets in the next succeeding class. Seven managers were appointed, who were authorized to employ agents in the several states to sell the tickets. The first drawing was appointed March 1, 1777, but purchasers of tickets had been so few that it was postponed from time to time. Various impediments appeared, and the plan that promised so much proved a failure. Many purchasers of tickets were losers; and this, like other financial schemes of that period, was productive of much hard feeling towards the Congress.

Continental Navy, The, at the Close of the Revolution. The navy was almost annihilated at the close of the war. Of the thirteen frigates ordered to be built by Congress in 1775, two had been destroyed on the Hudson River and three on the Delaware, without getting to sea. The remaining eight, together with most of the purchased vessels, had been captured by the British, some at Charleston, some at Penobscot, and others on the high seas. The only American ship of the line ordered by Congress and finished (the *Alliance*) was presented in 1782 to the King of France, to supply the place of a similar vessel lost in Boston harbor by an accident. (See *Navy of the United States.*)



THIS Bill entitles the Bearer to receive SIX SPANISE MILLED DOLLARS, or the Value thereof in GOLD or SILVER according to a Resolution of CONGRESS published at Philadelphia Nov. 2. 1776.

W Gibson
J Franklin

FAC-SIMILE OF THE CONTINENTAL BILLS.

Continental Paper-money. The issue of paper-money or bills of credit, not only by the several colonies, but by the Continental Congress, became a necessity when the war began in 1775. The second Congress met in Philadelphia May 10, 1775, and on that day, in secret session, the measure was agreed upon, but the resolution was not formed and adopted until June 22, the day on which news of the battle on Breed's Hill was received by the Congress. Then it was resolved "that a sum not exceeding two millions of Spanish milled dollars be emitted by the Congress in bills of credit for the defence of America," and that "the twelve confederated colonies [Georgia was not then represented] be pledged for the redemption of the bills of credit now directed to be emitted." Each colony was required to pay its proportion, in four annual payments, the first by the last of November, 1779, and the fourth by the last of November, 1782. A committee appointed for the occasion reported the following day the annexed resolution:

"*Resolved*, That the number and denominations of the bills be as follows:

49,000 bills of 8 dollars each	$392,000
49,000 bills of 7 dollars each	343,000
49,000 bills of 6 dollars each	294,000
49,000 bills of 5 dollars each	245,000
49,000 bills of 4 dollars each	196,000
49,000 bills of 3 dollars each	147,000
49,000 bills of 2 dollars each	98,000
49,000 bills of 1 dollar each	49,000
11,800 bills of 20 dollars each	236,000
Total, 403,800	$2,000,000

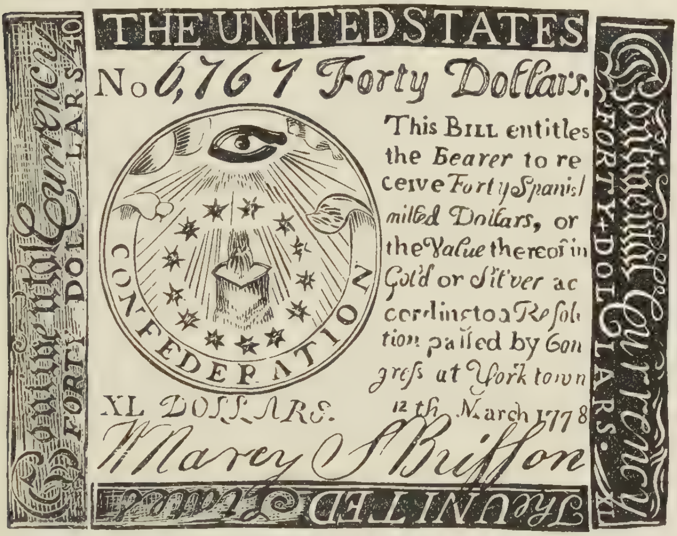
"*Resolved*, That the form of the bill be as follows:

CONTINENTAL CURRENCY.

*No.*______ ________ *Dollars.*

This Bill entitles the Bearer to receive______ Spanish milled Dollars, *or the value thereof in* Gold or Silver, *according to the resolutions of the* CONGRESS, *held at* Philadelphia *the* 10*th of* May, A.D. 1775."

A committee was appointed to procure the plates and superintend the printing of the bills. The plates were engraved by Paul Revere, of Boston. The paper was so thick that the British called it "the pasteboard currency of the rebels." The size of the bills averaged about three and a half by two and three quarter inches, having a border composed partly of repetitions of the words "CONTINENTAL CURRENCY." On the face of each bill was a device (a separate one for each denomination) significant in design and legend; for example, within a circle a design representing a hand planting a tree, and the legend "POSTERITATE"—for posterity. The lesson to be conveyed was, that the struggle in which the colonists were engaged, in the planting of a new and free nation, would be for the benefit of posterity. Twenty-eight gentlemen were appointed to sign these bills. New issues were made at various times until the close of 1779, when the aggregate amount was $242,000,000. Then the bills had so much depreciated that $100 in specie would purchase $2600 in paper currency. (See *Depreciation of Continental Paper-money.*) Laws, penalties, entreaties, could not sustain its credit. It had performed a great work in enabling the colonists, without taxes the first three years of the war, to fight and baffle one of the most powerful nations of Europe. And the total loss to the people, by depreciation and failure of redemption, of $200,000,000, operated as a tax, for that depreciation was gradual. Continental bills of credit are now very rare—only in the collections of antiquaries. Counterfeits of the bills were sent out of New York by the British by the cartload, and put into circulation. The following appeared in *Rivington's Gazette:*


THE UNITED STATES

No 6,767 Forty Dollars.

This BILL entitles the Bearer to receive Forty Spanish milled Dollars, or the Value thereof in Gold or Silver according to a Resolution paſſed by Congreſs at York town 12 th March 1778

XL DOLLARS.

W Marcy S Briſſon

CONFEDERATION
Continental Currency FORTY DOLLARS 40
Continental Currency FORTY DOLLARS XL
THE UNITED States

COUNTERFEIT CONTINENTAL BILL.

> "ADVERTISEMENT.—Persons going into other colonies may be supplied with any number of counterfeit Congress notes for the price of the paper per ream. They are so neatly and exactly executed that there is no risk in getting them off, it being almost impossible to discover that they are not genuine. This has been proven by bills to a very large amount which have already been successfully circulated. Inquire of Q. E. D., at the Coffee-house, from 11 A.M. to 4 P.M., during the present month."

Continental Paper-money, EFFORTS TO SUSTAIN THE. Early in January, 1777, the beginning of the depreciation of the Continental bills of credit caused a convention of the representatives of the New England States, held at Providence, R. I., to consult about the defence of that state, then invaded. They agreed upon a scheme for regulating by law the prices of labor, produce, manufactured articles, and imported goods. It was strenuously opposed by the merchants, but it was presently enacted into a law by the New England States. The Congress resolved that these bills "ought to pass current in all payments, trade, and dealings, and be deemed equal in value to the same nominal sum in Spanish dollars." It was resolved that all persons refusing to take them ought to be considered "enemies of the United States," on whom "forfeitures and other penalties" ought to be inflicted by the local authorities. The states were called upon to make the bills a legal tender, and they were advised to avoid the further issue of local bills of credit. The Congress approved (Feb. 15, 1777) the action of the New England convention concerning the regulation of prices, and soon afterwards a convention for the Middle States, in which New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia were represented, met at York, Penn., and agreed upon a scale of prices. This impracticable scheme was soon abandoned.

Continental Soldiers, LAST SURVIVORS OF THE. Lemuel Cook, of New York, and William Hutchings, of Maine, who both died in May, 1866, were the last survivors of the Continental soldiers. Lemuel Cook was born at Plymouth, Litchfield Co., Conn., in 1764; died at Clar

LEMUEL COOK.

endon, Orleans Co., N. Y., May 20, 1866, at the age of one hundred and two years. He entered the military service of his country in the spring of 1781, and was with the allied armies in the campaign against Cornwallis in Virginia. He was then about seventeen years of age, and was one of the regulars. He enlisted in the Second Light Dragoons, Colonel Sheldon, but was mustered into Captain Staunton's company of infantry, and continued in that company until June, 1783. At the termination of the war that year he was discharged, at Danbury, Conn., which discharge, signed by Washington, he retained until his death. At the close of the war he married Hannah Curtis, at Cheshire, Conn., by whom he had eleven children—seven sons and four daughters. He married a second wife when he was seventy years old. In his earlier married years he lived in the almost wilderness region of Utica, N. Y., and afterwards returned to Connecticut, where most of his children were born. With his young family he moved into Central New York, and had lived at Clarendon for about thirty years previous to his death. He was a farmer all his life, and his pension was his chief means of support the latter part of it. His pension was for many years $100 a year. It was increased in 1863 to $200, and the last year of his life it was $300. (See *Hutchings, William.*)

Continental Treasurers. On the 29th of July, 1775, the Congress, having issued bills of credit to the amount of $2,000,000, appointed Michael Hillegas and George Clymer, of Philadelphia, joint treasurers of the United Colonies. They were required to give bonds, with sureties, for the faithful performance of their duties, in the sum of $100,000, to the president and other members of the Continental Congress named, in trust for the colonies. They recommended the Provincial Assemblies to each choose a treasurer for their respective colonies.

"Contrabands." On the day after his arrival at Fortress Monroe, General Butler sent out Colonel Phelps, of the Vermont troops, to reconnoitre the vicinity of Hampton. The citizens had just fired the bridge. The flames were extinguished by the troops, who crossed the stream, drove armed insurgents out of Hampton, and found the inhabitants in sullen mood; but the negroes were jubilant, regarding the Union troops as their expected deliverers. In the confusion caused by this dash into Hampton, three negroes, held as slaves by Colonel Mallory, of that village, escaped into the Union lines, and declared that many of their race, who were employed in building fortifications for the insurgents, desired to follow. They were taken before General Butler. He needed laborers in field-works which he was about to construct. Regarding these slaves, according to the *laws of Virginia*, as much the property of Colonel Mallory as his horses or his pistols, and as properly seizable as they, as aids in warfare, and which might be used against the National troops, "These men are contraband of war," said Butler; "set them at work." This order was scarcely announced, before Major Carey, as agent of Colonel Mallory, and "in charge of his property," appeared, wishing to know what the general intended to do with the runaways. "I shall detain them as contraband of war," said the general; and they were held as such. Other slaves speedily came in. General Butler wrote to the Secretary of War, telling him what he had done, on the assumption that they were the property of an enemy of the Republic used in warfare, and asking instructions. His course was approved by his government; and thenceforward all fugitive slaves were considered "contraband of war," and treated as such. That masterly stroke of policy was one of the most effective aimed at the heart of the insurrection; and throughout the war the fugitive slave was known as the "contraband." So emancipation began.

Contrast, A. During the siege of Boston by Washington and the Continental army, in the summer of 1775, the British officers were annoyed by the distribution of handbills in their camp, sent in by American sentinels, calculated to seduce the soldiers. After the battle on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, the principal encampment of the Americans was on Prospect Hill; that of the British, out of Boston, on Bunker's Hill. One of the handbills alluded to contained the following contrast:

Prospect Hill.	*Bunker's Hill.*
1. Seven dollars a month.	1. Threepence a day.
2. Fresh provisions in plenty.	2. Rotten salt pork.
3. Health.	3. The scurvy.
4. Freedom, ease, affluence, and a good farm.	4. Slavery, beggary, and want.

Contreras, Battle of. General Scott resumed his march from Puebla (which see) for the city of Mexico Aug. 7, 1847. The road lay mostly along the line of the march of Cortez, more than three hundred years before. From the lofty summits of the mountains the American army could look down into the magnificent Valley of Mexico and see the capital in the distance. Down into that valley the army cautiously moved, for resistance was expected at the mountain passes. General Twiggs, with his division, led the way; and on Aug. 11 encamped at St. Augustine, with the strong fortress of San Antonio before him. Close upon his right were the heights of Churubusco, crowned with fortifications finished and unfinished, and manned by several thousand Mexicans; and not far off was the strongly fortified camp of Contreras, on a rugged height, containing between 6000 and 7000 men under General Valencia. In the rear of it was Santa Aña with 12,000 men as a reserve. In the afternoon of Aug. 19, Generals Twiggs and Pillow, assisted by Generals Persifer F. Smith and Cadwallader, attacked the camp of Contreras, and a sharp conflict ensued, with almost continual skirmishing around. This indecisive conflict continued about six hours. At the moment when some Mexican cavalry were preparing for a charge, General Scott arrived at the scene of conflict, and ordered up General Shields with reinforcements. The Mexicans everywhere fought bravely and desperately. When night fell, the wearied Americans laid down and slept in the ravines and among the rocks on the verge of the battle-field, expecting to renew the contest in the morning. Generals Scott and Worth started early the next morning (Aug. 20) from St. Augustine for Contreras, and were met on the way by a courier with the good news that the enemy's camp was captured. The battle had been begun at sunrise by Smith's division. While Generals Shields and Pierce had kept Santa Aña's reserve at bay, Smith's troops had marched towards the works in the darkness and gained a position, unobserved, behind the crest of a hill near the Mexican works. Springing up suddenly from their hiding-place, they delivered deadly volleys in quick succession; dashed pell-mell into the intrenchments; captured the batteries at the point of the bayonet; drove out the army of Valencia; and pursued its flying remnants towards the city of Mexico. The contest, which had lasted only seventeen minutes, was fought by 4500 Americans, against 7000 Mexicans. The trophies of victory were 80 officers and 3000 Mexican troops made prisoners, and 33 pieces of artillery. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

Controversy between the Governor and Assembly of Pennsylvania. In January, 1757, the Assembly of Pennsylvania passed a bill granting for his majesty's service £100,000, by a tax on all the estates, real and personal, "taxable," within the province. The governor (Denny) refused to sanction it, because it would heavily tax the proprietaries of the province. He asked them to frame a bill providing supplies for the public service, such as he could, "consistent with his honor and his engagements to the proprietaries," subscribe. The Assembly remonstrated, saying they had framed the bill consistent with their rights as an "English representative body," and, in the name of their sovereign, "and in behalf of the distressed people whom they represented" unanimously *demanded* of the governor that he would give his assent to the bill they had passed. As it was a money bill, they demanded that it should not be altered or amended, "any instructions whatsoever from the proprietaries notwithstanding," as he would "answer to the crown for all the consequences of his refusal at his peril." The governor persisted in his refusal, grounded upon parliamentary usage in England, and the supposed hardship of taxing the unimproved land of the proprietaries. As the governor would not sign a bill that did not exempt the estates of the proprietaries from taxation, the Assembly sent Benjamin Franklin, as the agent of the province, to petition the king for redress. This was the beginning of protracted disputes between the representatives of the people of Pennsylvania and the agents of the proprietaries. (See *Proprietary Innovations in Pennsylvania.*)

Convention between France and Spain. On the evening of April 12, 1779, the representatives of France and Spain signed a convention for an invasion of England, in which the Americans were considered and concerned. By its terms France bound herself to undertake the invasion of Great Britain and Ireland; and if the British could be driven from Newfoundland, the fisheries were to be shared with Spain. France promised to use every effort to recover for Spain Minorca, Pensacola, and Mobile, the Bay of Honduras, and the coast of Campeachy; and the two courts agreed not to grant peace nor truce, nor suspension of hostilities, until Gibraltar should be restored to Spain. Spain was left free to exact from the United States, as the price of her friendship, a renunciation of every part of the basin of the St. Lawrence and the Lakes, of the navigation of the Mississippi, and of all the territory between that river and the Alleghany Mountains. This modification of the Treaty of France with the United States gave the latter the right to make peace whenever Great Britain should recognize their independence. So these two Bourbon dynasties plotted to exclude the Americans from a region essential to them as members of an independent republic. But a new power appeared in the West to frustrate their designs, which was prefigured by an expedition under a hardy son of Virginia. (See *Clarke, George Roger.*)

Convention in Massachusetts (1768). When it was known that British troops had been ordered to Boston, a town meeting was held and a request sent to Governor Bernard to convene the Provincial Assembly. He refused, and a convention of delegates from all the towns in the province was provided for. Delegates from more than one hundred towns met (Sept. 22) at Boston, ostensibly "in consequence of prevailing apprehensions of a war with France." This was a mere pretext. They ordered all persons not already in possession of fire-arms to procure them at once; and they appointed a day of fasting and prayer to be observed by all congregational societies. The convention petitioned the governor to summon a general court. He refused to receive the petition, and denounced the convention as treasonable. They proceeded cautiously. All pretensions to political authority were expressly disclaimed. They prepared and adopted a petition to the king, and a letter to De Berdt, agent for the provinces in England, charging him to defend the colony against accusations of sedition or a rebellious spirit. Such was the beginning of the system of conventions which, in a few years, assumed the whole political authority of the colonies. The convention adjourned after a four days' session, and the day after the adjournment troops from Halifax arrived.

Convention Troops. (See *Surrender of Burgoyne.*) The vanquished troops made prisoners to the Americans by a convention for the surrender of them, made by Gates and Burgoyne, were marched through New England to Cambridge, near Boston, to be embarked for Europe. The Congress had ratified the agreement of Gates that they should depart, on giving their parole not to serve again in arms against the Americans. Circumstances soon occurred that convinced Washington that Burgoyne and his troops intended to violate the agreement at the first opportunity, and it was resolved by the Congress not to allow them to leave the country until the British government should ratify the terms of the capitulation. Here was a dilemma. That government would not recognize the authority of the Congress as a lawful body; so the troops were allowed to remain in idleness in America four or five years. Burgoyne, alone, was allowed to go home on his parole. The British ministry charged the Congress with absolute perfidy; the latter retorted, and justified their acts by charging the ministry with *meditated* perfidy. Owing to the difficulty of finding an adequate supply of food for the captive troops in New England, the Congress finally determined to send them to Virginia. Commissioners sent over, in the spring of 1778, to tender a scheme of reconciliation, offered a ratification of the convention, signed by themselves; but Congress would recognize no authority inferior to the British ministry for such an act. Finally, in pursuance of a resolution of Congress (Oct. 15, 1778), the whole body of the captives (4000 in number), English and German, after the officers had signed a parole of honor respecting their conduct on the way, took up their line of march, early in November, for Charlottesville, in Virginia, under the command of Major-general Phillips. Colonel Theodoric Bland was appointed by Washington to superintend the march. It was a dreary winter's journey of seven hundred miles through New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia. The routes of the two nationalities were sometimes distant from each other, and sometimes the same, until they reached Valley Forge, when they went in the same line until they had crossed the Potomac River. They remained in Virginia until October, 1780, when the danger that the captives might rise upon and overpower their guard caused the British to be removed to Fort Frederick, in Maryland, and the Germans to Winchester, in the Shenandoah Valley. Deaths, desertion, and partial exchanges had then reduced their number to about 2100. Afterwards they were removed to Lancaster, in Pennsylvania, and some to East Windsor, Conn. In the course of 1782 they were all dispersed, either by exchange or desertion. Many of the Germans remained in America.

VIEW OF THE ENCAMPMENT OF THE CONVENTION TROOPS. (From a picture in Anburey's *Travels.*)

Convention with Great Britain (1818). The commission under the Treaty of Ghent (which see) to determine the ownership of the islands in Passamaquoddy Bay had agreed to confirm the possession of them as it existed before the war; the running of the boundary-line through the St. Lawrence and the Lakes had been nearly completed; but the commission on the north-east boundary had not yet been able to arrive at any conclusion, when a new convention decided (Oct. 20, 1818) that the forty-ninth degree of north latitude should be the boundary between the United States and the British possessions from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains. The territory west of these mountains (now Oregon) was to remain in the joint occupation of both parties for ten years; in other words, the British Fur Company, which alone had any establishments in that remote region, was not to be disturbed for that period. The commercial convention of 1815 (see *Treaty of Peace*) was to continue in force for the same period. The loud complaints of the fishing interest in New England, on account of the British construction of the effects of the late war upon the treaty of 1783, were considered. Concessions were made. Those rights were restored so far as related to the north and east coasts of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the coast of Labrador, and the Magdalene Islands; but off the coasts of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, in the Bay of Fundy, and on the western and southern portions of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, American vessels were not to fish within three miles of the shore. As the two governments could not agree upon the interpretation of the article of the Treaty of Ghent concerning slaves carried away, under which a large amount was claimed in the way of indemnity, it was referred to a third power—Russia.

Conway, Thomas (Count de), was born in Ireland, Feb. 27, 1733; died about 1800. He was taken to France when he was six years old, was educated there, attained the military rank of colonel, came to America in 1777, and entered the Continental army as brigadier-general. He was engaged in the conspiracy with Gates and others to supplant Washington as commander-in-chief, and, when discovered, he left the service and returned to France. (See *Conway's Cabal.*) In 1784 Conway was made a field-marshal, and appointed governor of all the French settlements in the East Indies. When the French Revolution broke out he was compelled to flee from France.

Conway's Cabal. (See *Conspiracy against Washington.*)

Cook, LEMUEL. (See *Continental Soldiers, Last Survivors of the.*)

Cook, PHILIP ST. GEORGE, was born in Berkeley County, Va., in 1809, and graduated at West Point in 1827. He served in the war against Mexico, and late in 1861 was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He had seen much service in wars with the Indians, commanded in Kansas during the troubles there, and took part in the Utah expedition in 1858. He commanded all the regular cavalry of the Army of the Potomac, and was distinguished in the campaign on the Peninsula in 1862.

Cool Arbor, BATTLE OF. The Army of the Potomac and a large part of the Army of the James formed a junction near Cool Arbor on a part of the old battle-ground of McClellan and Lee the year before. General W. F. Smith and sixteen thousand men of the Army of the James had been taken in transports from Bermuda Hundred around to the White House, whence they had marched towards the Chickahominy. Sheridan had seized the point at Cool Arbor, and the Nationals took a position extending from beyond the Hanover Road to Elder Swamp Creek, not far from the Chickahominy. Burnside's corps composed the right of the line, Warren's and Wright's the centre, and Hancock's the left. The Confederate line, reinforced by troops under Breckinridge, occupied a line in front of the Nationals—Ewell's corps on the left, Longstreet's in the centre, and A. P. Hill's on the right. On the morning of June 1 Hoke's division attempted to retake Cool Arbor. It was repulsed, but was reinforced by McLaws's division. Wright's Sixth corps came up in time to meet this new danger; and Smith's troops, from the Army of the James, after a march of twenty-five miles, came up and took post on the right of the Sixth, then in front of Cool Arbor, on the road leading to Gaines's Mills (which see). Between the two armies was a broad, open, undulating field and a thin line of woods. Over this field the Nationals advanced to the attack at four o'clock P.M. The veterans of Smith soon captured the first line of rifle-pits and six hundred men. Their attack on the second line was a failure, and with darkness the struggle ceased, the Nationals having lost two thousand men. They held the ground, and bivouacked on the battle-field. During the night the Confederates made desperate but unsuccessful efforts to retake the rifle-pits. General Grant had ordered a redisposition of his army, making Hancock form the right, to the left of Wright's corps. Burnside was withdrawn entirely from the front and placed on the right and rear of Warren, who connected with Smith. Having made these dispositions on the 2d, it was determined to force the passage of the Chickahominy the next morning, and compel Lee to seek safety in the fortifications around Richmond. The Nationals moved at four o'clock on the morning of the 3d. Wilson's cavalry was on the right flank, and Sheridan's held the lower crossings of the river, and covered the roads to the White House. Orders had been given for a general assault along the whole line. At half-past four, or a little later, the signal for the advance was given, and then opened one of the most sanguinary battles of the war. It was begun on the right by the divisions of Barlow and Gibbon, of Hancock's corps, supported by Birney's. Barlow drove the Confederates from a strong position in front of their works, and captured several hundred men and three guns, when the Confederates rallied and retook the position. There was a severe struggle, and in the assaults Hancock lost three thousand men. The other divisions of the army were hotly engaged at the same time. The battle was "sharp, quick, and decisive." The Nationals were repulsed at nearly every point with great slaughter. It was estimated that within the space of twenty minutes after the struggle began ten thousand Union soldiers lay dead or wounded on the field, while the Confederates, sheltered by their works, had not lost more than one thousand. Every soldier among the Nationals now felt that further attempts to force the Confederate lines would be useless. There was marvellous unanimity of sentiment on this point, for when, a few hours later, Meade sent orders to each corps commander to again attack without regard to the movements of other corps, the whole army, as if controlled by a single will, refused to stir. And so, at one o'clock P.M., the battle of Cool Arbor ended. The Nationals had a fearful loss of life, but firmly held their position, with all their munitions of war. Their loss in this engagement, and in the immediate vicinity of Cool Arbor, was reported at 13,153, of whom 1705 were killed and 2406 were missing. Immediately after the battle Sheridan was sent to destroy the railways in Lee's rear, and so make Washington more secure. This task he effectually performed, fighting much of the time.

Cooper, JAMES FENIMORE, novelist, was born at Burlington, N. J., Sept. 15, 1789; died at Cooperstown, N. Y., Sept. 14, 1851. He studied at Yale College, but did not graduate. He was six years in the naval service, and in 1811 he married Miss De Lancey, of Westchester County, N. Y. Choosing literature as a profession, he took the path of romance, and wrote and published in the course of his life thirty-two volumes of fiction, the most famous of which were his *Leather-stocking Tales.* He wrote a *History of the United States Navy*, in two volumes; *Lives of American Naval Officers*; *Battle of Lake Erie;*

Gleanings in Europe; Sketches of Switzerland; and a comedy.

JAMES FENIMORE COOPER.

Cooper, Miles, LL.D., was born in England in 1735; died in Edinburgh, May 1, 1785. He graduated at Oxford University in 1761, and came to America the next year, sent by Archbishop Secker as an assistant to Dr. Samuel Johnson, President of King's (now Columbia) College. He succeeded Johnson as president in 1763. He was an active Tory when the Revolution broke out, and was reputed one of the authors, if not the author, of a tract entitled, *A Friendly Address to all Reasonable Americans.* Alexander Hamilton was then a pupil in the college, seventeen years of age, and he answered the pamphlet with great ability. Cooper became very obnoxious to the Whigs, and a public letter, signed "Three Millions," warned him and his friends that their lives were in danger. On the night of May 10 a mob, led by "Sons of Liberty" (which see), after destroying or carrying away guns on the Battery, proceeded to drive him from the college. He succeeded in escaping to a British vessel, and sailed to England. He commemorated this stirring event by a poem printed in the *Gentleman's Magazine* in 1776.

Cooper, Peter, was born in New York city, Feb. 12, 1791. His life has been one of remarkable activity and enterprise. First, after leaving his father, who was a hatter, he engaged in learning coach-making, then cabinet-making, then in the grocery business, and finally, about 1828, he was in the manufacture of glue and isinglass. In 1830 he engaged quite extensively in iron-works at Canton, near Baltimore, and there he manufactured the first locomotive engine ever made in America, which worked successfully on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad. Then he erected a rolling-mill and iron-mill in the city of New York, in which he first successfully used anthracite coal in puddling iron. In 1845 he removed the machinery to Trenton, N.J., where he erected the largest rolling-mill then in the United States for manufacturing railroad iron. There were rolled the first wrought-iron beams for fire-proof buildings. He became an alderman in the city of New York about 1840. Prospering greatly in business, nearly a quarter of a century ago Mr. Cooper conceived the idea of establishing in New York a free institute, something after the Polytechnic Institute in Paris. He erected a building, and endowed art-schools and other means for fitting young men and young women of the working-classes for business, at a cost of between $600,000 and $700,000, and presented the "Cooper Institute" to the city in 1858. In the spring of 1854 he was one of five gentlemen who met in the house of Cyrus W. Field and formed the "New York, Newfoundland, and London Telegraph Company" (see *Atlantic Telegraph*), and the first cable was laid partly under Mr. Cooper's supervision. He did everything in his power to aid the Union cause in the late Civil War. An outspoken advocate of paper currency to be issued by the nation (see *Greenbacks*), he was urged to become a candidate for the Presidency by friends of that financial system. He refused at first, but finally consented, though without any idea of being elected. In the campaign that followed he expended more than $25,000 in aid of the cause. Since then he has taken no part in politics.

PETER COOPER.

Copley, John Singleton, artist, was born in Boston, July 3, 1737; died in London, Sept. 9, 1813. He was a self-taught artist. He had become an eminent portrait-painter, when in 1774 he went to Rome, and late in 1775 went from there to London, with the intention of settling in that city, where he was joined by his wife and children from his native country. There he devoted himself to portrait-painting, was introduced to West, and his name became so famous as an historical painter that the honorable addition of R.A. was given to it in 1783. His "Death of the Earl of Chatham" was his first historical painting of much pretension, and gave him great fame in England. It was followed by others which increased his reputation; and he left unfinished a picture on the subject of Nelson's death at Trafalgar. His last painting was a portrait of his son, Lord Lyndhurst. His wife was daughter of Richard Clarke, a loyalist of Boston, and one of the consignees of the tea that was destroyed there; and the willingness of his family to leave America on account of political changes, doubtless formed a powerful cause why

Copley determined to make England his permanent home.

Copper-Mines. There are evidences that copper-mines were worked in our country by the Mound-builders (which see). The first copper-mines worked in the United States were chiefly in New Jersey and Connecticut. From 1709 until the middle of the last century, a mine at Simsbury, Conn., yielded much ore, when, for about sixty years, the mine was a state prison. The Lake Superior copper-mines (the most considerable in our country) were first worked, in modern times, in 1845, when traces of ancient mining were found near the Octonagon River. In making excavations, a mass of copper, supported upon blocks of wood, with charred wood under it, was found twenty feet below the surface. When taken out, in 1848, it weighed eight tons. The Jesuit missionaries had noticed copper ore in that region so early as the middle of the seventeenth century, and the Indians reverenced as sacred large pieces of the ore. One mine (the Calumet and Hecla) yielded in 1872 the enormous amount of eight thousand tons of pure copper, or almost one tenth of the entire product of the globe at that time.

Copperheads. A nickname given to a political faction in the free-labor states during the American Civil War, which was generally considered to be in secret sympathy with the enemies of the Republic, and gave them aid and comfort by trying to thwart the measures of the national government. The name is derived from a poisonous serpent called Copperhead, whose bite is as deadly as that of the rattlesnake, but, unlike the latter, gives no warning of its intended attack, and is therefore typical of a concealed foe.

Copyright Law, The. On April 5, 1789, Dr. David Ramsay, of South Carolina, sent a petition to Congress, setting forth that he was the author of two books—a *History of South Carolina* and a *History of the American Revolution*—and praying that body to pass a law giving him and his legal successors the exclusive right to vend and dispose of those works in the United States for a term of years. A general bill to that effect was passed in 1790; and afterwards other bills were passed, incorporating with the copyright bill another for securing patents for mechanical inventions. The term of a copyright was then fixed at fourteen years for books already published, and the same term for unpublished books, with the privilege of a renewal for fourteen years longer. In 1831 a general copyright law was passed, granting copyright for twenty-eight years, and providing for a renewal for fourteen years. In 1856 a law was passed giving to the authors of dramatic compositions the exclusive right of publicly representing them, or causing them to be represented. In 1870 all copyright statutes were repealed by a general copyright law yet (1880) in force, which permits any citizen or resident of the United States who shall be the "author, inventor, designer, or proprietor of any book, map, chart, dramatic or musical composition, engraving, cut, print, or photograph or negative thereof, or a painting, drawing, chromo, statue or statuary, and of models and designs intended to be perfected as works of the fine arts, to secure a copyright thereof for twenty-eight years, with the privilege of a renewal for himself, his widow, or children, for fourteen years more." Copyright certificates are issued solely by the Librarian of Congress. A copy of the title of a book, or description of a picture, must be deposited with him before the publication thereof; and two copies of a book or picture (the latter by photograph) must be sent to such librarian within ten days after publication. A copy of every new edition must be sent to the librarian. A failure to comply with these conditions is punishable by a fine of $25.

Coquetting with the British. In July, 1780, the mysterious movements of Governor Chittenden, Ethan and Ira Allen, and other leaders in Vermont, excited grave suspicions of their loyalty, because of their secret correspondence with the British. In June the Congress had appointed a committee to visit Vermont, and had declared their disapprobation of the proceedings of the people of that state in setting up an independent government before a decision of Congress should be made concerning their right to separate. The governor of New York suspected a combination against his state, and intimated, in a letter to a member of Congress, that New York might be compelled to use all her resources for the defence of that state. He also called the attention of Washington to the subject; and he especially condemned the conduct of Ethan Allen, whose motives he suspected. General Schuyler, who had been ordered by Washington to arrest Allen, wrote to Governor Clinton at the close of October, saying, "The conduct of some of the people to the eastward is alarmingly mysterious. A flag, under pretext of settling a cartel with Vermont, has been on the Grants. Allen has disbanded his militia, and the enemy, in number upwards of sixteen hundred, are rapidly advancing towards us. . . . Entreat General Washington for more Continental troops; and let me beg of your excellency to hasten up here." There was general alarm concerning the perplexing movements of the Vermonters, which, in the light of subsequent history, was only a piece of coquetry for their benefit. The shrewd diplomats of Vermont were working for a twofold object: namely, to keep back the British from a threatened invasion by a show of friendly feeling, and to so alarm the Congress as to induce them to admit Vermont as a state of the Union. (See *Vermont a Sovereign State.*)

Corcoran, Michael, was born in Sligo, Ireland, Sept. 21, 1827; died near Fairfax Courthouse Dec. 22, 1863. He came to America in 1849, and first came into notice as colonel of the Sixty-ninth New York Regiment, when the President called for troops, in 1861. He hastened with his regiment to Washington, and was distinguished for gallantry in the battle of Bull's Run, where he was wounded and made prisoner, suffering confinement in Richmond, Charleston, Columbia, and Salisbury, while kept for execution, in case the national government put to death the crews of Confederate privateers as pirates. (See *Savannah.*) He was exchanged, and made brigadier-general in 1862. He raised an "Irish Legion," served in Lower Virginia and Upper North Carolina, and checked the advance of the Confederates on Norfolk. He died of injuries received from a fall from his horse.

Cordova, FRANCIS FERNANDEZ, discoverer of Yucatan, a part of Mexico, in 1517. He sailed from Havana, Cuba, accompanied by one hundred men. In a battle with the natives, forty-seven of his men were killed, and he was wounded in twelve places. Hastening back to Cuba, he soon afterwards died of his wounds.

Corees, a small tribe of Algonquins on the coast of upper North Carolina. These and the Cheraws and other smaller tribes occupied lands once owned by the powerful Hatteras tribe. They were allies of the Tuscaroras in an attack upon the English in 1711, and were defeated; and they have since disappeared from the face of the earth, and their dialect has been forgotten.

Corinth, BATTLE OF (1862). At Ripley, Miss., the troops of Price and Van Dorn were concentrated, forty thousand strong, after the battle at Iuka (which see), and at the close of September they moved on Corinth. They bivouacked within ten miles of Corinth on the night of Oct. 2. On the morning of the 3d Rosecrans was prepared to meet an attack. Hamilton's division formed his right, Davies' his centre, and McKean's his left, on the front of Corinth. A brigade, under Colonel Oliver, with a section of artillery, was then formed, while the cavalry watched every approach. Early in the morning (Oct. 3, 1862) the Confederate advance, under Colonel Lovell, encountered Oliver. The latter being hard pressed, General McArthur was sent to his support, but both were pushed back. To these both McKean and Davies sent help. Very soon afterwards the Confederates made a desperate charge, drove the Nationals, and captured two guns. The Confederates had resolved to capture Corinth, with its immense stores. They now pressed heavily on the National centre. Davies was pushed back, when Stanley sent Colonel Mower with a brigade to his assistance; and Hamilton was pressing through a thick mire on Lovell's left, when darkness fell, and the struggle ceased. The Confederates enveloped Rosecrans's front, and rested on their arms. Van Dorn believed he would have possession of Corinth before sunrise. He had sent a shout of triumph to Richmond by telegraph. The battle was resumed before the dawn. Both parties had prepared for it. The National batteries around Corinth were well-manned, and a new one, mounting five guns, had been constructed during the night. After a considerable cannonading, the Confederates, in heavy force, came out at a little past nine o'clock, advanced rapidly, and fell violently, in wedge-form, upon Davies, intending to break his line and rush into Corinth. The struggle was very severe. Grape and canister shot made fearful lanes through the Confederate ranks, yet they pressed on. Davies' forces gave way, but soon rallied. The Confederates captured Fort Powell on Davies' right, and full twenty men penetrated Corinth to the headquarters of Rosecrans, on the public square, which they captured. But the victorious Confederate column was soon pushed back, and Fort Powell was retaken by the Fifty-sixth Illinois. At the same time Hamilton's guns were making fearful havoc in the Confederate ranks. The latter soon fled to the woods. Meanwhile Lovell had fallen upon Fort Robinett and the adjacent lines, and a terrible battle ensued. The fort was stormed by a strong Confederate force, led by Colonel Rogers, of Texas. Within lay prone Colonel Fuller's Ohio brigade, who, aroused, delivered such a murderous fire that the assailants recoiled. In a moment they rallied, and again charged. The Eleventh Missouri and Twenty-seventh Ohio poured a terrific storm of bullets upon them, and at the command "Charge!" the Nationals swarmed over the parapet, and sent the assailants flying in confusion to the forest. By noon the battle at Corinth was ended, and the whole Confederate force was retreating southward, vigorously pursued. (See *Hatchee, Battle of the.*) The National loss in the battle at Corinth and in the pursuit was 2363, of whom 315 were killed. Of the Confederate loss there is no positive record. One of their historians (Pollard) admits a loss of 4500, and Rosecrans estimated it at 9363, of whom 1423 were killed and 2248 made prisoners. The Confederates had 38,000 men in the battle; the Nationals less than 20,000.

Corinth, EVACUATION OF. General Halleck arrived on the battle-ground of Shiloh (which see) from his headquarters at St. Louis on April 12, 1862, and, being Grant's superior in rank, took command of the National troops. Grant was preparing to pursue and strike Beauregard while his shattered army was weak; but Halleck restrained Grant, and twenty days after the victory he began a march against Beauregard at Corinth. On May 3d his advance, under General Sherman, was within six or seven miles of Beauregard's lines. His forces had been reorganized, with the title of the Grand Army of the Tennessee, and Grant was made his second in command. His whole force, approaching Corinth with great caution, numbered, with the accession of Buell's army, about one hundred and eight thousand men. Beauregard had been reinforced, by Van Dorn and Price, with Missouri and Arkansas troops, and by the command of General Mansfield Lovell, who had come up from New Orleans. For twenty-seven days the National troops were busy piling up fortifications in the approaches to Corinth, interrupted by frequent sorties from that town. Then the Confederates were driven from their advanced works (May 29), and Halleck prepared for a sanguinary conflict the next day. Although much strengthened, Beauregard was unwilling to risk a battle with the Grand Army of the Tennessee. All the night of May 29 the National sentinels had heard, unreported, the incessant roar of moving railway-cars at Corinth; and at daybreak, just as Halleck sent out skirmishers to "feel the enemy," the earth was shaken with a series of explosions, and dense columns of smoke arose above the town. There was no enemy to "feel;" Beauregard had evacuated Corinth during the night, burned and blown up whatever of stores he could not carry away, and fled in haste to Tupelo, many miles southward from Corinth, where he left General Bragg in command of the Confederate forces (now called the Army of the Mississippi), and repaired to Mineral Springs, in Alabama, for the restoration of his impaired health. Halleck took possession of Corinth, and was soon afterwards called to Washington, to perform the duties of general-in-chief of all the armies of the Republic. He left General Thomas in command at Corinth, and General Grant, of his old army, with enlarged powers.

Corn a Legal Tender. On Oct. 13, 1631, Indian corn was made, by act of the Court of Assistants (which see), a legal tender in payment of all debts in the Colony of Massachusetts Bay, at the usual rates for which it was sold, unless money or beaver was expressly named in the contract. At that time corn was worth $2.20 a "strike" (four bushels), and beaver $1.32 a pound. A milch cow was then valued at from $125 to $150.

Cornbury, Lord (Edward Hyde), misgoverned New York and New Jersey a few years, and died in London, April 1, 1723. He came to the province as governor in 1702, when he was Sir Edward Hyde, grandson of the first Earl of Clarendon, and nephew, by marriage, of James II. He was one of the officers of that monarch's household, and was the first to desert him and go over to the Prince of Orange, who became William III. of England. Grateful for this act, William made him governor of the united provinces of New York and New Jersey. He was cordially and generously received. The Assembly, which was largely "Leislerian" in its political composition (see *Bellomont*), and claimed Hyde as a friend, voted him a double salary, a disbursement of the expenses of his voyage, and a reversion of seven years. A public dinner was given him, and the freedom of the city in a gold box. His suite, the soldiers of the garrison, and all citizens unable to purchase their freedom, were made freemen, with rights of suffrage, trade, and of holding office. This generous reception was illy requited. In debt when he came, and rapacious and bigoted, he plundered the public treasury, involved himself in private debts, and opposed every effort on the part of the representatives of the people for the security of their rights and the growth of free institutions. When the yellow fever appeared in New York, in 1703, he retired to Jamaica, L. I., and the best house in the place happening to belong to the Presbyterian minister, he requested to have it vacated for his accommodation. Instead of returning it to the owner, he made it over to the Episcopal party. His conduct as ruler of New Jersey was equally reprehensible, where there were three religious factions—Quakers, Episcopalians, and Presbyterians and Congregationalists—to either of which the governor seemed willing to sell himself. The Assembly adopted a pungent address, which was read to Cornbury by the speaker, in which he was directly accused, among other things, of being an extortioner and "the merchandise of faction." Finally, such representations went from both provinces to the Board of Trade that Queen Anné removed him (1708), though he was her cousin. Then his creditors threw him into prison, from which he was released by accession to the peerage on the death of his father, when he returned to England and became Earl of Clarendon. His official course here was distinguished for intolerance, licentiousness, dishonesty, and misrule.

Cornell, Ezra, founder of the Cornell University, gave for the establishment of that institution $500,000. He subsequently gave more than two hundred acres of land, with buildings, as a site for the university and as a farm for the use of the institution. He also gave, besides, various donations to the amount of nearly $120,000. (See *University, Cornell.*) Mr. Cornell died at Ithaca, Dec. 9, 1874.

Corner-stone of the Confederacy. Alexander H. Stephens, who was made Vice-President of the Southern Confederacy (February, 1861), assumed the character of expounder of the structure and principles of the new government. He made the occasion of a speech to the citizens of Savannah (March 21, 1861) the opportunity for giving such exposition to the world. He declared that the immediate cause of the existing trouble was African slavery in the United States. He believed Jefferson and his compeers, in the Revolutionary era, did not understand the true moral status of slavery. "Most of the leaders, at the time of the formation of the old Constitution," he said, "entertained the erroneous idea that 'the enslavement of the African was in violation of the laws of nature; that it was wrong in principle, socially, morally, and politically;' that they erroneously believed that, 'in the order of Providence, the institution would be evanescent, and pass away.' This was the idea of the fathers, who rested upon the false assumption put forth in the Declaration of Independence, that 'all men are created equal.' Our new government," said Stephens, "is founded upon exactly the opposite idea; its foundations are laid, its corner-stone rests, upon the great truth that the negro is not equal to the white man; that slavery-subordination to the superior race is his natural and normal condition. This, our new government, is the first in the history of the world based upon this great physical and moral truth. This truth has been slow in the process of development. It has been so even among us. Many who hear me, perhaps, can recollect well that this truth was not generally admitted even within their day. The errors of the past generation still clung to many as late as twenty years ago. . . . It is upon this truth, as I have stated, our actual fabric is firmly planted; and I cannot permit myself to doubt the ultimate success of a full recognition of this principle throughout the civilized world."

Cornplanter, THE, an eminent Seneca chief, was born at Conewango, on the Genesee River; died at the Seneca Reservation, Penn., Feb. 17, 1836, aged about one hundred years. He was a half-breed, the son of an Indian trader named John O'Bail. He led Indian allies with the French against the English; was in the battle of Monongahela (which see); and, joining the British in the war of the Revolution, led destroyers of the settlements in New York and northern Pennsylvania. An inveterate foe of the Americans during the war, he was their firm friend afterwards. He was an earnest promoter of temperance among his people. In his later years he cultivated a farm on the Alleghany River.

Cornwall County. Andros, governor of New York in 1674, succeeded in establishing Dutch rule over the country between the Penobscot and the Kennebec. He built a fort there, and a few Dutch settlers established themselves on the coast. He named the district Cornwall County, as a part of the domain of New York.

Cornwallis abandons the South. After the battle at Guilford (which see), in which Cornwallis's army was terribly shattered, he hastened for the borders of the sea. At Wilmington, N. C., he was met by a party from Charleston, sent by his orders. He dared not attempt to move back into South Carolina, for the patriots there were fully aroused, and Greene was keenly watching his movements in North Carolina. So he resolved to abandon the Carolinas and penetrate into Virginia, at the same time writing to Germaine, who had given him his entire confidence, "I cannot help expressing my wish that the Chesapeake may become the seat of war, even, if necessary, at the expense of abandoning New York." Without waiting for an answer, he left Wilmington for Virginia, late in April, with 1435 men. In the vicinity of the Chesapeake the army of Cornwallis became prisoners of war. (See *Cornwallis, Surrender of.*)

Cornwallis at Yorktown. A few days after he reached Williamsburg, Cornwallis received an order from Sir Henry Clinton to send three thousand of his troops to New York, then menaced by the allied (Americans and French) armies. (See *Rochambeau on the Hudson.*) Clinton also directed the earl to take a defensive position in Virginia. Satisfied that after he should send away so large a part of his army he could not cope with Lafayette and his associates, Cornwallis determined to cross the James River and make his way to Portsmouth. This movement was hastened by the boldness of the republican troops, who were pressing close upon him, showing much strength and great activity. On July 6 a detachment sent out by Wayne to capture a British field-piece boldly resisted a large portion of Cornwallis's army, as the former fell back to Lafayette's main army near the Greene Spring Plantation (see *Berkeley, William*), where a sharp skirmish occurred, in which the marquis had a horse shot under him and each party lost about one hundred men. Cornwallis then hastened across the James (July 9) and marched to Portsmouth. Disliking that situation, the earl proceeded to Yorktown, on the York River, and on a high and healthful plain he established a fortified camp. At Gloucester Point, on the opposite side of the river, he cast up strong military works.

Cornwallis, CHARLES, earl and marquis, was born Dec. 31, 1738; died at Ghazipoor, India, Oct. 5, 1805. He was educated at Eton and Cambridge, and entered the army as captain when twenty years of age. In the House of Lords he opposed the measures that caused the war with the Americans; yet he accepted the commission of major-general and the command of an expedition against the Carolinas under Sir Peter Parker in 1776. He commanded the reserves of the British in the battle on Long Island (which see) in August; was outgeneralled by Washington at Princeton (which see); was with Howe on the Brandywine and in the capture of Philadelphia, when he returned to England, but soon came back; was at the capture of Charleston (which see) in May, 1780; was commander of the British troops in the Carolinas that year; defeated Gates near Camden in August; fought Greene at Guilford Court-house early in 1781; invaded Virginia, and finally took post at and fortified Yorktown, on the York River, and there surrendered his army to the American and French forces in October, 1781. (See *Cornwallis, Surrender of.*) He was appointed governor-general and commander-in-chief in India in 1786; and was victorious in war there in 1791–92, compelling Tippoo Saib to cede, as the price of peace, half his dominions to the British crown. He returned to England in

CHARLES CORNWALLIS. (From an English Print.)

1793; was created a marquis; and appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland in 1798. He negotiated the Treaty of Amiens in 1802, and was governor-general of India in 1805.

Cornwallis Deceived. The success of Cornwallis in awing the inhabitants of South Carolina into passive obedience gained him hosts of admirers and flatterers. Secretary Germaine was delighted with his prowess, and Governor Martin, of North Carolina, flattered him with promises that his presence there would produce abject submission everywhere in the state. He accepted the suggestions of Martin and Tarleton that severity, so freely used in South Carolina, was the true method to be employed. He therefore, when he was about to march into North Carolina to crush out republicanism there, issued orders that every militia-man who had borne arms with the British, even under compulsion, and had afterwards joined the Americans, should be instantly hanged. He set up a gallows at Camden for the indiscriminate execution of those among his prisoners who had formerly given their parole, even if it had been faithfully kept until it was cancelled by the proclamation of Clinton. Under these and other cruel orders the destruction of life and property became fearful. With the mistaken idea that this was the best method to put down the rebellion, and with the assurance that loyalty was the rule among the people of North Carolina, Cornwallis penetrated that state, but to soon discover that he had been egregiously deceived. His ruthless administration and bad faith towards the paroled prisoners at Charleston (see *Gadsden, Christopher*) were approved by Germaine in hearty terms.

Cornwallis, Effect of the Surrender of, in England. News of the surrender, which reached England, by way of France, Nov. 25, 1781, gave a stunning blow to the British ministry and the Tory party in Great Britain. It was clearly perceived that final disseverance of the colonies from the mother country was inevitable; that war could no longer serve a useful purpose; and that humanity and sound policy counselled peace. The king and his ministers were astounded. "Lord North received the intelligence," said Lord George Germaine, "as he would have taken a cannon-ball in his breast; for he opened his arms, exclaiming wildly as he paced up and down the apartment a few minutes, 'O God! it is all over.'" In deepest consternation, he repeated these words many times. The stubborn king was amazed and struck dumb for a few minutes; then, recovering his equanimity, he wrote, in view of a proposition in the Parliament to give up the contest and allow the independence of the colonies, "No difficulties can get me to consent to the getting of peace at the expense of a separation from America." The city of London petitioned the king to "put an end to the unnatural and unfortunate war;" and in Parliament a great change in sentiment was immediately visible. Late in February, General Conway moved an address to the king in favor of peace. A warm debate ensued. Lord North defended the royal policy, because it maintained British rights and was just. "Good God!" exclaimed Burke, "are we yet to be told of the rights for which we went to war? O excellent rights! O valuable rights! Valuable you should be, for we have paid dear in parting with you. O valuable rights! that have cost Britain thirteen provinces, four islands, one hundred thousand men, and more than £70,000,000 ($350,000,000) of money." At the beginning of March Conway's proposition was adopted. Lord North, who, under the inspiration of the king, had misled the nation for twelve years, was relieved from office, and he and his fellow-ministers were succeeded by friends of peace. The king stormed, but was compelled to yield. Parliament resolved to end the war, and the king acquiesced with reluctance. Early in May (1782) Sir Guy Carleton arrived in New York, bearing propositions to Congress for reconciliation, and Richard Oswald, a London merchant, was sent to Paris as a diplomatic agent to confer with Franklin on the subject of a treaty of peace.

Cornwallis, First Military Movement of, in America. Sir Henry Clinton waited long on the Cape Fear River for the arrival of Sir Peter Parker's fleet with Cornwallis and a reinforcement of troops. They came early in May (1776), and soon prepared to make an attack on Charleston. Clinton received, by the fleet, instructions from his king to issue a proclamation of pardon to "all but principal instigators and abettors of the rebellion, to dissolve the provincial congresses and committees of safety, to restore the administration of justice, and to arrest the persons and destroy the property of all who should refuse to give satisfactory tests of their obedience." He was expressly ordered to "seize the persons and destroy the property of persistent rebels whenever it could be done with effect." When the British forces were about to leave the North Carolina coast, Clinton sent Lord Cornwallis, at the instigation of Governor Martin, to burn the house of Hooper, a delegate in the Continental Congress, and to burn and ravage the plantation of General Robert Howe. Cornwallis landed in Brunswick County with about nine hundred men, and proceeded to his assigned work. In this ignoble expedition—his first in America—he lost two men killed and one taken prisoner. Clinton, in a proclamation (May 5), invited the people to "appease the vengeance of an incensed nation" by submission, and offered pardon to all, excepting General Howe and Cornelius Harnett.

Cornwallis in New Jersey. Howe sent Cornwallis (November, 1777) with a strong body of troops, by way of Chester, to Billingsport to clear the New Jersey banks of the Delaware. Washington immediately sent General Greene with a division across the river to oppose the movement. Cornwallis was reinforced by five British battalions from New York, while expected reinforcements from the northern army were still delayed through the bad conduct of General Gates. The consequence was the forced abandonment of Fort Mercer, at Red Bank (which see) and the levelling of its ramparts by the British troops. The leaders of both armies recrossed the Delaware, Cornwallis to Philadelphia and Greene to the camp of Washington.

Cornwallis in South Carolina. Lord Cornwallis was left in chief command of about four thousand troops when, in the summer of 1780, Sir Henry Clinton departed for New York. The earl, for the purpose of rooting out all signs of rebellion, sought, by cruel acts, to completely subdue the people through fear. He issued proclamations and instructions which encouraged hostility towards every patriot; and under these instructions his agents and the Tories committed many crimes. Tarleton and his legion spread terror in many districts. A quartermaster of his command entered the house of Samuel Wyley, near Camden, and cut him in pieces with his sword, because he had served as a volunteer in defence of Charleston. Because the Presbyterians generally supported the American cause, they were specially singled out for persecution. Huck, a captain of the British militia, burned the library and dwelling of a Presbyterian clergyman in the upper part of South Carolina; and also burned every Bible in which the Scottish translation of the Psalms was found. Prisoners who had been paroled at Charleston were subjects of perpetual persecution under the immediate observation of Cornwallis, unless they would exchange their paroles for oaths of allegiance. An active officer was deputed to visit every district in the state, and procure, on the spot, lists of its militia. Any Carolinian thereafter taken in arms might be sentenced to death for desertion and "bearing arms against his country." Cornwallis never regarded a deserter, or any whom a court-martial sentenced to death, as an object of mercy. His lieutenant, Lord Rawdon, was particularly hard on deserters from his Irish regiment. "I will give the inhabitants," he proclaimed, "ten guineas for the head of any deserter belonging to the volunteers of Ireland, and five guineas only if they bring him in alive." To punish Sumter, who had commanded a Continental regiment, a British detachment turned his wife out of doors and burned his dwelling-house. These proceedings, and others equally atrocious, were approved by Cornwallis, who tried to crush out every vestige of independence in the state by requiring every able-bodied man to join the British army and take an active part in the re-establishment of royal rule. All who refused were treated as "rebels." Then, under instructions from Minister Germaine, he determined to establish a system of terrorism that should wipe out every semblance of revolt in that state. He put military despotism in the place of civil law. He ordered all militia-men who had served in loyalist corps and were afterwards found in arms against the king to be hanged without mercy; and in this way many perished. He gave Tory leaders full license to execute these orders, and instantly murders and plunderings and the scourge of the torch everywhere prevailed. Property was wantonly destroyed by fire and violence; the chastity of women was set at naught; and Whigs, both men and women, cultivated and tenderly reared, were treated by the ravenous Tory wolves as legitimate prey to their worst passions. These measures created revolt and a thirst for vengeance, and when the partisan leaders appeared they instantly found hundreds of followers. Cornwallis soon found South Carolina too hot for him, and he was driven through North Carolina into Virginia.

Cornwallis Leaves the Carolinas. After the battle at Guilford Court-house (which see), Cornwallis marched towards the seaboard, satisfied that he could no longer hold the Carolinas. He arrived at Wilmington April 7, 1781, then garrisoned by a small force under Major Craig, where he remained long enough to rest and recruit his shattered army. Apprised of Greene's march on Camden, and hoping to draw him away from Lord Rawdon, the earl marched into Virginia and joined the forces of Phillips and Arnold at Petersburg. So ended British rule in the Carolinas forever. He left Wilmington April 25, crossed the Roanoke at Halifax, and reached Petersburg May 20. Four days afterwards he entered upon his destructive career in that state. (See *Virginia, Invasion of.*)

Cornwallis, SURRENDER OF, AT YORKTOWN. Finding escape impossible, and further resistance futile, Cornwallis sent a flag to Washington, with a request that hostilities should be suspended for twenty-four hours, and that commissioners should be appointed on both sides to meet at Mrs. Moore's house, on the right of the American lines, to arrange terms for the surrender of the post and the British army. Commissioners were accordingly appointed, the Americans being Colonel John Laurens and Viscount de Noailles (a kinsman of Lafayette), and the British Lieutenant-colonel Dundas and Major Ross. The terms agreed upon were honorable to both parties, and were signed on the 19th of October, 1781. They provided for the surrender of Cornwallis as a prisoner of war, with all his troops, and all public property as spoils of vic-

MRS. MOORE'S HOUSE.

SURRENDER OF BRITISH STANDARDS AT YORKTOWN.

tory. All slaves and plunder found in possession of the British might be reclaimed by their owners; otherwise private property was to be respected. The loyalists were abandoned to the mercy or resentment of their countrymen. Such were the general terms; but Cornwallis was allowed to send away persons most obnoxious to the Whigs in the vessel that carried despatches to Clinton. Late in the afternoon, Oct. 19, the surrender of the British troops took place. Washington and Rochambeau were at the head of their respective troops, on horseback. The field of surrender was about half a mile from the British lines. A vast multitude of people, equal in numbers to the troops to be humiliated, was present at the impressive ceremony. Cornwallis, it was said, feigned sickness, and did not appear, but sent his sword by General O'Hara to act as his representative. That officer led the vanquished troops out of their intrenchments, with their colors cased, and marched them between the two columns of the allied forces. When he arrived at their head he approached Washington to hand him the earl's sword, when the commander-in-chief directed him to General Lincoln as his representative. It was a proud moment for Lincoln, who, the previous year, had been compelled to make a humiliating surrender to the royal troops at Charleston. He led the vanquished army to the place chosen for the surrender of their arms, and then received from O'Hara the sword of Cornwallis, which was politely returned to him to be restored to the earl. The surrender of the colors of the vanquished army, twenty-eight in number, now took place. Twenty-eight British captains, each bearing a flag in a case, were drawn up in line. Opposite to them, at a distance of six paces, twenty-eight American sergeants were placed in line to receive the colors. The interesting ceremony was conducted by an ensign (Robert Wilson), then only eighteen years of age. The troops then laid down their arms. The whole number surrendered was about 7000. To these must be added 2000 sailors, 1800 negroes, and 1500 Tories, making the total number of prisoners 12,000. The British lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, during the siege 550 men. The Americans lost about 300. The spoils were nearly 8000 muskets, 75 brass and 160 iron cannons, and a large quantity of munitions of war and military stores. The French furnished for gaining this victory 37 ships of the line and 7000 men. The Americans furnished 9000 troops, of which number 5500 were regulars. On the day after the surrender Washington, in general orders, expressed full approbation of the conduct of the allied armies; and, that every soldier might participate in the general joy and thanksgiving, he ordered every one under arrest or in confinement to be set at liberty; and, as the following day would be the Sabbath, he closed his orders by directing divine service to be performed in the several brigades on the morrow.

Cornwallis's Complaints Answered. When Greene was at Charlotte, on his way to take command of the Southern army, he received from Cornwallis a complaint of cruelty on the part of the Americans in hanging ten Tories on a tree after the battle of King's Mountain (which see), and accompanied the complaint with a threat of retaliation. Greene answered the earl by sending him a list of about fifty patriots who had been hanged by Cornwallis himself and by others high in the British service, and called on mankind to sit in judgment on the savage order of the earl to Balfour after the action near Camden, on Lord Rawdon's proclamation, and on the murderous raids of Tarleton. He showed that no American officer in his department ever imitated the cruelties systematically practised by the British. Sumter and Marion always spared prisoners, although they found the worst of enemies among them in the persons of Tories. Those hanged at King's Mountain were among the worst murderers in that region.

Coronado, FRANCIS VASQUEZ DE, set out in 1540, by command of Mendoza, Viceroy of Mexico, from Culiacan, on the southeast coast of the Gulf of California, with 350 Spaniards and 800 Indians, to explore the country northward. He followed the coast nearly to the head of the gulf, and then penetrated to the Gila, in the present Arizona Territory. Following that stream to its head-waters, they crossed the great hills eastward, to the upper waters of the Rio Grande del Norte, which he followed to their sources. Then crossing the Rocky Mountains, he traversed the great desert northeastwardly to the present states of Colorado or Kansas, under latitude 40° north. In all that vast region he found little to tempt or reward a conquest—rugged mountains and plains and a few Indian villages in some of the valleys. At the same time Francisco Alarçon was sent to trace the Pacific coast in search of an imagined gulf or strait ("Strait of America") leading to the Atlantic. He penetrated to latitude 36° north, in the present California. The failure of this expedition caused another, under Rodriguez de Cabrillo. (See *Cabrillo.*)

Coronation of Powhatan. In 1608 Captain Newport came to Virginia with presents for the Emperor Powhatan. Among these was a basin, a ewer, some clothes, and a crown for the dusky monarch, with orders for him to be crowned. Captain Smith was then president of the colony, and he, as special ambassador of the King of England, summoned the emperor to Jamestown to undergo the ceremony of coronation. Powhatan, with dignity, refused to go, saying "I also am a king; and if the King of England has sent me gifts, they should be brought to me; I shall not go to receive them." Newport went to Powhatan with the gifts. They were accepted; but no persuasions could induce the barbarian monarch to kneel to receive the crown. Only by two Englishmen bearing down heavily upon his shoulders could he be brought to a position that might be considered as kneeling; and so he had the crown placed upon his head. The act finished, a pistol was fired, and was followed by a volley from the boats in the York River. Powhatan was startled by a fear of treachery, but when assured that all was right, he accepted this acknowledgment of his royal state, and gave a slight present to be conveyed to his brother the King of England.

Cortereal, GASPER, a Portuguese navigator, was born in Lisbon, and died in 1501. He was in the service of the King of Portugal when, in 1500, he left the mouth of the Tagus with two ships well equipped at his own cost and proceeded to make discoveries in the Northwest. Cortereal was a gentleman of enterprising and determined character, who had been reared in the household of the Portuguese monarch and had an ardent thirst for glory. He first touched, it is believed, the northern shores of Newfoundland, discovered the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and sailed along the coast of the American continent to latitude 60°, and named the neighboring coast Labrador. Cabot had visited that coast two years before (see *Cabot*) but did not land; Cortereal landed in several places, and gave purely Portuguese names to localities. The natives appearing to him rugged and strong and capital material for slaves, he seized fifty of them, and, carrying them to Portugal, made a profitable sale of his captives. The profits of this voyage excited the cupidity of Cortereal and his king (Emanuel the Great), and they prepared to carry on an active slave-trade with Labrador. Cortereal went on a second voyage in 1501, but was supposed to have been lost at sea; and his brother Michael, who went in search of him, was never heard of afterwards. An expedition sent by the king in 1503 found no trace of him. The commander of one of the vessels seized fifty-seven natives as slaves, but most of them were lost in the ships. The king declared that Cortereal was the first discoverer of the American continent, and he caused a map to be published in 1508, in which the coast of Labrador is called Terra Corterealis, or Cortereal's Land.

Cortez and Narvaez. Velasquez, Governor of Cuba, sent Pamphila de Narvaez against Cortez, in Mexico, who was acting independently of his superior. Narvaez, with a fleet and army, attempted to take Vera Cruz, but failed. Leaving a part of his forces, under Alvarado, in Mexico, Cortez marched against Narvaez, attacked and defeated him, and compelled his men to serve under the banner of the conqueror of Mexico.

Cortez, HERNANDO, was born at Medellin, Estremadura, Spain, in 1485, of a good family; died near Seville, Dec. 2, 1547. He studied law two years in Salamanca, and in 1504 sailed from San Lucar for Santo Domingo in a merchant vessel. The governor received him kindly, and he was soon employed, under Diego Velasquez, in quelling a revolt. In 1511 Diego Columbus (see *Columbus*), governor of Santo Domingo, sent Velasquez to conquer and colonize Cuba. Cortez accompanied him. Santiago was founded, and Cortez was made alcalde, or mayor. He married a Spanish lady and employed the natives in mining gold, treating them most cruelly. Velasquez placed him at the head of an expedition to conquer and colonize Mexico, portions of which Cordova and Grijalva had just discovered. Before he sailed Velasquez countermanded the order, but the ambitious Cortez, disobedient, sailed for Mexico, in 1519, with ten vessels, bearing 550 Spaniards, over 200 Indians, a few negroes and horses, and some brass cannons. He landed at Tobasco, where he fought the natives and heard of Montezuma, emperor of a vast domain, possessor of great treasures, and living in a city called Mexico. After founding Vera Cruz, Cortez set out for Montezuma's capital. Fighting his way, he made the conquered natives own their vassalage to Spain and become his followers, and in November, 1519, he entered the city of Mexico with a handful of Spaniards who had survived the battles, and six thousand native followers. Montezuma received him kindly. Cortez took a strong position in the city and put on the airs of a conqueror instead of a guest. Some of the irritated Mexicans attacked the invaders, when Cortez, making that a pretext, seized the monarch in his palace, conveyed him to the headquarters of the troops, and threatened him with instant death if he did not quietly submit. Placing the emperor in irons, Cortez caused seventeen of the men who had made the attack to be burned to death in front of the palace. Then Montezuma was compelled to acknowledge himself and his subjects vassals of Charles V., and Cortez forced the fallen monarch to give him gold to the value of $10,000. Suddenly startled by the news that Narvaez (see *Narvaez*), whom Velasquez had sent to displace him, had landed on the shores of Mexico with 900 men, 80 horses, and a dozen cannons, Cortez, leaving 200 men in Mexico, hastened to confront his rival with a few followers. In a battle Narvaez was defeated. The vanquished troops joined the standard of Cortez, who hastened back to Mexico. The people had revolted against the Spaniards. The captive Montezuma tried to pacify them, but, endeavoring to address them, he was assailed by a mob and mortally wounded. The Spaniards were driven out of the city; their rear-guard was cut in pieces, and they were terribly harassed in a flight for six days before the exasperated Mexicans. On the plain of Otompan a sharp battle was fought (July 7, 1520), and Cortez was victor. Marching to Tlascala, he collected reinforcements of natives, marched upon Mexico, and captured the city after a gallant defence of seventy-seven days, Aug. 13, 1521. His exploits wiped out the stain of his disobedience, and he was made civil and military ruler of Mexico, and a marquis, with a handsome revenue. The natives, however, were terribly embittered by his cruelties and his zeal in destroying their idols, for he resolved to force the pagans to become Christians. They revolted again and again, but to no purpose, for the fire-arms of the Spaniards were too much for legions of men without them. Quauhtemotzin, the successor of Montezuma, and the eleventh and last king of Mexico, was cruelly put to death. The conquests of Cortez created jealousies and the infliction of injuries to his property and good name, and he returned to Spain in great pomp and splendor to appeal for justice. The monarch received him cordially, honored him with new titles, and decorated him with orders. Returning to Mexico, Cortez explored the country northward and discovered the Gulf and Peninsula of California. (See *California*.) Watched by spies sent out by his king, Cortez returned to Spain, where he was at first received with coolness and was afterwards utterly neglected. He forced his way to the presence of his king, upbraided him for ingratitude, withdrew from court, and died in comparative obscurity at the age of sixty-three years.

Cost of Wars with the Indians. It was estimated in 1876 that the potentially hostile tribes numbered about sixty-four thousand souls, widely scattered over a vast territory, making war with them extremely costly in men and money. War with the Cheyennes in 1864 caused about eight thousand troops to be taken from the armies engaged in suppressing the great insurrection to fight the Indians. The result of the year's campaign was the killing of fifteen or twenty of the barbarians, at a cost of about $1,000,000 apiece, while hundreds of soldiers lost their lives and many border settlers were butchered. This and subsequent wars with the Indians have cost our government over $100,000,000. Methods to civilize them, founded on justice and right, would have been far less costly.

Cotton in the United States. Mention is made of cotton "planted as an experiment" in the region of the Carolinas so early as 1621, and its limited growth there is noted in 1666. In 1736 it was cultivated in gardens as far north as latitude 36°, on the eastern shore of Maryland. Forty years later it was cultivated on Cape May, N. J.; but it was almost unknown, except as a garden plant, until after the old war for independence. At the beginning of that conflict General Delagall had thirty acres under cultivation near Savannah, Ga. In 1748 seven bags of cotton-wool were exported to England from Charleston, S. C., valued at £3 11*s.* 5*d.* a bag. There were two or three other small shipments afterwards, before the war. At Liverpool eight bags shipped from the United States in 1784 were seized, on the ground that so much cotton could not be produced in the United States. In 1786 the first Sea Island cotton was raised, off the coast of Georgia, and its exportation began in 1788 by Alexander Bissell, of St. Simon's Island. The seeds were obtained from the Bahama Islands. The first successful crop of this variety was raised by William Elliott on Hilton Head Island, in 1790. It has always commanded a higher price on account of its being more staple than any other variety. In 1791 the cotton crop in the United States was 2,000,000 pounds. The invention and introduction of Whitney's cotton-gin (which see) caused a sudden and enormous increase in the production of cotton. In 1801 the cotton crop in the United States was 48,000,000 pounds, of which 20,000,000 pounds were exported. The increase in its production was greatly accelerated, and the product of the year ending in June, 1860, on a surface of little less than 11,000 square miles, was over 5,387,000 bales, or over 2,500,000,000 pounds. The value of the cotton crop in 1791 was about $30,000; of that of 1859-60—the largest crop ever gathered—over $220,000,000. The annual production of cotton in the United States was less after 1860. The Civil War interfered with it; but in 1876 it was nearly 4,000,000 bales, or about 1,800,000,000 pounds. (The bales vary much in weight in different years.) The cotton-plant holds a conspicuous place in our social, commercial, and political history.

Cotton, John, was one of the first ministers in Boston, and was born at Derby, Eng., Dec. 4, 1585; died in Boston, Dec. 23, 1652. About the year 1612 he became minister of St. Botolph's Church, Boston, Lincolnshire, where he remained, a noted preacher and controversialist for twenty years, constantly leaning towards Puritanism (which see). For his non-conformity he was cited to appear before Archbishop Laud, when he fled to America, arriving at Boston in September, 1633. He was soon afterwards ordained a colleague with Mr. Wilson in the Boston Church. His ministry there for nineteen years was so influential that he has been called "The Patriarch of New England." He was a firm opponent of Roger Williams, and defended the authority of ministers and magistrates. He and Davenport were invited to assist in the assembly of divines at Westminster (which see), but were dissuaded from going by Hooker.

Cotton Loan. The government of the "Confederate States of America" issued bonds for money loaned, with pledges of cotton as security. Alexander H. Stephens assumed the office of expounding the principles, intentions, and effects of this Cotton Loan. The object was, he said, to avoid taxing the people. "If we do not raise money by loans," he said, in a speech to a convention of cotton-growers at Augusta, Ga., July 11, 1861, "if the people do not contribute, I tell you we intend to have the money, and taxation will be resorted to if nothing else will raise it. Every life and dollar in the country will be demanded rather than you and every one of us shall be overrun by the enemy. On that you may count." The planters well knew what his demand implied; to refuse to subscribe to the loan would be held to be constructive treason to the Confederacy. Late in July the Confederate Secretary of the Treasury reported that $50,000,000 had been subscribed to the Cotton Loan. The bonds bore eight per cent. interest, payable semi-annually. Stephens declared that they would be the best government bonds in the world, and would "doubtless command fifteen to twenty per cent. premium!" Yet he frankly told them, what came to pass, that if the great insurrection should fail, "these bonds will not be worth a dollar." Cotton Loan bonds, with cotton as a basis of security, were sold in Europe (mostly in England) to the amount of $15,000,000.

Couch, Darius Nash, was born in Putnam County, N. Y., July 23, 1822; graduated at West Point, served in the war with Mexico, aided in suppressing the last outbreak of the Seminoles, and resigned in 1855. In January, 1861, while residing at Taunton, Mass., he was commissioned colonel of a Massachusetts regiment, and made a major-general of volunteers in August. He commanded a division in General Keys's corps in the battle of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines (which see). He also distinguished himself at Williamsburg and at Malvern Hills, and on July 4, 1862, was promoted to major-general. Soon after his good service at Antietam he was put in command of Sumner's corps, and took a prominent part in battles under Burnside and Hooker; also under Thomas, in the defeat of

Hood at Nashville (which see), and in North Carolina early in 1865.

Council of Plymouth, The. After the departure of the "Pilgrims" for America, a new patent was granted (Nov. 3, 1620) to the North Virginia Company, the Duke of Lennox, the Marquises of Buckingham and Hamilton, the Earls of Arundel and Warwick, Sir Ferdinando Gorges, with thirty-four associates, and their successors, styling them "The Council established at Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the planting, ruling, ordering, and governing of New England, in America." The domain embraced in the terms of this patent was between the parallels of 40° and 48° north latitude, and "in length by all the breadth aforesaid throughout the mainland from sea to sea." That domain was given to the company as absolute property, and they were empowered to exclude all from trading within the boundaries of their jurisdiction, and from fishing in the neighboring seas. This patent was the only civil basis of all the subsequent patents, which divided this country into specified domains.

Council of the Indies, The. A body of men appointed by the Spanish monarch, who, after the discovery of America, and during the existence of Spain's immense colonial empire, governed colonial affairs.

Countervailing Measures (1861). In retaliation for an order issued by Chase, the United States Secretary of the Treasury (May 2, 1861), directing all officers in the revenue service on the northern and northwestern waters of the United States to seize and detain all arms, munitions of war, provisions, and other supplies on the way towards states in which insurrection existed—in other words, establishing blockades of the Mississippi and the railways leading south from Kentucky—the Confederates forbade the exportation of raw cotton or cotton yarn, excepting through seaports of the Confederate States, under heavy penalties. They expected thus to strike a withering blow at manufactures in the free-labor states. By order of John H. Reagan, the Confederate Postmaster-general, and as an offset to the order of the National Postmaster-general for the arrest of the United States postal service, in states where insurrection existed, after May 31, the postmasters in those states were ordered to retain in their possession, after June 1, "for the benefit of the Confederate States, all mail-bags, locks and keys, marking and other stamps," and "all property connected with the postal service."

Counties. The several United States are divided into counties; in South Carolina called districts. Several hundred years ago there were large districts of country in England and on the Continent governed by earls, who were, however, subject to the crown. These districts were called *counties*, and the name is still retained even in the United States, and indicates certain judicial and other jurisdiction. The Saxon equivalent for county was *shire*, which simply means division, and was not applied to such counties as were originally distinct sovereignties, such as Kent, Norfolk, etc. Thus we have Lancashire and Yorkshire. New Netherland (New York) was constituted a county of Holland, having all the individual privileges appertaining to an earldom, or separate government. On its seal appears as a crest to the arms a kind of cap called a coronet, which is the armorial distinction of a count or earl.

County Courts first established in America. The extent of settlements had become so great in Virginia in 1622 that it was inconvenient to bring all legal causes to the capital at Jamestown, and inferior courts were appointed in convenient places to relieve the governor and council (who constituted the superior judiciary) of a heavy burden of business, and to render justice more accessible and less expensive.

County Courts in Connecticut. In May, 1666, the General Assembly of Connecticut divided the colony into four counties—namely, Hartford, New Haven, New London, and Fairfield, and established a county court in each.

Courcelles, M. D., appointed governor of Canada, arrived in 1665 with a regiment of soldiers and many families, with horses (the first ever seen in Canada), cattle, and sheep. To prevent the irruptions of the Five Nations by way of Lake Champlain, he built three forts between that lake and the mouth of the Richelieu, or Sorel, its outlet.

Court of Assistants, The. This was composed of a prescribed number of persons, by whom monthly courts were held, and who, with the governor and deputy-governor, managed the affairs of the government, at least those of executive routine. The assistants were magistrates, and were elected annually.

Court of Chancery, The First, in New York. Under the authority of the Board of Trade and Plantations (which see), the Earl of Bellomont, governor of New York, set up a court of chancery in that province in 1698, himself acting as judge.

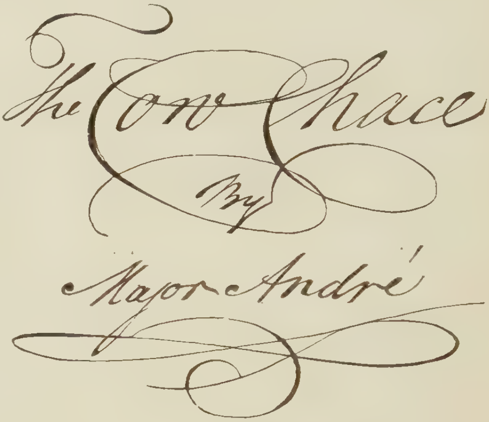
Courting the Indians. The British, as hostilities threatened early in 1775, endeavored to secure the co-operation of the Indians against the American colonists. Canadian emissaries were sent among the northwestern tribes around the upper lakes and in the Ohio Valley. Guy Johnson, Indian agent in New York, carefully proceeded to remove American missionaries from the Six Nations. The colonists took immediate countervailing measures. The good Eleazar Wheelock (see *Dartmouth College*) sent, as the first envoy from New England, the ardent young preacher James Dean, who was a master of the language of the Iroquois, to "itinerate as a missionary among the tribes in Canada, and brighten the chain of friendship." The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts sent the thoughtful and pious Kirkland to the Mohawks. He had lived among them as a missionary, and was much esteemed by them. He was instructed to persuade them to either join the Americans or remain neutral. The same Congress voted a blanket and a ribbon to each of the Indians living at Stockbridge, and these promised to intercede with the Six Nations.

Covenhoven, ROBERT, a soldier and pioneer in Pennsylvania, was born in Monmouth County, N. J., Dec. 17, 1755; died at Northumberland, Penn., Oct. 29, 1846. His ancestors were from Holland, and among the earlier settlers in New Jersey. About the beginning of the Revolution they moved to the region near the west branch of the Susquehanna River. He joined the Continental army under Washington in 1776, participated in the battles of Trenton and Princeton, and then returned to northern Pennsylvania, where he was employed in the defence of the frontier against the Indians. An incident of his life furnishes a glimpse of the state of society at that time. In February, 1778, Covenhoven was married to Mercy Kelsey in New Jersey. While the nuptial ceremony was in progress, it was interrupted by the sudden arrival of a troop of Hessian soldiers. The groom escaped through a window, but, returning at night, he carried away his bride to his Pennsylvania home. From that time until the close of the war he participated as watcher, guide, and soldier in opposing the forays of the barbarians; and was in the desperate engagement of Wyalusing. He ranks in tradition among the genuine heroes of America. In 1796–97 he superintended the construction of a wagon-road through the wilderness from the mouth of Lycoming Creek to Painted Post, Steuben Co., N. Y.

Covington, LEONARD, was born at Acquasco, Prince George's Co., Md., Oct. 30, 1768; died at French Mills, N. Y., Nov. 14, 1813. He was commissioned lieutenant of dragoons March 14, 1792; joined the army under General Wayne, and behaved so gallantly in the war with the Indians in 1794 that his general made honorable mention of his services. He was promoted to captain, and soon afterwards retired from the military service. After occupying a seat in the Legislature of Maryland, he was a member of Congress from 1805 to 1807. In the latter year he was appointed lieutenant-colonel of cavalry, and was made a brigadier in 1813, and ordered to the northern frontier. In the battle at Chrysler's Field (Nov. 11, 1813) he was mortally wounded, and died three days afterwards.

Cow-boys. During the Revolution a band of marauders, consisting mostly of Tory refugees who adhered to the British interests, infested the neutral ground in Westchester County, N. Y., between the American and British lines, and because they stole many cattle were called Cow-boys. They generally plundered the Whigs, or adherents of the Continental Congress; but, like their opponents the Skinners, they were not always scrupulous in the choice of their victims. (See *Skinners.*)

"Cow Chace, The." In the summer of 1780 Washington sent General Wayne, with a considerable force, to storm a British block-house at Bull's Ferry, on the Hudson, near Fort Lee, and to drive into the American camp a large number of cattle on Bergen Neck exposed to British foragers, who might go out from Pawlus's Hook (now Jersey City). Wayne was repulsed at the block-house, with a loss of sixty-four men, but returned to camp with a large number of cattle driven by his dragoons. This event inspired Major André, Sir Henry Clinton's adjutant-general, to write a satirical poem, which he called "The Cow Chace," in which Wayne and his fellow-"rebels" were severely ridiculed. It was written in the style of the English ballad of *Chevy Chace*, in three cantos. The following is a copy of the poem, with a fac-simile of its title from André's autograph; also of the concluding verse of the original:



The Cow Chace
By
Major André

ELIZABETHTOWN, *Aug.* 1, 1780.

CANTO I.

To drive the kine one summer's morn,
  The tanner took his way,
The calf shall rue that is unborn
  The jumbling of that day.

And Wayne descending steers shall know,
  And tauntingly deride,
And call to mind, in ev'ry low,
  The tanning of his hide.

Yet Bergen cows still ruminate
  Unconscious in the stall,
What mighty means were used to get,
  And lose them after all.

For many heroes bold and brave
  From New Bridge and Tapaan,
And those that drink Passaic's wave,
  And those that eat soupaan.

And sons of distant Delaware,
  And still remoter Shannon,
And Major Lee with horses rare,
  And Proctor with his cannon.

All wondrous proud in arms they came—
  What hero could refuse,
To tread the rugged path to fame,
  Who had a pair of shoes?

At six the host, with sweating buff,
  Arrived at Freedom's Pole,
When Wayne, who thought he'd time enough,
  Thus speechified the whole:

"O ye whom glory doth unite,
  Who Freedom's cause espouse,
Whether the wing that's doom'd to fight,
  Or that to drive the cows;

Ere yet you tempt your further way,
  Or into action come,
Hear, soldiers, what I have to say,
  And take a pint of rum.

Intemp'rate valor then will string
  Each nervous arm the better,
So all the land shall IO! sing,
  And read the gen'ral's letter.

Know that some paltry refugees,
Whom I've a mind to fight,
Are playing h—l among the trees
That grow on yonder height.

Their fort and block-house we will level,
And deal a horrid slaughter;
We'll drive the scoundrels to the devil,
And ravish wife and daughter.

I under cover of th' attack,
While you are all at blows,
From English Neighb'rhood and Tinack
Will drive away the cows.

For well you know the latter is
The serious operation,
And fighting with the refugees
Is only demonstration."

His daring words from all the crowd
Such great applause did gain,
That every man declared aloud
For serious work with Wayne.

Then from the cask of rum once more
They took a heady gill,
When one and all they loudly swore
They'd fight upon the hill.

But here—the Muse has not a strain
Befitting such great deeds,
Hurra, they cried, hurra for Wayne!
And, shouting, did their needs.

Canto II.

Near his meridian pomp, the sun
Had journeyed from the horizon,
When fierce the dusky tribe moved on,
Of heroes drunk as poison.

The sounds confused of boasting oaths
Re-echoed through the wood,
Some vow'd to sleep in dead men's clothes,
And some to swim in blood.

At Irvine's nod, 'twas fine to see
The left prepared to fight,
The while the drovers, Wayne and Lee,
Drew off upon the right.

Which Irvine 'twas Fame don't relate,
Nor can the Muse assist her,
Whether 'twas he that cocks a hat,
Or he that gives a glister.

For greatly one was signalized
That fought at Chestnut Hill,
And Canada immortalized
The vender of the pill.

Yet the attendance upon Proctor
They both might have to boast of,
For there was business for the doctor,
And hats to be disposed of.

Let none uncandidly infer
That Stirling wanted spunk;
The self-made peer had sure been there,
But that the peer was drunk.

But turn we to the Hudson's banks,
Where stood the modest train,
With purpose firm, though slender ranks,
Nor cared a pin for Wayne.

For then the unrelenting hand
Of rebel fury drove,
And tore from ev'ry gen'al band
Of friendship and of love.

And some within a dungeon's gloom,
By mock tribunals laid,
Had waited long a cruel doom,
Impending o'er their heads.

Here one bewails a brother's fate,
There one a sire demands,
Cut off, alas! before their date,
By ignominious hands.

And silvered grandsires here appeared
In deep distress serene,
Of reverend manners that declared
The better days they'd seen.

Oh! cursed rebellion, these are thine,
Thine are these tales of woe;
Shall at thy dire insatiate shrine
Blood never cease to flow?

And now the foe began to lead
His forces to th' attack;
Balls whistling unto balls succeed,
And make the block-house crack.

No shot could pass, if you will take
The gen'ral's word for true;
But 'tis a d—ble mistake,
For ev'ry shot went through.

The firmer as the rebels pressed,
The loyal heroes stand;
Virtue had nerved each honest breast,
And Industry each hand.

In[*] valor's frenzy, Hamilton
Rode like a soldier big,
And secretary Harrison,
With pen stuck in his wig.

But, lest chieftain Washington
Should mourn them in the mumps,[†]
The fate of Withrington to shun,
They fought behind the stumps.

But ah! Thaddeus Posset, why
Should thy poor soul elope?
And why should Titus Hooper die,
Ah! die—without a rope?

Apostate Murphy, thou to whom
Fair Shela ne'er was cruel;
In death shalt hear her mourn thy doom,
Och! would ye die, my jewel?

Thee, Nathan Pumpkin, I lament,
Of melancholy fate,
The gray goose, stolen as he went,
In his heart's blood was wet.

Now as the fight was further fought
And balls began to thicken,
The fray assumed, the gen'rals thought,
The color of a licking.

Yet undismayed the chiefs command,
And, to redeem the day,
Cry, "Soldiers, charge!" they hear, they stand,
They turn and run away.

Canto III.

Not all delights the bloody spear,
Or horrid din of battle,
There are, I'm sure, who'd like to hear
A word about the rattle.

The chief whom we beheld of late,
Near Schralenberg haranguing,
At Yan Van Poop's unconscious sat
Of Irvine's hearty banging.

While valiant Lee, with courage wild,
Most bravely did oppose
The tears of women and of child,
Who begged he'd leave the cows.

But Wayne, of sympathizing heart,
Required a relief,
Not all the blessings could impart,
Of battle or of beef.

For now a prey to female charms,
His soul took more delight in
A lovely Hamadryad's[‡] arms
Than cow driving or fighting.

A nymph, the refugees had drove
Far from her native tree,
Just happen'd to be on the move,
When up came Wayne and Lee.

She in mad Anthony's fierce eye
The hero saw portrayed,
And, all in tears, she took him by
— the bridle of his jade.

Hear, said the nymph, O great commander,
No human lamentations,
The trees you see them cutting yonder
Are all my near relations.

And I, forlorn, implore thine aid
To free the sacred grove:
So shall thy prowess be repaid
With an immortal's love.

---

[*] See Lee's trial.
[†] A disorder prevalent in the rebel lines.
[‡] A deity of the woods.

Now some, to prove she was a goddess!
  Said this enchanting fair,
Had late retired from the *Bodies*,*
  In all the pomp of war.

That drums and merry fifes had played
  To honor her retreat,
And Cunningham himself conveyed
  The lady through the street.

Great Wayne, by soft compassion swayed,
  To no inquiry stoops,
But takes the fair, afflicted maid
  Right into Yan Van Poop's.

So Roman Antony, they say,
  Disgraced th' imperial banner,
And for a gypsy lost a day,
  Like Anthony the tanner.

The Hamadryad had but half
  Received redress from Wayne,
When drums and colors, cow and calf,
  Came down the road amain.

All in a cloud of dust were seen,
  The sheep, the horse, the goat,
The gentle heifer, ass obscene,
  The yearling and the shoat.

And pack-horses with fowls came by,
  Befeathered on each side,
Like Pegasus, the horse that I
  And other poets ride.

Sublime upon the stirrups rose
  The mighty Lee behind,
And drove the terror-smitten cows,
  Like chaff before the wind.

But sudden see the woods above
  Pour down another corps,
All helter-skelter in a drove,
  Like that I sung before.

Irvine and terror in the van
  Came flying all abroad,
And cannon, colors, horse, and man
  Ran tumbling to the road.

Still as he fled, 'twas Irvine's cry,
  And his example too,
"Run on, my merry men all—for why?"
  The shot will not go through.†

As when two kennels in the street,
  Swell'd with a recent rain,
In gushing streams together meet,
  And seek the neighboring drain,

So meet these dung-born tribes in one,
  As swift in their career,
And so to New Bridge they ran on—
  But all the cows got clear.

Poor Parson Caldwell, all in wonder,
  Saw the returning train,
And mourned to Wayne the lack of plunder,
  For them to steal again.

For 'twas his right to seize the spoil, and
  To share with each commander,
As he had done at Staten Island
  With frost-bit Alexander.

In his dismay, the frantic priest
  Began to grow prophetic,
You had swore, to see his lab'ring breast,
  He'd taken an emetic.

"I view a future day," said he,
  "Brighter than this day dark is,
And you shall see what you shall see,
  Ha! ha! one pretty marquis;

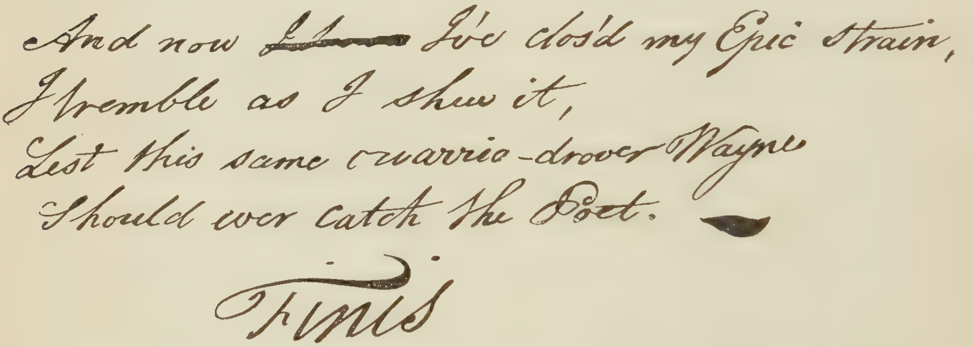
And he shall come to Paulus' Hook,
  And great achievements think on,
And make a bow and take a look,
  Like Satan over Lincoln.

And all the land around shall glory
  To see the Frenchman caper,
And pretty Susan tell the story
  In the next Chatham paper."

This solemn prophecy, of course,
  Gave all much consolation,
Except to Wayne, who lost his horse
  Upon the great occasion.

His horse that carried all his prog,
  His military speeches,
His corn-stalk whiskey for his grog—
  Blue stockings and brown breeches.

And now I've clos'd my epic strain,
  I tremble as I show it,
Lest this same warrio-drover, Wayne,
  Should ever catch the poet.



And now I've clos'd my Epic Strain,
I tremble as I shew it,
Lest this same warrio-drover Wayne
Should ever catch the Poet.

Finis

The last canto was published on the day when André was captured at Tarrytown. At the end of the autograph copy was written the following stanza, in a neat hand:

> "When the epic strain was sung,
>   The poet by the neck was hung;
>   And to his cost he finds too late,
>   The *dung-born tribe* decides his fate."

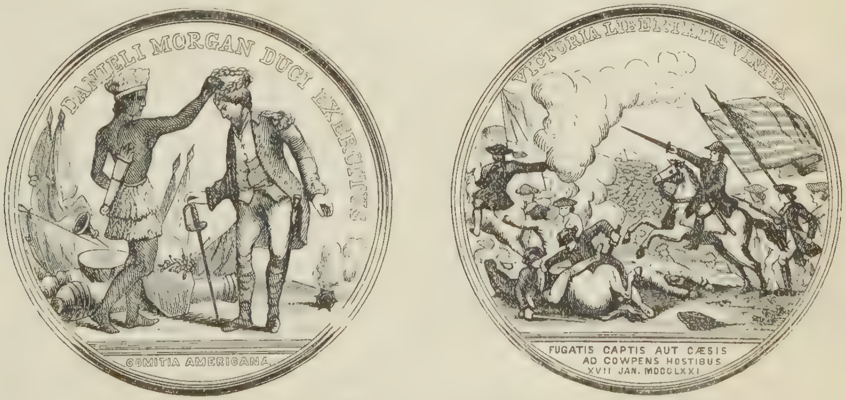
Wayne was in command of the troops from whom the guard was drawn that attended André's execution.

Cowpens, BATTLE OF THE. From his camp, eastward of the Pedee, Greene sent Morgan, with the Maryland regiment and Washington's dragoons of Lee's corps, across the Broad River, to operate on the British left and rear. Observing this, Cornwallis left his camp at Winnsborough, and pushed northward between the Broad River and the Catawba, for the purpose of interposing his force between Greene and Morgan. Against the latter he had detached Tarleton with about one thousand light troops. Aware of Tarleton's approach, Morgan retired behind the Pacolet, intending to defend the ford; but Tarleton crossed six miles above, when Morgan made a precipitate retreat. If he could cross the Broad River, he would be safe. On his right was a hilly district, which might afford him protection; but, rather than be overtaken in his flight, he prepared to fight on the ground of his own selection. He chose for that purpose a place known as "The Cowpens," about thirty miles west of King's Mountain (which see). He arranged about four hundred of his best men in battle order on a little rising ground. There were the Maryland light infantry, under Lieutenant-colonel John Eager Howard, composing the centre, and Virginia riflemen forming the wings. Lieutenant-colonel William Washington, with eighty dragoons, were placed out of sight, as a reserve, and about four hundred Carolinians and Georgians, under Colonel Andrew Pickens, were in the advance, to defend the approaches to the camp. North Carolina and Georgia sharp-shooters acted as skirmishers on each flank. At eight o'clock on a winter's morning (Jan. 17, 1781), Tarleton, with eleven hundred troops, foot and horse, with two pieces of cannon, rushed upon the Republicans with loud shouts. A furious battle ensued. In a skilful movement, in the form of a feigned retreat, Morgan turned so suddenly upon his pursuers, who believed the victory was secured to them, that they wavered. Seeing this, Howard charged the British lines with bayonets, broke their ranks, and sent them flying in confusion. At that moment Washington's cavalry broke from their concealment, and made a successful charge upon Tarleton's horsemen. The British were completely routed, and were pursued about twenty miles. The Americans lost seventy-two killed and wounded. The British lost over three hundred killed and wounded, and near five hundred made prisoners. The spoils were two cannons, eight hundred muskets, horses, and two standards. The cannons had been taken from the British at Saratoga, and retaken from Gates at Camden. The Congress gave Morgan the thanks of the nation and a gold medal, and to Howard and Washington each a silver medal.

---

* A cant appellation given among the soldiery to the corps that has the honor to guard his majesty's person.

† Five refugees ('tis true) were found
  Stiff on the block-house floor,
But then 'tis thought the shot went round,
  And in at the back-door.

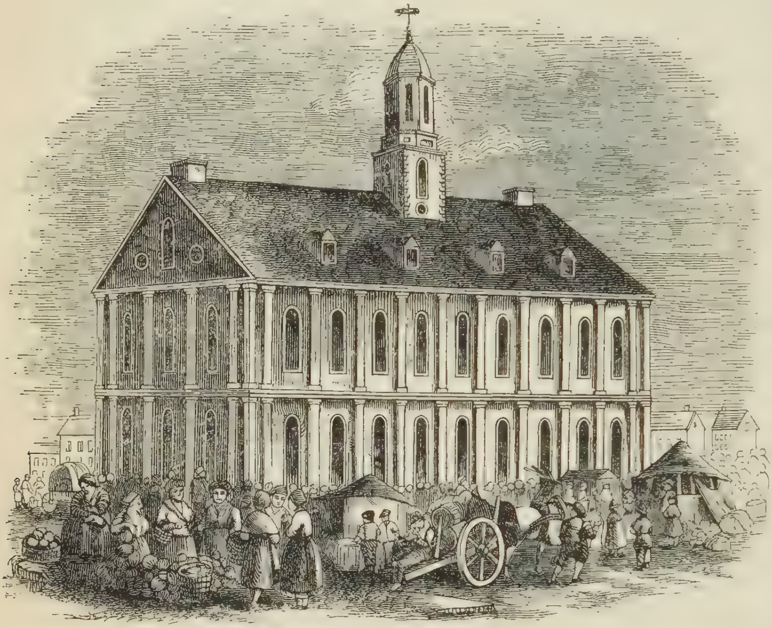


GOLD MEDAL AWARDED TO MORGAN.

Cowpens, THE. This name was derived from the circumstance that, some years before the Revolution, before that section was settled, some persons in Camden (then called Pine Tree) employed two men to go up to the Thicketty Mountain, and in the grassy intervals among the hills raise cattle. As a compensation, they were allowed the entire use of the cows during the summer, for making butter and cheese, and the steers in tillage. In the fall large numbers of the fatted cattle would be driven down to Camden to be slaughtered for beef on account of the owners. This region, on account of its grass and fine springs, was peculiarly favorable for the rearing and use of cows, and consequently was called "The Cow Pens."

Cox, JACOB DOLSON, was born in Montreal, Canada, Oct. 27, 1828. His mother was a lineal descendant of Elder William Brewster, of the *Mayflower*. He was admitted to the bar in 1852, and practised his profession in Warren, Ohio, until elected state senator, in 1859. He was created brigadier-general of state militia, and commanded a camp of instruction, in April, 1861, and in May was made brigadier-general of volunteers, doing good service in western Virginia. In August, 1862, he was assigned to the Army of Virginia, under General Pope, and in the fall was ordered to the district of the Kanawha. After the death of Reno, at South Mountain (which see), he commanded the Ninth Corps. He was in command of the district of Ohio in 1863; served in the Atlanta campaign in 1864; and was promoted to major-general in December of that year. He joined Sherman's army early in 1865, was governor of Ohio in 1866–68, and was called to the cabinet of President Grant, as Secretary of the Interior, in March, 1869.

Cradle of American Liberty. This name was given to Faneuil Hall, in Boston, because it was the usual meeting-place of the patriots during the long contest with royal power, before the kindling of the old war for independence. It was erected in 1742, at the sole expense of Peter Faneuil, of Boston, who generously gave it to the town. The lower story was used for a market, and in the upper story was an elegant and spacious hall, with convenient rooms for the public use. It was burned in 1761, when the town immediately rebuilt it. The engraving shows it as it was during the Revolution. The hall is about eighty feet square, and contains some fine paintings of distinguished men. The original vane, in the form of a grasshopper, copied from that of the Royal Exchange of London, still does duty there. In 1805 another story was added to the original building.



FANEUIL HALL. (From an English print of the time.)

The name of Cradle of Liberty was also given to the "Apollo Room," a large apartment in the Raleigh Tavern at Williamsburg, Va., where the members of the House of Burgesses met after its dissolution by Governor Lord Dunmore in 1774. There they adopted non-importation resolutions, appointed a fast-day, and chose delegates to the First Continental Congress, which assembled at Philadelphia in September.

THE APOLLO ROOM.

Cradock, MATTHEW, an opulent London merchant, was the first governor of the Massachusetts Company, who founded the Massachusetts Bay Colony. He never came to America, but was a munificent supporter of the colony during its early struggles. He was a member of the celebrated Long Parliament (which see), and died May 27, 1641.

Craig, SIR JAMES HENRY, was born at Gibraltar, 1749; died Jan. 12, 1812. He entered the British army as ensign in 1763, was aide-de-camp to General Boyd at Gibraltar in 1770, and came to America in 1774. He remained in service here from the battle of Bunker's Hill until the evacuation of Charleston, in 1781, where he held the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He was made a major-general in 1794, lieutenant-general in 1801, and governor-general and commander-in-chief of Canada in 1807. Totally unfit for civil rule, he was a petty oppressor as governor; his administration was short, and he returned to England in 1811.

Craik, JAMES, M.D., was born in Scotland in 1731; died in Fairfax County, Va., Feb. 6, 1814. Educated for a physician, he came to America in early life, and practised his profession in Fairfax County. He was the intimate friend and family physician of Washington. He was with him in his expedition against the French in 1754, and in Braddock's campaign in 1755. In 1775 he was placed in the medical department of the Continental Army, and rose to the first rank. He unearthed many of the secrets of the Conway Cabal (which see), and did much to defeat the conspiracy. He was director of the army hospital at Yorktown in the siege of that place, in 1781, and after the Revolution settled near Mount Vernon, where he was the principal attendant of Washington in his last illness.

Craney Island, REPULSE OF THE BRITISH AT (1813). On the 1st of June, 1813, Admiral Sir J. Borlase Warren entered the Chesapeake with a considerable reinforcement for the marauding squadron of Sir George Cockburn, bearing a large number of land-troops and marines. There were twenty ships of the line and frigates and several smaller British war-vessels within the capes of Virginia. The citizens of Baltimore, Annapolis, and Norfolk were equally menaced. Norfolk was the first point of attack. For its defence on the waters were the frigate *Constellation*, 38 guns, and a flotilla of gunboats; on the land were forts Norfolk and

Nelson (one on each side of the Elizabeth River) and forts Tar and Barbour, and the fortifications on Craney Island, five miles below the city. Towards midnight of June 19 Captain Tarbell, by order of Commodore Cassin, commanding the station, went down the Elizabeth River with fifteen gunboats, to attempt the capture of the frigate *Junon*, 38 guns, Captain Sanders, which lay about three miles from the rest of the British fleet. Fifteen sharp-shooters from Craney Island were added to the crews of the boats. At half-past three in the morning the flotilla approached the *Junon*, and, under cover of the darkness and a thick fog, the American vessels approached her to within easy range without being discovered. She was taken by surprise. After a conflict of half an hour, and when victory seemed within the grasp of the Americans, a wind sprung up from the northeast, and two vessels lying becalmed below came to the *Junon's* assistance, and by a severe cannonade repulsed them. In this affair the Americans lost one man killed and two slightly wounded. This attack brought matters to a crisis. The firing had been distinctly heard by the fleet, and with the next tide, on a warm Sunday morning in June, fourteen of the British vessels entered Hampton Roads, and took position at the mouth of the Nansemond River. They bore land-troops, under General Sir Sidney Beckwith. The whole British force, including the sailors, was about five thousand men. Governor Barbour of Virginia had assembled several thousand militia, in anticipation of invasion. Craney Island, then in shape like a painter's pallet, was separated from the main by a shallow strait, fordable at low tide, and contained about thirty acres of land. On the side commanding the ship-channel were intrenchments armed with eighteen and twenty-four pound cannons.

THE BLOCK-HOUSE ON CRANEY ISLAND, 1813.

A successful defence of this island would save Norfolk and the navy-yard there, and to that end efforts were made. General Robert B. Taylor was the commanding officer of the district. The whole available force of the island, when the British entered Hampton Roads, were two companies of artillery, under the general command of Major James Faulkner; Captain Robertson's company of riflemen; and four hundred and sixteen militia infantry of the line, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Henry Beatty. If attacked and overpowered, these troops had no means of escape. These were reinforced by thirty regulars under Captain Richard Pollard, and thirty volunteers under Lieutenant-colonel Johnson, and were joined by about one hundred and fifty seamen under Lieutenants B. J. Neale, W. B. Shubrick, and J. Sanders, and fifty marines under Lieutenant Breckinridge. The whole force on Craney Island on the 2d of June (1813) numbered seven hundred and thirty-seven men. At midnight the camp was alarmed by the crack of a sentinel's rifle. It was a false alarm; but before it was fairly daylight a trooper came dashing across the fordable strait with the startling information that the British were landing in force on the main, only about two miles distant. The drum beat the long-roll, and Major Faulkner ordered his guns to be transferred so as to command the strait. At the same time, fifty large barges, filled with fifteen hundred sailors and marines, were seen approaching from the British ships. They were led by Admiral Warren's beautiful barge *Centipede* (so called because of her numerous oars), and made for the narrow strait between Craney Island and the main. Faulkner had his artillery in position, and when the invaders were within proper distance his great guns were opened upon them with terrible effect. The British were repulsed, and hastened back to their ships. Warren's barge, which had a three-pound swivel-gun at the bow, with four others, was sunk in the shallow water, when some American seamen, under the direction of Lieutenant Tattnall, waded out, secured the vessels, and dragged them ashore, securing many prisoners. The British loss, in killed, wounded, and missing, was one hundred and forty-four; the Americans lost none. The invaders now abandoned all hope of seizing Norfolk, the *Constellation*, and the navy-yard, and never attempted it afterwards.

Craven, CHARLES, was governor of South Carolina from 1712 to 1716, and it is believed that he founded Beaufort, on Port Royal River. He assisted the North Carolinians in their warfare with the Indians, and in 1715 successfully fought the Yamasees and other warlike tribes of the Gulf region, with about twelve hundred troops, white and black.

Craven, THOMAS T., was born in the District of Columbia, entered the United States Navy as midshipman in 1822, and was made captain June 7, 1861. A year later he became commodore. He materially assisted in the reduction of the forts on the Mississippi below New Orleans (May, 1862) and the destruction of the Confederate flotilla there. He had been lieutenant-commander of the flag-ship *Vincennes* in Wilkes's exploring expedition in 1838–42 (see *South Sea Exploring Expedition*), and was instructor of the United States Naval Academy, at Annapolis, 1851–55. In 1866 (Oct. 10) he was made a rear-admiral, and was in command of the North Pacific Squadron in 1869.

Crawford, SAMUEL WYLIE, was born in Franklin County, Penn., Nov. 8, 1829, and graduated at the University of Pennsylvania in 1847. He studied medicine, and in 1851 was made assistant-surgeon in the United States Army. He was in Texas and New Mexico on duty, and in 1856 went to Mexico, where he pursued scientific researches. Dr. Crawford was surgeon of the garrison of Fort Sumter during its siege in 1861, and performed valuable military service there. In May he was made major of infantry and inspector-general in eastern Virginia. With Banks, he bore a conspicuous part in the Shenandoah Valley and in the battle of Cedar Mountain as brigadier-general. At the battle of Antietam he commanded the division of Mansfield after that general's death. He was breveted colonel in the United States Army for his conduct at Gettysburg. In Grant's campaign (1864–65) against Richmond General Crawford bore a conspicuous part from the Wilderness to Appomattox Court-house. In March, 1865, he was created major-general of volunteers.

SAMUEL WYLIE CRAWFORD.

Crawford, THOMAS, sculptor, was born in New York, March 22, 1814; died in London, Oct. 10, 1857. Manifesting at an early age a talent and taste for art, he went to Italy and profited by the instruction of Thorwaldsen at Rome. There he established a studio, soon rose to eminence, and had abundant employment. His works, of superior character, are quite numerous. Those widest known are the bronze equestrian statue of Washington for the monument at Richmond, ordered by the State of Virginia; the colossal bronze statue of the Genius of America that surmounts the dome of the Capitol at Washington; and the historical designs for the bronze doors in the new Capitol. Mr. Crawford was exceedingly industrious, and worked with great facility. During his life of forty-three years, or less than twenty-five of artistic labor, he finished more than sixty works, some of them colossal, and left about fifty sketches in plaster, besides designs of various kinds. Two of the finest of his works in marble are "The Last of his Race" (colossal), and "The Peri," both in the New York Historical Society.

Crawford, WILLIAM HARRIS, was born in Nelson County, Va., Feb. 24, 1772; died near Elberton, Ga., Sept. 18, 1834. After teaching school several years, he became a lawyer, beginning the practice of his profession in Lexington, Ga., in 1799. He compiled the first digest of the laws of Georgia, published in 1802; was a member of his State Legislature from 1803 to 1807; was United States Senator from 1807 to 1813, in which body he was regarded as its ablest member. In 1813 he was sent as United States Minister to France, and on his return (1815) was appointed Secretary of War; but in October, 1816, he was transferred to the Treasury Department, which position he held until 1825, when he was a defeated Democratic candidate for the Presidency, having been nominated the previous year by a Congressional caucus. He had four other candidates to oppose—Adams, Calhoun, Jackson, and Clay. At about that time his health failed, and he never fully recovered it. He became a circuit judge in Georgia, and was warmly opposed to "nullification" (which see).

Credit System and its Collapse (1836–37). The removal of the deposits of the public money to the amount of $10,000,000 from the Bank of the United States (October, 1833), when its line of discounts, or loans, was over $60,000,000, produced a terrible panic. But when these funds were distributed over the country by deposits in the state banks, thereby increasing their power to lend largely, the panic ceased. A course of credit then began which proved ruinous. The deposit banks loaned freely, and very soon speculation became rife. A season of apparent prosperity was enjoyed, which most people believed to be real. It was deceptive. The credit system was simply enormously expanded. Trade was brisk, the shipping interest was prosperous, prices ruled high, luxury abounded, and nobody seemed to perceive the under-current of disaster that was surely wasting the foundations of the absurd credit system and the real prosperity of the nation. It collapsed at the touch of the Ithuriel spear of Necessity. A failure of the grain crop of England caused a large demand from abroad for coin to pay for food products. The Bank of England, seeing exchanges running higher and higher against that country, contracted its loans, and admonished houses who were giving long and extensive credits to the Americans, by the use of money borrowed from the bank, to curtail that hazardous business. At about the same time the famous "Specie Circular" from the United States Treasury Department was issued (July, 1836). (See *Specie Circular.*) From the parlor of the Bank of England and from the Treasury of the United States went forth the unwelcome fiat, *Pay up!* American houses in London failed for many millions of dollars; and every bank in the United States suspended specie payments in 1837, but resumed in 1839. It was then that the United States Bank, rechartered by the Legislature of Pennsylvania, fell into hopeless ruin (see *United States Bank*), and with it went down a very large number of the state banks of the country. A general bankrupt law, passed in 1841, relieved of debt almost forty thousand persons, whose liabilities amounted, in the aggregate, to about $441,000,000.

Creek Confederacy. The domain of the Creek Confederacy extended from the Atlantic westward to the high lands which separate the waters of the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers, including a greater portion of the States of Alabama and Georgia and the whole of Florida. It was with the people of this confederacy that Oglethorpe held his first interview with the natives on the site of Savannah. They called themselves Muscogees, but, the domain abounding in creeks, it was called the Creek country by the Europeans. Evidently the kindred in origin and language of the Chickasaws and Choctaws, they claimed to have sprung from the earth, emigrated from the Northwest, and reached Florida, when they fell back to the more fertile regions of the Ocmulgee, Coosa, and Tallapoosa rivers. Some of them remained in Florida, and these are the Seminoles of our day. De Soto penetrated their country so early as 1540, and twenty years later De Luna formed an alliance with the tribe of the Coosas. When the Carolinas and Louisiana began to be settled by the English, Spaniards, and French, they all courted the Creek nation. The English won the Lower Creeks, the French the Upper Creeks, while the Spaniards, through their presents, gained an influence over a portion of them. In 1710 some of these (the Cowetas) made war on the Carolinas, and were petted by the Spaniards at St. Augustine; but in 1718 they joined the French, who built a fort at Mobile. In 1732 eight Creek tribes made a treaty with Oglethorpe at Savannah; and in 1739 he made a treaty with the Cowetas, and they joined him in his expedition against St. Augustine. When the French power in North America was overthrown, the entire Creek nation became subject to English influence. At that time they had fifty towns, and numbered nearly six thousand warriors. They were the allies of the British during the American Revolution. Many Tories fled to the Creek towns from the Carolinas and Georgia at the close of the war, and excited the barbarians to ravage the frontiers of those states. A peace was concluded with the Creeks by Washington in 1790; yet some of them joined the Cherokees in incursions into Tennessee in 1792. Another treaty was made in 1796, and in 1802 they began to cede lands to the United States. But when the War of 1812 broke out they joined their old friends, the English; and by an awful massacre at Fort Mims, in August, 1813, they aroused the Western people to vengeance. Troops led by General Jackson and others entered the Creek country; and in 1814 they ravaged the finest portion of it, destroyed the towns, slew or captured two thousand of the Creek warriors, thoroughly subdued them, and, in fact, destroyed the nation. Their last stand against the United States troops was made at Horseshoe Bend in March, 1815. Some of them had already settled in Louisiana, and finally in Texas, where they remained until 1872, when the government took steps to reunite the nation in the Indian Territory, west of Arkansas. They had ceded all their lands east of the Mississippi. With those who had removed there was trouble at times. Some favored removal west of the Mississippi; others opposed it. In 1825 they put one of their chiefs (William McIntosh) to death for signing a treaty for the cession of lands. In 1836 some of the Creeks joined their kindred, the Seminoles, in Florida in attacks upon the white people, and others joined the United States troops against them. (See *Seminole War.*) They were finally nearly all removed beyond the Mississippi, where they numbered about twenty-five thousand souls in 1876. Unsuccessful attempts to Christianize them were made. They refused missions and schools for a long time. Their nation declined, and in 1857 numbered less than fifteen thousand. During the Civil War the tribe was divided in sentiment, six thousand of them joining the Confederates. Their alliance with the Confederates was disastrous to their nation. In 1866 they ceded three million acres of their domain in the Indian Territory to the United States for thirty cents an acre. They are among the most peaceable and order-loving of the banished tribes. The men of the Creek Confederacy were well-proportioned, active, and graceful; the women were smaller, exquisitely formed, and some of them were very beautiful. In summer both sexes went without clothing, excepting a drapery of Spanish moss that was fastened at the waist and fell to the thighs. The principal people painted their faces and bodies in fanciful colors, and fops sometimes appeared in beautiful mantles of feathers or deer-skins, and on their heads were lofty plumes of the eagle and the flamingo. The houses of the chiefs stood upon mounds, sometimes in the form of a great pavilion, and the inside of their winter dwellings was daubed with clay. Hunting, fishing, and cultivating their fertile lands were their employments, for they seldom made aggressive war. They were skilful artisans in making arms, houses, barges, canoes, and various ornaments. They made pottery for kitchen service, and some of it was very ornamental. Fortifications were constructed with moats, and walled towns and grand and beautiful temples abounded. They made mats of split cane, with which they covered their houses and upon which they sat. These resembled the rush carpeting of the Moors. In their temples, dedicated to the worship of the sun, were votive offerings of pearls and rich furs. They regarded the sun as the superior deity, and in all their invocations they appealed to it as to God. To it they made sacrifices of grain and animals. The chief, while he was alive, was held in the greatest veneration as priest and king. As a symbol of devotion to him of the entire strength of the nation, the sacrifice of the first-born male child was required, while the young mother was compelled to witness the slaughter of her child. Their marriages were attended with great displays of ornaments and flowers, and at the setting of the sun the bride and groom and their friends prostrated themselves before that luminary and implored his blessing. Like the Iroquois, the civil power in their government was widely distributed; and, like the Iroquois, the Creeks were an exception, in their approach to civilization, to all the Indian tribes of North America. Such were the Creek (or Muscogee) Indians when first seen by Europeans.

Creek Indians in New York. The Continental Congress had ordered (1788) renewed negotiations with the southern tribes looking to complete pacification. The National Congress in 1789 made an appropriation for the purpose, and Washington appointed General Lincoln, Colonel Humphreys, and Cyrus Griffin (late President of Congress) commissioners to treat. They were instructed to try and induce the Indians to comply with three treaties already made with Georgia, if they were just, and to secure, by a new treaty, the tract west of the Oconee River, whereon settlers were already seated. The commissioners met Creek representatives at Rock Landing, Sept. 20 (1789). They were led by McGillivray, a half-breed, the head chief of the Creeks, who received the commissioners with respect and friendship such as had been extended to the British. They determined not to yield to the claims of the Georgians; and as the commissioners did not propose to restore their lands, they broke off the treaty abruptly. McGillivray was the son of a Scotch trader, who had married a Creek maiden. Washington despatched Colonel Willett on a new mission to the Creeks. He succeeded in persuading McGillivray to proceed to New York (then the seat of the national government) with some of his principal chiefs to renew negotiations. Accompanied by twenty-eight of these braves, McGillivray was received with much ceremony at Philadelphia and New York. He arrived at the latter city (June 23, 1790) when Congress was in session. In the reception there the Tammany Society, or Columbian Order, took a conspicuous part. That society had been lately established. (See *Tammany.*) Arrayed in their Indian costume, the society escorted the Creek chiefs into the city, and afterwards entertained them at a public dinner. McGillivray, as the son of a Scotchman, was chosen an honorary member of the St. Andrew's Society. Washington appointed the Secretary of War (Knox), on the part of the United States, to negotiate a treaty. It was done satisfactorily to all parties, and was ratified Aug. 13, 1790. The treaty was signed (Aug. 7) by Knox, and by McGillivray and twenty-three of his chiefs on behalf of the Creek nation. After some simple ceremonies, the conference was concluded by a song of peace, sung by the whole Indian deputation.

Creeks, THE, SUE FOR PEACE. After the battle at the Horseshoe Bend (see *Tohopeka*) Jackson pushed on to the "Hickory Ground," at the confluence of the Coosa and Tallapoosa rivers, and there, on the site of Fort Toulouse (built by the French one hundred years before), he raised the national standard over a fortification there erected and named Fort Jackson. Thither deputation after deputation of humiliated Creek chiefs made their way to sue for peace on behalf of themselves and their people. "Give proof of your submission," said Jackson, "by going and staying above Fort Williams, where you will be treated with, and the demands of my government will be made known to you. But you must first bring in Weathersford, the leader at Fort Mims, who, on no account, can be forgiven." On the 20th of April, 1814, General Pinckney arrived at Fort Jackson, when, informed of the general submission of the Creeks, and considering the war with them at an end, he issued an order (April 21) for the West Tennesseeans to march home. They were discharged at Fayetteville, Tenn. Jackson then retired to his own home at the Hermitage.

Creeks, THE, TREAT FOR REMOVAL. A treaty was concluded with the Creek nation, Feb. 12, 1825, for their removal to lands west of the Mississippi River, it having become the policy of the United States to plant all of the barbarian tribes east of the Mississippi on reservations west of that stream.

Creeks, TREATY WITH THE. A treaty of peace and friendship between the United States and the Creek nation was concluded at Colerain, Ga., Jan. 29, 1796. It did not satisfy the Georgians, as no new cessions of land were obtained; but it put an end to the mutual depredations which had prevailed on that frontier and provided for the restoration of prisoners and property captured by the Indians. It settled the mutual boundaries of the Creeks, Chickasaws, and Choctaws; and in consideration of an additional annuity of six thousand dollars and the providing of the Creeks with two blacksmiths, the right was obtained for the President to establish such posts and trading-stations within the territory as he might deem expedient.

Crele, JOSEPH, the oldest man who ever lived in America, was born in Detroit in 1725; died at Caledonia, Wis., Jan. 27, 1866. It is said that the date of his birth is established by the record of baptisms in the French Roman Catholic Church at Detroit. In 1755 he married his first wife, and was twice married afterwards. He bore arms against Braddock at the time of his defeat, and was a letter-carrier on the frontier several years before the Revolution. At the time of his death he lived with a daughter by his third wife, born when he was sixty-nine years of age. Towards the close of his life he would sometimes say, despondingly, "I fear Death has forgotten me."

Creole State. A name sometimes given to Louisiana, in which a large portion of the inhabitants are descendants of the French and Spanish settlers.

Crescent City. A name given to New Orleans. Its older portion was built around a bend of the Mississippi of crescent form.

"Crisis, The." During the old war for independence a series of political pamphlets written by Thomas Paine, an English emigrant, was published in Philadelphia. The first number, beginning with the often-quoted line, "These are the times that try men's souls," was published in December, 1776. The last number was published at the attainment of peace, April 19, 1783. So useful in encouraging the Americans to persevere in their struggle were these essays considered, that, early in 1782, when Paine had laid aside his pen for several months, he was induced by Robert Morris to resume it, with a promise that he should have pecuniary reward for his services. The series and the title were suggested by a similar series published in London (1775–76), on the first number of which it was announced "to be continued weekly during the present bloody civil war in America." (See "*Common Sense*.")

Crittenden Compromise, THE. In the United States Senate in December, 1860, when civil war was threatened, the venerable John J. Crittenden, then seventy-five years of age, a senator from Kentucky, offered a series of amendments to the National Constitution, and joint resolutions, for the protection of slavery, to satisfy the slaveholders and to secure peace, which, embodied, are known in history as the "Crittenden Compromise." The amendments substantially proposed: 1. To re-establish the line fixed in the Missouri Compromise (which see) as the boundary-line between free and slave territory; that Congress should by statute law protect slave property from interference by all the departments of the territorial governments during their continuance as such; that such territories should be admitted as states with or without slavery, as the state constitutions should determine. 2. That Congress should not abolish slavery at any place within the limits of any slave-labor state, or wherein slavery might thereafter be established. 3. That Congress should not abolish slavery in the District of Columbia so long as it should exist in the adjoining states of Maryland and Virginia, without the consent of the inhabitants thereof, nor without just compensation made to the owners of slaves who should not consent to the abolishment; that Congress should not prevent government officers sojourning in the district on business bringing their slaves with them, and taking them with them when they should depart. 4. That Congress should have no power to prohibit or hinder the transportation of slaves from one state to another, or into territories where slavery should be allowed. 5. That the National Government should pay to the owner of a fugitive slave, who might be rescued from the officers of the law, upon attempting to take him back to bondage, the full value of such "property" so lost; and that the amount should be refunded by the county in which the rescue might occur, that municipality having the power to sue for and recover the amount from the individual actors in the offence. 6. That no future amendments to the Constitution should be made that might have an effect on the previous amendments, or on any sections of the Constitution on the subject already existing; nor should any amendment be made that should give to the Congress the right to abolish or interfere with slavery in any of the states where it existed by law, or might hereafter be allowed. In addition to these amendments Senator Crittenden offered four joint resolutions, declaring substantially as follows: 1. That the Fugitive Slave Act was constitutional and must be enforced, and that laws ought to be made for the punishment of those who should interfere with its due execution. 2. That all state laws (see *Personal Liberty Bills*) which impeded the execution of the Fugitive Slave Act were null and void; that such laws had been mischievous in producing discord and commotion, and therefore the Congress should respectfully and earnestly recommend the repeal of them, or by legislation make them harmless. 3. This resolution referred to the fees of commissioners acting under the Fugitive Slave Law, and the modification of the section which required all citizens, when called upon, to aid the owner in capturing his runaway property. 4. This resolution declared that strong measures ought to be adopted for the suppression of the African slave-trade. On the 2d of March—two days before the close of the session—Mason, of Virginia, the author of the Fugitive Slave Law, called up the Crittenden propositions and resolutions, when Clarke's resolutions (which see) were reconsidered and rejected, for the purpose of obtaining a direct vote on the original proposition. After a long debate, continued into the "small hours" of Sunday morning (March 3, 1861), the Crittenden Compromise was rejected by a vote of twenty against nineteen. Had the Secessionists retained their seats, it might have been carried. A resolution of the House of Representatives was then adopted, to amend the Constitution so as to prohibit forever any amendment of that instrument interfering with slavery in any state.

Crittenden, GEORGE B., was born in Kentucky, and graduated at West Point in 1832. He resigned the next year, served in the war against Mexico (1846–48) under General Scott, joined the insurgents, and became a Confederate major-general, and, with Zollicoffer, was defeated in the battle at Mill Spring (which see) in January, 1862. He was a son of Senator J. J. Crittenden.

Crittenden, JOHN JORDON, was born in Woodford County, Ky., Sept. 10, 1786; died at Frankfort, Ky., July 26, 1863. He was aide-de-camp to Governor Shelby at the battle of the Thames (which see); became a lawyer; entered the Kentucky Legislature in 1816, and was speaker several years, and was first a member of the United States Senate in 1817–19. From 1835 to 1841 he was again in the Senate, when President Harrison called him to his cabinet as attorney-general. He was again in the Senate from 1842 to 1848, when he was elected governor of his state, which position he held when President Fillmore appointed him attorney-general in 1850. Mr. Crittenden was one of the most useful and trustworthy of the members of the national legislature, and was regarded as the "patriarch of the Senate." In the session of 1860–61 he introduced the "Crittenden Compromise" (which see). His term in the Senate expiring in March, 1861, he entered the Lower House as a representative in July following, in which he was a very ardent but conservative Union man, but was opposed to the emancipation of the slaves.

JOHN JORDON CRITTENDEN.

Crittenden, THOMAS LEONIDAS, second son of Senator J. J. Crittenden, was born at Russellville, Ky., in 1819. He served under General Taylor in the war against Mexico, and when the latter became President of the United States he sent Crittenden to Liverpool as United States Consul. He returned in 1853, and in September, 1861, was made a brigadier-general and assigned a command under General Buell. For gallantry in the battle of Shiloh he was promoted to major-general of volunteers and assigned a division in the Army of the Tennessee. He afterwards commanded the left wing of the Army of the Ohio under General Buell. Then he served under Rosecrans, taking part in the battles at Stone River and Chickamauga. His corps was among the routed of the army in the last-named battle. He commanded a division of the ninth corps in the campaign against Richmond in 1864. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general United States army.

Crockett, DAVID, was born in Greene County, Tenn., Aug. 17, 1786; died at San Antonio, Bexar Co., Texas, March, 1836. With little education, he became a noted hunter in his early life; served under Jackson in the Creek War; was a member of Congress from 1828 to 1834, and removed to Texas in the latter year, where he became zealously engaged in the war for Texan independence. While fighting for the defence of the Alamo at San Antonio, he fell, mortally wounded.

Croghan, GEORGE, Indian agent, was born in Ireland; died at Passyunk, Penn., in the summer of 1782. Educated in Dublin, he emigrated to Pennsylvania, and in 1746 was engaged in trade with the Indians. Acquiring their language and friendship, Pennsylvania made him Indian agent. Captain in Braddock's expedition in 1755, he showed such excellence in military matters that in 1756 he was intrusted with the defence of the western frontier of Pennsylvania, and was made by Sir William Johnson his deputy, who, in 1763, sent him to England to confer with the ministry about an Indian boundary-line. On that voyage he was wrecked on the coast of France. In May, 1776, Croghan founded a settlement four miles above Fort Pitt (now Pittsburgh). He was active in securing the attachment of the Indians to the British interest until 1776, but took no active part in the events of the Revolution.

Croghan, GEORGE, was born near Louisville, Ky., Nov. 15, 1791; died in New Orleans, Jan. 8, 1849. He was educated at the College of William and Mary, which he left in 1810; was aide to Colonel Boyd in the battle of Tippecanoe (which see) in 1811, and made captain of infantry in March, 1812. In March, 1813, he became an aide of General Harrison, and in August of the same year sustained the siege of Fort Stephenson (which see) against a force of British and Indians, for which he was breveted a captain and awarded a gold medal by Congress. He was made lieutenant-colonel early in 1814, and resigned in 1817. Colonel Croghan was postmaster at New Orleans in 1824, and late in the next year was appointed inspector-general of the army, with the rank of colonel. He served under Taylor in Mexico at the beginning of the war with that power.

Cromwell, OLIVER, Lord Protector of England, was born at Huntingdon, April 25, 1599; died at the Palace of Whitehall, Sept. 3, 1658. His social position was thus described by himself: "I was by birth a gentleman, neither living in any considerable height nor yet in obscurity." His family was connected with the St. Johns, Hampdens, and other English historical families. It is a curious fact that when he was five years of age he had a fight with Prince Charles, who, as king, was beheaded and succeeded by Cromwell as the ruler of England. He flogged the young prince, who was then with his family visiting Cromwell's uncle. As a boy he was much given to robbing orchards and playing unpleasant pranks. He lived a wild life at Sidney-Sussex College, Cambridge, whither he was sent in 1616. He left college after his father's death next year, and in 1620 married a daughter of Sir James Bourchier, when his manner of life changed, and he became an earnest Christian worker for good, praying, preaching, and exhorting among the Puritans. He became a member of Parliament in 1628, and always exercised much influence in that body. He was a radical in opposition to royalty in the famous Long Parliament. When the Civil War commenced he became one of the most active of the men in the field, and was made a colonel in 1643 under the Earl of Essex, the parliamentary lord-general. He raised a cavalry regiment, and excited in them and other troops which he afterwards led the religious zeal of the Puritans, and directed it with force against royalty. That regiment became the most famous in the revolutionary army. After the death of the king he resolved to become sole ruler of England. He had effected the prostration of the monarchy, not from ambitious, but from patriotic motives; but in his efforts for power after the execution he was a bold operator. When the Scotch partisans of the son of the king (afterwards Charles II.) invaded England and penetrated to Worcester, Cromwell, with thirty thousand English troops, gained a decisive victory over them. Grateful to the victor, the government gave him an estate worth $20,000 a year and assigned him Hampton Court as his abode. He now sought supreme rule. On April 20, 1653, he boldly drove the remnant of the Long Parliament which ruled England, out of the House of Commons by military force. The same day the Council of State was broken up, and for weeks anarchy prevailed in England. Cromwell issued a summons for one hundred and fifty-six persons named to meet at Westminster as a Parliament. They met (all but two) in July. This was the famous "Barebones' Parliament," so called after one of its Puritan members named Praise God Barebones. It was a weak body, and in December, 1653, Cromwell was declared Lord Protector of Great Britain, and the executive and legislative powers were vested in him and a Parliament. In his administration of affairs he exerted considerable influence in the English-American colonies. His administration was a stormy one, for plots for his assassination were frequently discovered, and he was constantly harassed by the opposition of men who had acted with him but were honest Republicans, which he was not. With shattered body and distracted mind, he sank into the grave from the effects of a tertian fever. He died on the anniversary of the battle of Worcester.

Cromwell, the Buccaneer. One of the earliest of the famous buccaneers was Captain Cromwell, who had been a common sailor in New England. In 1646 he was in command of three fast-sailing brigantines, filled with armed men, and was driven into the harbor of New Plymouth by a storm. Cromwell, under the authority of a sort of second-hand commission from High-admiral (Earl of) Warwick, had captured in the West Indies several richly laden Spanish vessels. These freebooters spent money freely at Plymouth. Cromwell and his men soon afterwards went to Boston, where he lodged with a poor man who had helped him when he was poor, and gave him generous compensation. Winthrop, who had lately been re-elected governor, received from this freebooter an elegant sedan chair captured in one of his prizes, designed as a gift by the Viceroy of Mexico to his sister.

Crook, George, was born near Dayton, Ohio, Sept. 8, 1828, and graduated at West Point in 1852. In May, 1861, he was promoted to captain. He did good service in western Virginia, and in September was made brigadier-general and took command of the Kanawha District. In command of a division of cavalry in the Army of the Cumberland, he was at Chickamauga (which see) and drove Wheeler across the Tennessee. (See *Wheeler's Raid.*) Breveted major-general (July, 1864), he was put in command of the Army of West Virginia, and took part in Sheridan's operations in the Shenandoah Valley. He was made major-general of volunteers in October, and late in February, 1865, was captured by guerillas, but exchanged the next month. Besides other brevets he was breveted brigadier-general of the regular army March 13, 1865.

Cross Keys. When Banks was expelled from the Shenandoah Valley (see *Winchester*), the city of Washington was in real danger, and it could only be relieved from peril by the retreat or capture of the Confederates. For this purpose McDowell sent a force over the Blue Ridge, to intercept them if they should retreat, and Frémont pressed on from the west towards Strasburg with the same object in view. Perceiving the threatened danger, Jackson fled up the valley with his whole force, hotly pursued by the Nationals, and at Cross Keys, beyond Harrisonburg, Frémont overtook Ewell, when a sharp but indecisive battle occurred. Ewell had about five thousand men, strongly posted. There he was attacked (on Sunday morning, June 7, 1862) by Frémont with the force with which he had moved out of Harrisonburg. General Schenck led the right, General Milroy the centre, and General Stahl the left. Between the extremes was a force under Colonel Cluseret. At eleven o'clock the conflict was general and severe, and continued several hours, Milroy and Schenck all the while gaining ground, the former with heavy loss. At four o'clock the whole National line was ordered to fall back at the moment when Milroy had pierced Ewell's centre, and was almost up to his guns. Milroy obeyed the order, but with great reluctance, for he felt sure of victory. The Confederates occupied the battlefield that night, and the Nationals rested within their first line until morning, when Ewell was called to aid Jackson beyond the Shenandoah River. The National loss in the battle was six hundred and sixty-four, of which two thirds fell in Stahl's brigade.

Crown Officers Clamor for Taxing the Colonies. After the Congress at Annapolis (which see), every crown officer in the colonies urged upon the British government the necessity of devising some plan for deriving a revenue from taxation of the colonies. Their recommendations put forth the idea that "a common fund must be either voluntarily raised or assessed some other way." Even the moderate Sharpe, of Maryland, recommended that the governor and council of each colony should be vested with power, independent of the Assembly, to levy money "after any manner that may be deemed most ready and convenient."

Crown Officers, Selection of. On the 28th of March, 1774, a bill passed Parliament, by the overwhelming majority of two hundred and thirty-nine against sixty-four, which was tantamount to an abrogation of the Charter of Massachusetts. It gave to the crown the appointment of counsellors and judges of the supreme court; and the nomination of all other officers, military, executive, and judicial, was given to the governor, independent of any approval by the Council. To the sheriffs, instead of the selectmen of the towns, was given the selection of jurors; and all town-meetings, except for elections, were prohibited. It was a direct blow at the liberties of the people.

Crown Point, in Essex County, N. Y., was quite an important trading-station between the English and the Indians until 1731, when the French took possession of this cape, projecting into Lake Champlain on its western side, and built a military work there, which they called Fort Frederick. It remained in possession of the French until 1759, when the approach of a large English force, under General Amherst, caused the garrison there to join that at Ticonderoga, in their flight down the lake to its outlet. (See *Ticonderoga, Capture of*, 1759.) Amherst remained at Crown Point long enough to construct a sufficient number of rude boats to convey his troops, artillery, and baggage, and then started to drive the enemy before him across the St. Lawrence. The delay prevented his joining Wolfe at Quebec. When ready to move, it was mid-autumn (October 11), and heavy storms compelled him to return to Crown Point, after going a short distance down the lake. There he placed his troops in winter-quarters, where they constructed a fortress, whose picturesque ruins, after the lapse of more than a century, still attest its original strength. The whole circuit, measuring along the ramparts, was a trifle less than half a mile; and it was surrounded by a broad ditch, cut out of the solid limestone, with the fragments taken out of which massive stone barracks were constructed. In it was a well, eight feet in diameter and ninety feet deep, also cut out of the limestone. The fortress was never entirely finished, although the British government spent nearly $10,000,000 upon it and its outworks. Crown Point was an important place during the old war for independence.

CROWN POINT.

Crown Point, Campaign against (1756). The conduct of the second campaign against Crown Point was intrusted to General John Winslow (a great-grandson of Edward Winslow, governor of Plymouth), who led the expedition against the Acadians in 1755. (See *Acadians, Expulsion of.*) The Earl of Loudoun was commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, and General James Abercrombie was his lieutenant. General Winslow had collected seven thousand men at Albany before Abercrombie's arrival, with several British regiments, in June. Difficulties immediately occurred respecting military rank. These, unadjusted when Loudoun arrived, were made worse by his arrogant assumption of supreme rank for the royal officers, and the troops were not ready to move until August. Vigorous measures were meanwhile taken to supply and reinforce the forts at Oswego. John Bradstreet, appointed commissary-general, employed for this purpose forty companies of boatmen, of fifty men each. Before this could be accomplished, the French, under Montcalm, captured the post at Oswego, which event so alarmed the inefficient Loudoun that he abandoned all other plans of the campaign for the year. A regiment of British regulars, under Colonel Webb, on their march to reinforce Oswego, on hearing of the disaster, fell back to Albany with terror and precipitation; and other troops, moving towards Ticonderoga, were ordered to halt, and devote their efforts towards strengthening forts Edward and William Henry.

Crown Point, Expedition against (1755). The plan of the campaign for 1755 (see *French and Indian War*) contemplated an expedition against the French at Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, to be commanded by William Johnson. He accomplished more than Braddock or Shirley, yet failed to achieve the main object of the expedition. The Assembly of New York had voted £8000 towards the enlistment in Connecticut of two thousand men for the Niagara and Crown Point expedition; and after hearing of Braddock's defeat, they raised four hundred men of their own, in addition to eight hundred which they had already in the field. The troops destined for the northern expedition, about six thousand in number, were drawn from New England, New Jersey, and New York. They were led by General Phineas Lyman, of Connecticut, to the head of boat navigation on the Hudson, where they built Fort Lyman, afterwards called Fort Edward. There Johnson joined them (August) with stores, took the chief command, and advanced to Lake George. The Baron Dieskau had, meanwhile, ascended Lake Champlain with two thousand men, whom he brought from Montreal. Landing at South Bay, at the southern extremity of Lake Champlain, Dieskau marched against Fort Lyman, but suddenly changed his route, and led his troops against Johnson, at the head of Lake George, where his camp was protected on two sides by an impassable swamp. Informed of this movement of the French and Indian allies (Sept. 7), Johnson sent forward (Sept. 8) one thousand Massachusetts troops, under the command of Colonel Ephraim Williams, and two hundred Mohawk Indians, under King Hendrick, to intercept the enemy. The English fell into an ambuscade. Williams and Hendrick were both killed, and their followers fell back in great confusion to Johnson's camp, hotly pursued. The latter had heard of the disaster before the fugitives appeared, cast up breastworks of logs and limbs, and placed two cannons upon them, and was prepared to receive the pursuers of the English. Dieskau and his victorious troops came rushing on, without suspicion of being confronted with artillery. They came, a motley host, with swords, pikes, muskets, and tomahawks, and made a spirited attack, but at the discharge of cannon the Indians fled in terror to the forests. So, also, did the Canadian militia. Johnson had been wounded early in the fight, and it was carried through victoriously by General Lyman, who, hearing the din of battle, had come from Fort Lyman with troops. The battle continued several hours, when, Dieskau being severely wounded and made a prisoner, the French withdrew, and hastened to Crown Point. Their baggage was captured by some New Hampshire troops. The French loss was estimated at one thousand men; that of the English at three hundred. Johnson did not follow the discomfited enemy, but built a strong military work on the site of his camp, which he called Fort William Henry. He also changed the name of Fort Lyman to Fort Edward, in compliment to the royal family; and he was rewarded for the success achieved by Lyman with a baronetcy and $20,000 to support the new title. The French strengthened their works at Crown Point, and fortified Ticonderoga.

Crown Point, FRENCH AT (1731). The Canadian authorities at Montreal sent a party to occupy Crown Point, on the west shore of Lake Champlain, within one hundred miles of Albany. This movement startled New York and New England. The Assembly of the former resolved that "this encroachment, if not prevented, would prove of the most pernicious consequence to this and other colonies." They sent notice of the encroachment to Pennsylvania, Connecticut, and Massachusetts, and applied to the Board of Trade and Plantations for aid. That body supported their complaints, but Robert Walpole judiciously counselled peace. The last two wars of England with France had laid upon England the burden of a national debt of $250,000,000; and, in spite of the remonstrances of New York and New England, the French quietly occupied the shores of the lake, built a fort at Crown Point, and made a settlement on the east side of the water.

Crozat and Louisiana. The first settlement in Louisiana was made at Biloxi (now in Mississippi) in 1699. In 1702 there were settlements begun on Dauphin Island and at Mobile, now in Alabama. The French government, wishing to promote more rapid settlements in that region, granted (1712) the whole province, with a monopoly of trade, to Anthony Crozat, a wealthy French merchant, who expected large profits from mines and trade with Mexico. Crozat contracted to send ships from France, with goods and emigrants, every year; and he was entitled to import a cargo of negro slaves annually. The French government also agreed to pay $10,000 a year for the civil and military establishments. Crozat established a trading-house on the site of Montgomery, on the Alabama River, and another at Natchitoches, on the Red River. Fort Rosalie was built on the site of Natchez, about which a town soon grew up, the oldest on the Lower Mississippi. Crozat made ineffectual attempts to open a trade with Mexico, and the intercourse by sea was prohibited after the war. After five years of large outlay and small returns, Crozat resigned his patent (1717); but other speculators soon filled his place. The Mississippi Company (see *Law's Bubble*) was granted the monopoly of all trade with Louisiana for twenty-five years. They attempted to introduce six thousand white people and half as many negroes, and private individuals to whom grants of land had been made, also sent out colonists. Law, having twelve square miles of land in Arkansas, undertook to settle the domain with 1500 Germans. The Mississippi Company resigned Louisiana to the crown in 1732.

Cruger and Brown. Colonel Brown, who was in command at Augusta, Ga., had been defeated by Colonel Clarke, who captured costly presents designed for the Cherokees, which the British had intrusted to the active loyalist commander. With a corps of one hundred provincials and one thousand Cherokees, Brown maintained a position on Garden Hill against the Americans for nearly a week, when he was rescued (September, 1780) by Colonel Cruger, the loyalist commander at Fort Ninety-six. At Cruger's approach the Americans retired, and were pursued. Some were killed and scalped, and some were made prisoners. Of the latter, Captain Ashby and twelve others were hanged under the immediate direction of Brown; thirteen were delivered to the Cherokees, and perished by tortures or the tomahawk, or were thrown into fires. By Brown's orders thirty of the prisoners were put to death. Cruger, accompanied by Major Patrick Ferguson (see *King's Mountain*), attempted to waylay the retreating party, but did not succeed. (See *Augusta, Siege of.*)

Cruger, HENRY, JR., was born in New York city, in 1739; died there, April 24, 1827. His father became a merchant in Bristol, Eng., where he died in 1780. Henry was associated with him in trade, and succeeded him as Mayor of Bristol in 1781. He had been elected to Parliament as the colleague of Edmund Burke in 1774, and was re-elected in 1784, and on all occasions advocated conciliatory measures towards his countrymen. After the war he became a merchant in New York, and, while yet a member of the British Parliament, was elected to the Senate of the State of New York.

Cruger, JOHN HARRIS, loyalist, was born in New York city in 1738; died in London, Jan. 3, 1807. He was brother of Henry Cruger, and succeeded his father as member of the governor's council. He married a daughter of Colonel Oliver De Lancey, and commanded a battalion of his loyalist corps. He served under Cornwallis in South Carolina, and was in command of Fort Ninety-six (which see) when besieged by Greene in May, 1781, and was praised for his successful defence of the post until relieved by Lord Rawdon. In the battle of Eutaw Spring, in September, he commanded the British centre. At the close of the war he went to England, and his property was confiscated.

Cuba, one of the Spanish West India Islands, and the largest of the group. Early in the 16th century it was a conspicuous point of departure for discoverers, explorers, and conquerors of the American continent. The island was discovered by Columbus on the 28th of October, 1492, when, it is believed, he entered a bay near Nuevitas, on the north coast. He gave it the name of Juana, in honor of Prince Juan, or John, son of Isabella. Other names were afterwards given to it, but that of the natives—Cuba—is retained. It was very thickly populated by a docile and loving copper-colored race, who were rightfully called by themselves The Good. When, in the winter of 1509–10, Ojeda was sailing from Central America to Santo Domingo (see *Ojeda*) with some of his followers, his vessel was stranded on the southern shores of Cuba. He and his crew suffered dreadfully in the morasses, and more than half of them perished. They feared the natives, to whose protection persecuted ones in Santo Domingo had fled, but hunger compelled the Spaniards to seek for food among them. These suffering Christians were treated most kindly by the pagans, and through their good offices Ojeda was enabled to reach Jamaica, then settled by his countrymen. He had built a chapel in Cuba, and over its altar-piece he placed a small Flemish painting of the Virgin, and taught the natives to worship her as the "Mother of God." Then Ojeda, on reaching Santo Domingo, told his countrymen of the abundance of precious metals in Cuba, when Diego Velasquez, appointed governor of Cuba by Diego Columbus, went with three hundred men and made an easy conquest of it. The natives had kept Ojeda's chapel swept clean, made votive offerings to the Virgin, composed couplets to her, and sung them with accompaniments of instrumental music as they danced in the surrounding groves, and tried to convince their pious conquerors that they were fellow-Christians, but in vain. The conquerors made slaves of them, and so cruelly worked and treated them, men and women, in the fields and mines, that in less than fifty years only a few natives were left, and their places were partially supplied by negro slaves. Cruelty was the rule with the conquerors. Velasquez found there a rich and potent cacique, who had fled from Hispaniola to avoid slavery or death, and he condemned the fugitive to the flames. When he was fastened to the stake, a Franciscan friar, laboring to convert him, promised him immediate admittance to the joys of heaven if he would embrace the Christian faith, and threatened him with eternal torment if he should continue in his unbelief. The cacique asked whether there were any Spaniards in that region of bliss, and being answered in the affirmative, replied, "I will not go to a place where I may meet one of that accursed race." De Soto was made captain-general of Cuba in 1537, and from that island he sailed to make a conquest of Florida. From it Cordova also sailed, and Grijalva, when they went and discovered Mexico; and from it Velasquez sent Cortez to make a conquest of the empire of Montezuma. Cuba has remained in the possession of the Spaniards ever since the conquest. The introduction of negroes for slaves was gradual; and towards the close of the 16th century monastic institutions and a delegate of the Inquisition were introduced there. Cuba has experienced revolts, but no successful revolution. Since the beginning of this century there has been much discontent on the island, especially among the Creole population. During the last thirty years there has been manifested a strong desire among a portion of the people of the United States to annex Cuba to our republic. In 1848, President Polk authorized the American minister at Madrid to offer $100,000,000 for Cuba, but it was rejected. Soon after that, fruitless expeditions from our shores to create a revolution there in favor of Cuban independence have occurred; and in the summer of 1854, three American ministers in Europe held a conference at Ostend, in Belgium, and issued a statement (see *Ostend Manifesto*) that Cuba ought to belong to the United States, and that, in case the slaves of Cuba should be emancipated, the United States ought to take Cuba from Spain by force; and John Slidell, of Louisiana, offered a resolution in the United States Senate, in the session of 1858–59, to place $30,000,000 in the hands of President Buchanan, with a view to the acquisition of the island. A revolt broke out in 1868, which was not quelled until early in 1878, at which time nearly 100,000 soldiers had been sent from Spain, one seventh of whom had died or been killed.

Cullum, GEORGE WASHINGTON, was born Feb. 25, 1812, and graduated at West Point in 1833, entering the engineer corps, and becoming captain in July, 1838. He was made major in August, 1861, lieutenant-colonel in March, 1863, and colonel, March, 1867, which rank in the United States Army he still holds. He is one of the most accomplished and useful officers of engineers in the United States Army, as the military works he has superintended the construction of attest. From 1845 to 1848 he was instructor of practical engineering in the West Point Military Academy, during which time he spent two years in Europe. He served as aide-de-camp to General Scott in 1861, and in November was made brigadier of volunteers, serving on the staff of General Halleck in 1862, and accompanying him to Washington. He was an efficient member of the United States Sanitary Commission (which see), superintendent of West Point Academy from 1864 to 1866, and in 1865 was breveted major-general in the United States Army. General Cullum has published several books on military affairs, and a *Biographical Register of the Officers and Graduates of West Point.*

Culpepper and Arlington. In 1673 King Charles gave to two of his profligate courtiers, Lord Culpepper and the Earl of Arlington, "all the domain of land and water called Virginia" for thirty years. A commission was given to Culpepper as governor for life, to take effect whenever Berkeley (which see) should vacate the office. He purchased the interest of Arlington in the royal grant. Preferring to engage in the profligate enjoyments of London and a court life, he did not go to Virginia until 1680; or three years after Berkeley had left the province. His profligacy and rapacity there disgusted the people, and discontent ripened into open insurrection. By the king's order, the governor caused several of the insurgents, who were men of influence, to be hanged. A reign of terror, miscalled tranquillity, followed. At length the king himself became incensed against Culpepper, revoked his grant in 1684, and deprived him of office.

Culpepper, JOHN, was surveyor-general in the Carolinas, and in 1678 headed an insurrection in the Albemarle or North Colony in favor of popular liberty. Led by him, the people deposed the officers appointed by the proprietaries, seized the public funds, appointed new officers, and organized a new government. Sent to England to effect a compromise, Culpepper was indicted for high-treason, but through the influence of the Earl of Shaftesbury he was acquitted. He returned to the Carolinas, and in 1680 laid the foundations of the city of Charleston.

Culpepper, THOMAS (Lord), was governor of Virginia from 1680 to 1683, and died in 1719. He was one of the parasites of Charles II., to whom the territory of Virginia was granted. From cograntees in 1669, he purchased the domain between the Potomac and Rappahannock rivers. His daughter, Lady Fairfax, inherited his estate. As one of the Commissioners for Plantations (which see), he was deprived of his office in 1683, in consequence of irregularities in relation to colonial affairs.

Cumberland, DUKE OF. At the opening of the French and Indian War (which see), in 1754, the Duke of Cumberland, commander-in-chief of the British Army, was intrusted with the direction and conduct of American affairs. He was fond of war, and cruel and sanguinary in disposition. He was thoroughly brave, and ambitious of military renown. A thorough disciplinarian, he never forgave neglect in the service. The duke entered heartily into the war with France, but, misunderstanding the character and temper of the American colonists, he made many blunders in his management of colonial affairs at that crisis.

Cumberland Mountains, NAMED AND PASSED. In 1747, Dr. Thomas Walker, of the Council of Virginia, penetrated the mountainous districts in the southwestern portion of that province, and crossed the great range of hills that separates the valley of the Tennessee from the head-waters of the more northerly tributaries of the Ohio. He named the ridge "Cumberland Mountains," in honor of the Duke of Cumberland, who had lately gained a victory over the "Young Pretender" at the battle of Culloden. He gave the same name to one of the rivers that flowed from the western slopes of these mountains. The more northerly one he called Louisa, but it retains its Indian title, *Kain-tuck-ee′*, giving the accent on the middle syllable, Ken-tuck′y. So the fertile regions of Tennessee and Kentucky were first revealed to the English.

Cumberland Road, THE. (See *Internal Improvements.*)

Cunningham, WILLIAM, a brutal provost-marshal of the British Army in America, in the war for independence, was executed in England for forgery, Aug. 10, 1791. He starved, persecuted, and murdered American prisoners in the city of New York. Of such captives under his care, nearly two thousand were starved to death (whose rations he sold), and more than two hundred and fifty were privately hung, without trial, to gratify his brutal appetite.

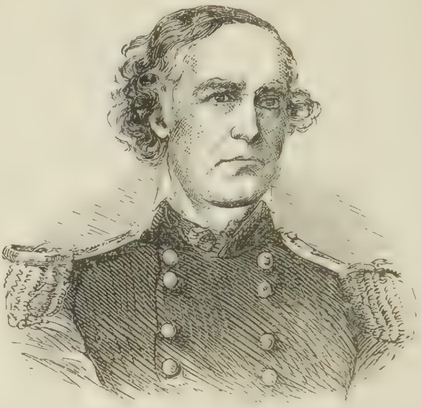
Cunningham's Raid. During the winter of 1780–81, William Cunningham, a notorious Tory leader, under orders from Colonel Balfour, at Charleston, led one hundred and fifty white men and negroes into the interior of South Carolina, to "distress the inhabitants." On his march he killed every person he met whom he suspected of being friendly to the United States, and burned their dwellings. In this way about fifty persons perished. A house which sheltered thirty-five Americans, commanded by Colonel Hayes, was fired upon because the inmates refused to surrender at discretion. At length the marauding party set fire to the house, when the garrison capitulated. An agreement was made and signed, in which it was stipulated that the Americans should be treated as prisoners of war until exchanged. No sooner had they given up their arms than Cunningham hanged Colonel Hayes to the limb of a tree. In like manner his second in command was treated; and with his own hand Cunningham slew some of the other prisoners, and requested his men to follow his example. These facts were proven before a judicial tribunal. The name of "Bill Cunningham" became a cause for terror over large districts in South Carolina.

Curtin, ANDREW GREGG, "war-governor" of Pennsylvania, born at Bellefonte, Penn., April 28, 1817, was an active lawyer and politician, and governor of his native state when the Civil War broke out. He had been Secretary of State from 1855 to 1858, and Superintendent of Common Schools in 1860. He was re-elected governor in 1863, and was sent by President Grant as minister to Russia in 1869.

ANDREW GREGG CURTIN.

Curtis, George William, born in Providence, R. I., Feb. 24, 1824. Until his twenty-second year he was engaged in acquiring knowledge and skill for the literary career he has pursued. In 1846 he went abroad, and, after spending a year in Italy, entered the University of Berlin, where he saw the revolutionary movements of 1848. He spent two years in travelling in Europe, Egypt, and Syria, returning to the United States in 1850, in which year he published *Nile Notes of a Howadji.* He joined the editorial staff of the *New York Tribune*, and was one of the original editors of *Putnam's Monthly.* He was for many years an eloquent and successful lyceum lecturer, and is still (1880) regarded as one of the most accomplished orators in the United States. In 1867 he became editor of *Harper's Weekly*, and still holds that position. In his writings and speeches he has been an efficient supporter of the Republican party since its organization, and has contributed a vast number of very able short essays through *Harper's Monthly*, in the department of "The Easy Chair." In 1871 President Grant appointed Mr. Curtis one of a commission to draw up rules for the regulation of the Civil Service. He was one of the members of the Constitutional Convention of the State of New York in 1868, in which he was Chairman of the Committee on Education. Since 1864 he has been one of the regents of the University of the State of New York.

Curtis, Samuel Ryan, born in Ohio, Feb. 3, 1807; died at Council Bluffs, Io., Dec. 25, 1866. Graduated at West Point in 1831, and the following year left the army and studied law; served under General Taylor in the war with Mexico, and was General Wool's assistant adjutant-general in that war. He was for a while governor of Saltillo. He became a member of Congress in 1857, retaining that position until 1861, and was a member of the Peace Congress (which see). In May, 1861, he was appointed brigadier-general of volunteers, and major-general in March, 1862. Commanding the army in Missouri, he gained the battle of Pea Ridge (which see). After the war he was appointed United States Commissioner to treat with Indian tribes—Sioux, Cheyennes, and others.



SAMUEL RYAN CURTIS.

Cushing, Caleb, LL.D., was born at Salisbury, Mass., Jan. 17, 1800; died at Newburyport, Mass., Jan. 2, 1879. Graduated at Harvard University in 1817. He became a distinguished lawyer, in which profession he began practice at Newburyport, Mass. Mr. Cushing served in the State Legislature, and was in Congress from 1835 to 1843, as a Whig representative, when, with Mr. Tyler, he became an active member of the Democratic party. President Tyler sent him as Commissioner to China, where, in 1844, he negotiated an important treaty. He advocated the policy of war with Mexico, and led a regiment to the field. In 1853 President Pierce called Mr. Cushing to his cabinet as Attorney-general. As president of the Democratic convention at Charleston (1860), he took part with the Secessionists. In 1866 he was one of three commissioners appointed to codify the laws of the United States.

CALEB CUSHING.

Cushing, Thomas, LL.D., was born in Boston March 24, 1725; died Feb. 28, 1788. He graduated at Harvard in 1744, and for many years represented his native city in the General Court, of which body he became speaker in 1763, and held that position until 1774. His signature was affixed, during all that time, to all public documents of the province, which made his name so conspicuous that, in his pamphlet, *Taxation no Tyranny*, Dr. Johnson said, "One object of the Americans is said to be to adorn the brows of Cushing with a diadem." He was a member of the first and second Continental Congress; was commissary-general in 1775; was a judge; and in 1779 was elected lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, which office he held until his death.

Cushing, William B., U. S. Navy, was born in Wisconsin, Nov. 24, 1842; died in Washington, D. C., Dec. 17, 1874. He entered the navy in 1857, resigned, and was reappointed in 1861. He performed exploits remarkable for coolness and courage during the war, the most notable of which was the destruction of the Confederate ram *Albemarle*, at Plymouth, N. C. (See *Albemarle.*) For this he received a vote of thanks from Congress. In 1868–69 he commanded (as lieutenant-commander) the steamer *Maumee*, in the Asiatic squadron.

Cushing, William, LL.D., born at Scituate, Mass., March 1, 1732; died there, Sept. 13, 1810. Graduated at Harvard University in 1751. He studied law, became eminent in his profession, was attorney-general of Massachusetts, a judge of probate in 1768, judge of the Superior Court in 1772, and in 1777 succeeded his father as chief-justice of that court. Under the Massachusetts Constitution of 1788 he was made chief-justice of the state; and in 1789 President Washington appointed him a justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. He offered him the chief-justiceship in 1796, as the successor of Jay, but he declined it. He administered the oath of office to Washington in his second inauguration.

Cushman, Charlotte Saunders, an eminent actress, was born in Boston, Mass., July 23, 1816; died there, Feb. 18, 1876. At the age of nineteen years she made her first appearance on the stage, at the Tremont Theatre, Boston, as a singer, the pecuniary misfortunes of her father rendering it necessary for her to assist in the support of the family. She was soon engaged to sing in English opera in New Orleans, but almost immediately after her arrival there her voice failed. She then became an actress, making her first appearance, as Lady Macbeth, with great success. From that time forward her professional life was a constant success, her last appearance on the stage being in 1871. For some time she gave choice dramatic readings. In social life she held a high position, for her character was marked by purity and dignity, and she honored the profession which she was compelled to embrace by the force of circumstances.

Cushman, Robert, one of the founders of the Plymouth Colony, was born in England about the year 1580, and died in 1625. He joined the Society of the "Pilgrims" in Holland, and became very active. He and John Carver were appointed agents to make arrangements for the emigration of the church to America, and he was one of the number who sailed in the *Speedwell*, and were compelled to return on account of her unseaworthiness. Mr. Cushman remained with those who did not go in the *Mayflower*. He went to New Plymouth in the autumn of 1621, taking with him thirty-five other persons, and there delivered the charter to the colonists. He preached the first sermon by an ordained minister in New England on Dec. 12. On the following day he sailed for England. The vessel and cargo were captured by the French, and plundered of everything, and Cushman was detained two weeks on the French coast. On his return to London he published his sermon in New England *On the Sin and Danger of Self-love*, and also an eloquent vindication of the colonial enterprise. He made a strong appeal for missions to be sent to the American Indians. Mr. Cushman continued the agent of the Plymouth Colony in London until his death.

Custer, George A., was born at New Rumley, O., Dec. 5, 1839; was killed by Indians June 25, 1876. He graduated at West Point in 1861, and was an active and daring cavalry officer during the Civil War, distinguishing himself on many occasions. He never lost a gun nor a color. In June, 1863, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and was breveted major-general in 1864. He was particularly distinguished in the battles immediately preceding the surrender of Lee at Appomattox Courthouse. He was exceptionally fortunate in his military career during the Civil War, and was made lieutenant-colonel of the Seventh cavalry in 1866, receiving the brevet of major-general in the United States Army for services ending in Lee's surrender. He afterwards commanded expeditions against the Indians in the far West. In 1879 a statue of General Custer was erected at West Point.

Custer's Raid. General Custer, with fifteen hundred cavalry, crossed the Rapid Anna (Feb. 27, 1864) for the purpose chiefly of diverting the attention of the Confederates from Kilpatrick's raid (which see). Custer flanked Lee's army on the west, and pushed on to within four miles of Charlottesville, where he was checked by a superior Confederate force with a battery. Turning northward, Custer had several skirmishes, and then returned to camp, followed by a large number of refugees from slavery.

Custis, George Washington Parke, adopted son of General Washington, was born April 30, 1781; died at Arlington House, opposite Georgetown, D. C., Oct. 10, 1857. He was a grandson of Mrs. Washington. His father was John Parke Custis, and his mother was Eleanor Calvert, of Maryland. At the siege of Yorktown (1781) his father was aide-de-camp to Washington; was seized with camp-fever; retired to Eltham, and there died before Washington (who hastened thither immediately after the surrender) could reach his bedside. Washington afterwards adopted his two children—Eleanor Parke and George Washington Parke Custis—as his own. Their early home was at Mount Vernon. George was educated partly at Princeton, and was eighteen years of age at the time of Washington's death, who made him an executor of his will and left him a handsome estate, on which he lived, until his death, in literary, artistic, and agricultural pursuits. In his early days Mr. Custis was an eloquent speaker; and in his later years he produced a series of historical pictures, valuable, not as works of art, but for the truthfulness of the costume and equipment of the soldiers delineated in them. His *Personal Recollections of Washington* were arranged and fully annotated by Benson J. Lossing, and published in 1859, with a memoir by his daughter, Mrs. Robert E. Lee.

Custom-house, A, was first established at Charleston, S.C., for the enforcement of the acts of trade in 1685. The colonists there cast every obstacle in the way of the enforcement of those acts. They were as obstinate as those of Massachusetts.

Custom-house, FIRST IN NEW ENGLAND, was established in Boston in 1680, with Edward Randolph as commissioner. His authority was superseded by the creation, by the General Court, of a colonial naval office. (See *Randolph, Edward.*)

Cutler, MANASSEH, LL.D., was born at Killingly, Conn., May 3, 1742; died at Hamilton, Mass., July 28, 1823. He graduated at Yale College in 1765; studied theology; was ordained in 1771; was a chaplain of a regiment in the army in 1776; became an excellent botanist; and gave the first scientific description of the plants of New England. As agent for the Ohio Company in 1787, he bought one million five hundred thousand acres of land northwest of the Ohio, and started the first company of emigrants to that region, who founded the town of Marietta in April, 1787. He travelled thither in a "sulky" (a two-wheeled, one-seated carriage), seven hundred and fifty miles, in twenty-nine days. He was a member of Congress from 1800 to 1804.

D.

Dablon, CLAUDE, a French Jesuit missionary, who labored in Canada, New York, and in the present states of Michigan and Wisconsin. He was born in 1618, and died in Quebec, Sept. 20, 1697. He began a mission at Onondaga, in New York, in 1655, and in 1661 he set out for Hudson's Bay by land. He accompanied Marquette (which see) to Lake Superior in 1668, and established the mission at the Falls of St. Mary; also one among the Fox tribe of Indians. In 1670 he became superior of the Canada Jesuit missions, and prepared the *Relations* concerning New France for 1671–72, which was printed in New York in 1861; also that for 1675. An account of Marquette's discovery of the Mississippi River was edited by him.

Dacres, JAMES RICHARD, a British admiral. His father was a commander in the battle with Arnold on Lake Champlain in 1776. The son entered the royal navy in 1796, and, being placed in command of the frigate *Guerriere* in 1811, was sent to fight the Americans. He proudly boasted that he would "send the *Constitution* to Davy Jones's locker" when he should be so fortunate as to meet her. She had escaped him in her famous retreat (see *Constitution, Retreat of*), but willingly met and fought the *Guerriere* afterwards. (See *Constitution and Guerriere.*) Dacres was then captain. He attained the rank of flag-officer in 1838, and in 1845 was vice-admiral and commander-in-chief of the fleet at the Cape of Good Hope. He was presented with a gratuity from the "Patriotic Fund" at Lloyd's, in consideration of his wound. He was married, in 1810, to Arabella Boyd, who died in 1828. Vice-admiral Dacres died in England, Dec. 4, 1853.

Daggett, NAPHTHALI, was born at Attleborough, Mass., Sept. 8, 1727; died at New Haven, Conn., Nov. 25, 1780. He graduated at Yale College in 1748, was ordained pastor of a Presbyterian church at Smithtown, Long Island, in 1751, and in 1755 was chosen professor of divinity at Yale, which position he held until his death. In 1766, on the resignation of President Clap, he was chosen president of the college *pro tempore*, and officiated in that capacity more than a year. He was an active patriot when the War of the Revolution broke out; and when the British attacked New Haven, in 1779, he took part in the resistance made by the citizens and surrounding militia. Dr. Daggett was made a

JAMES RICHARD DACRES.

prisoner, and the severe treatment to which he was subjected so shattered his constitution that he never recovered his health. After the famous "Dark Day" (which see), in 1780, he published an account of it.

Dahlgren, JOHN A., U. S. Navy, was born in Philadelphia in November, 1809; died in Washington, D. C., July 12, 1870. He entered the navy in 1826, and was made rear-admiral in 1863. He was the inventor of the Dahlgren gun, which he perfected at the navy-yard at Washington, and in 1862 he was made Chief of the Bureau of Ordnance. In July, 1863, he took command of the South Atlantic squadron, and, with the land-forces of General Gillmore, captured Morris Island and Fort Wagner, and reduced Fort Sumter to a heap of ruins. He conducted a successful expedition up the St. John's River, in Florida, in 1864, and co-operated with General Sherman in the capture of Savannah. After the evacuation of Charleston (which see) he moved his vessels up to that city. Admiral Dahlgren, besides being the inventor of a cannon, introduced into the navy the highly esteemed light boat-howitzer.

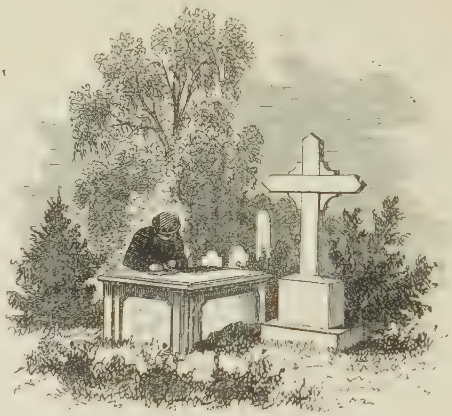
JOHN A. DAHLGREN.

Dakota originally formed a part of Minnesota Territory. It was a portion of the great Louisiana purchase in 1803. The Nebraska Territory was formed in 1854, and comprised a part of what is now Dakota. The latter territory was organized by act of Congress, approved March 2, 1861, and included the present territories of Montana and Washington (which see). In 1863 a part of the territory was included in Idaho, of which the northeastern part was organized as Montana in 1864, and the southern part was transferred to Dakota. In 1868 a large area was taken from Dakota to form Wyoming Territory (which see). The first permanent settlements of Europeans in Dakota were made in 1859, in what are now Clay, Union, and Yankton counties. The first Legislature convened March 17, 1862. Emigration was limited until 1866, when settlers began to flock in, and population has rapidly increased. Yankton, situated on the left bank of the Missouri River, is its capital. The mineral resources already developed indicate that Dakota is a territory rich in these products, and its agricultural resources are very great.

Dakotas, or **Sioux**. This is a large and powerful tribe of Indians, who were found by the French, in 1640, near the head-waters of the Mississippi River. The Algonquins called them *Nadowessioux*, whence they came to be called Sioux, and they were also called by the collective name of Dakotas. They occupied the vast domain extending from the Arkansas River, in the south, to the western tributary of Lake Winnipeg in the north, and westward to the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. They have been classed into four grand divisions—namely, the Winnebagoes, who inhabited the country between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi, among the Algonquins; the Assinniboins, or Sioux proper (the most northerly of the nation); the Minnaterees group, in Minnesota, and the Southern Sioux, who dwelt in the country between the Arkansas and Platte rivers, and whose hunting-grounds extended to the Rocky Mountains. (See *Winnebagoes*, *Assinniboins*, *Minnaterees*, and *Southern Sioux*.) In 1679 Jean Duluth, a French officer, set up the Gallic standard among them near Lake St. Peter, and the next year he rescued from them Father Hennepin, who first explored the Upper Mississippi. The French took formal possession of the country in 1685, when they were divided into seven eastern and nine western tribes. In wars with the French and other Indians, they were pushed down the Mississippi, and, driving off the inhabitants of the buffalo plains, took possession. Others remained on the shores of the St. Peter. Some of them wandered into the plains of Missouri, and there joined the Southern Sioux. In the War of 1812 the Dakotas took sides with the British. In 1822 the population of the two divisions of the Dakotas was estimated at nearly thirteen thousand. In 1837 they ceded to the United States all their lands east of the Mississippi, and in 1851 they ceded thirty-five million acres west of the Mississippi for $3,000,000. The neglect of the government to carry out all the provisions of the treaties for these cessions caused much bitter feeling, and a series of hostilities by some of the Sioux ensued; but after being defeated by General Harney, in 1855, a treaty of peace was concluded. Enraged by the failure of the government to perform its part of the bargain and the frauds practised upon them, there was a general uprising of the Upper Sioux, or Dakotas, in 1862, and nearly a thousand settlers were killed. The Lower Sioux, of the plains, also became hostile, but all were finally subdued. Full one thousand were held captive, and thirty-nine were hanged. Many bands fled into Dakota Territory, and the strength of the nation was greatly reduced. The most guilty bands fled into the British dominions, while others, from time to time, have attacked settlements and menaced forts. Loosely made treaties were violated on both sides. By one of these the Black Hills were made part of a reservation, but gold having been discovered there, the United States wished to purchase the tract, and induce the Indians to abandon that region and emigrate to the Indian Territory. They showed great reluctance to treat. Sitting Bull, Spotted Tail, and Red Cloud visited the national capital in 1875, but President Grant could not induce them to sign a treaty. Commissioners met an immense number of them at the Red Cloud Agency, in September, but the Indians set such an enormous value on their lands that nothing was done. The sending of surveyors under a military escort to the Black Hills excited the jealousy of the Sioux, and they prepared for war. In the spring of 1876 a military force was sent against them, and in June a severe battle was fought, in which General Custer and a large portion of his immediate command were slain. Sitting Bull, who led the Indians, then fled, with a large number of his followers, into the British dominions.

Dale, RICHARD, born near Norfolk, Va., Nov. 6, 1756; died in Philadelphia, Feb. 24, 1826. He went to sea at twelve years of age, and at nineteen commanded a merchant-vessel. He was first a lieutenant in the Virginia navy, and entered the Continental navy, as midshipman, in 1776. He was captured in 1777, and confined in Mill Prison, England, from which he escaped, but was recaptured in London, and taken back. The next year he escaped, reached France, joined Paul Jones, and soon became lieutenant of the *Bonhomme Richard*, receiving a wound in the famous battle with the *Serapis*. (See *Bonhomme Richard and Serapis.*) He continued to do good service to the end of the war, and in 1794 was made captain. He commanded the squadron ordered to the Mediterranean in 1801, and in April, 1802, returning home, he resigned his commission. He spent the latter years of his life in ease in Philadelphia. The remains of Commodore Dale were buried in Christ Churchyard, Philadelphia, and over the grave is a white marble slab with a long inscription.

RICHARD DALE.


DALE'S MONUMENT.

Dale, SIR THOMAS, governor of Virginia, died near Bantam, East Indies, early in 1620. He was a distinguished soldier in the Low Countries, and was knighted by King James in 1606. Appointed chief magistrate of Virginia, he administered the government on the basis of martial law; planted new settlements on the James, towards the Falls (now Richmond); and introduced salutary changes in the land laws of the colony. He conquered the Appomattox Indians. In 1611 Sir Thomas Gates succeeded him, but he resumed the office in 1614. In 1616 he returned to England; went to Holland; and in 1619 was made commander of the East India fleet, when, near Bantam, he fought the Dutch.

Dallas, ALEXANDER JAMES, was born in the island of Jamaica, June 21, 1759; died at Trenton, N. J., Jan. 16, 1817. He was the son of a Scotch physician, and his mother becoming a widow and marrying again, by which he was deprived of any share in his father's estate, he left home in 1783, settled in Philadelphia, and was admitted to the practice of law in that state. He soon became a practitioner in the Supreme Court of the United States. He wrote for the newspapers, and at one time was the editor of the *Columbian Magazine*. He was appointed Secretary of State of Pennsylvania in 1791, and was engaged as paymaster of a force to quell the Whiskey Insurrection (which see). In 1801 he was appointed United States Attorney for the Eastern Department of Pennsylvania, and he held that position until called to the cabinet of Madison as Secretary of the Treasury in October, 1814. In 1815 he also performed the duties of the War Office, and was earnest in his efforts to re-establish a national bank. He resigned in November, 1816, and resumed the practice of law, in which profession he was always eminently successful.

Dallas, GEORGE MIFFLIN, LL.D., was born in Philadelphia, July 10, 1792; died there Dec. 31, 1864. He graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1810, and was admitted to the bar in 1813. He went with Mr. Gallatin to Russia as private secretary, and returned in 1814, when he assisted his father in the Treasury Department. In 1828 he was Mayor of Philadelphia; United States Senator from 1832 to 1833, and declined a re-election. He was ambassador to Russia from 1837 to 1839, and Vice-President of the United States from 1845 to 1849. From 1856 to 1861 he was American minister in London. Mr. Dallas was an able lawyer and statesman.

Dana, FRANCIS, LL.D., was born at Charlestown, Mass., June 13, 1743; died at Cambridge, Mass., April 25, 1811. Graduated at Harvard in 1762. He was admitted to the bar in 1767; was an active patriot; a delegate to the Provincial Congress in 1774; went to England in 1775 with confidential letters to Franklin; was a member of the Executive Council from 1776 to 1780; member of the Continental Congress from 1776 to 1778, and again in 1784; member of the Board of War, Nov. 17, 1777; and was at the head of a committee charged with the entire reorganization of the army. (See *Committee of Congress at Valley Forge.*) When Mr. Adams went on an embassy to negotiate a treaty of peace and commerce with Great Britain, Mr. Dana was secretary of the legation. At Paris, early in 1781, he received the appointment from Congress of minister to Russia, clothed with power to make the accession of the United States to the "Armed Neutrality" (which see). He resided two years at St. Petersburg, and returned to Berlin in 1783. He was again in Congress in the spring of 1784, and the next year was made a justice of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts. In 1791 he was appointed chief-justice of Massachusetts, which position he held fifteen years, keeping aloof from political life, except in 1792 and 1806, when he was presidential elector. He retired from the bench and public life in 1806.

Dana, JAMES DWIGHT, LL.D., born at Utica, N.Y., Feb. 12, 1813. Graduated at Yale College in 1833. He went to the Mediterranean in the *Delaware* as teacher of mathematics in the United States Navy, and was mineralogist and geologist of Wilkes's exploring expedition, 1838–42. (See *South Sea Exploring Expedition.*) For thirteen years afterwards Mr. Dana was engaged preparing the reports of this expedition and other scientific labors. These reports were published by the government, with atlases of drawings made by Mr. Dana's own hand. He was elected to the chair of Silliman Professor of Natural History and Geology in Yale College in 1850, and entered upon his duties in 1855, a position which he yet (1880) retains; and has for many years been associated with his brother-in-law, Benjamin Silliman, Jr., in the editing and publishing of the *American Journal of Science and Art*, founded by the elder Silliman in 1819. Professor Dana has contributed much to scientific journals, and is a member of many learned societies at home and abroad. In 1872 the Wollaston gold medal, in charge of the London Geological Society, was conferred upon him.

Dana, NAPOLEON JACKSON TECUMSEH, was born in Fort Sullivan, Eastport, Me., April 10, 1822, and graduated at West Point in 1842. He served in the war with Mexico; resigned in 1855; and in October, 1861, became colonel of the First Minnesota regiment of volunteers. He was in the battle at Ball's Bluff (which see); was made brigadier-general early in 1862; was active throughout the whole campaign on the Peninsula, participating in all the battles; and at Antietam commanded a brigade, and was wounded. A few weeks later he was made major-general of volunteers; was with the Army of the Gulf in 1863; commanded the Thirteenth Army Corps a while; and had charge of the District of Vicksburg and West Tennessee in 1864. From December, 1864, to May, 1865, he was in command of the Department of the Mississippi.

Dana, RICHARD HENRY, poet and essayist, was born at Cambridge, Mass., Nov. 15, 1787; died in Boston, Feb. 2, 1879. He chose the profession of law, but his tastes led him into literary pursuits. In 1814 he and others (the "North American Club") founded the *North American Review*, yet (1880) published, of which he was sole conductor for a while. He closed his connection with it in 1820. It was while Dana was editor of the *Review* that Bryant's *Thanatopsis* was published in its pages, the author being then unknown. In 1821 the first volume of *The Idle Man* was published. It was unprofitable, and Mr. Dana dropped it. In it he published stories and essays from his own pen. In the same year he contributed to the *New York Review* (then under the care of Mr. Bryant) his first poem of much pretension, *The Dying Raven.* In 1827 his most celebrated poetical production, *The Buccaneer*, was published, with some minor poems. Of that production Wilson, of *Blackwood's Magazine*, wrote, "It is by far the most powerful and original of American poetical compositions." Mr. Dana's writings were always marked by great delicacy and grace and strong individuality. Among his most valuable prose compositions were a series of lectures upon Shakespeare, ten in number, delivered in the winter of 1839–40 in the cities of Boston, New York, and Philadelphia. After 1833 Mr. Dana wrote but little, though his life was extended about forty-five years longer.

Danbury, DESTRUCTION OF. Governor Tryon was one of the most malignant foes of the American patriots. He delighted, apparently, in conspicuously cruel acts; and when anything of that nature was to be done he was employed to do it by the more respectable British officers. He was chosen to lead a marauding expedition into Connecticut from New York in the spring of 1777. At the head of two thousand men, he left that city (April 23), and landed at Compo, between Norwalk and Fairfield, two days later. They pushed on towards Danbury, an inland town, where the Americans had gathered a large quantity of provisions for the army. The marauders reached the town unmolested (April 25) by some militia that had retired, and, not contented with destroying a large quantity of stores gathered there, they laid eighteen houses in the village in ashes and cruelly treated some of the inhabitants. General Silliman, of the Connecticut militia, was at his home in Fairfield when the enemy landed. He immediately sent out expresses to alarm the country and call the militia to the field. The call was nobly responded to. Hearing of this gathering from a Tory scout, Tryon made a hasty retreat by way of Ridgefield, near which place he was confronted by the militia under Generals Wooster, Arnold, and Silliman. A sharp skirmish ensued, in which Wooster was killed, and Arnold had a narrow escape from capture, after his horse had been shot under him. For his gallantry on that occasion the Congress presented him with a horse richly caparisoned. Tryon spent the night in the neighborhood for his troops to rest, and early the next morning he hurried to his ships, terribly smitten on the way by the gathering militia, and at the landing by cannon-shot directed by Lieutenant-colonel Oswald. They escaped capture only through the gallant services of some marines led by General Erskine. About sunset the fleet departed, the British having lost about three hundred men, including prisoners, during the invasion. The Americans lost about one hundred men. The private losses of property at Danbury amounted to about eighty thousand dollars.

Dane, Nathan, LL.D., was born at Ipswich, Mass., Dec. 27, 1752; died at Beverly, Feb. 15, 1835. He was a graduate of Harvard in 1778. An able lawyer and an influential member of Congress (1785–88), he was the framer of the celebrated ordinance of 1787 (which see). He was a member of the Massachusetts Legislature several years, and was engaged to revise the laws of the state (1799), and revise and publish the charters (1811) which had been granted therein. Mr. Dane was a member of the Hartford Convention (which see) in 1814. His work entitled *A General Abridgment and Digest of American Law*, in nine large volumes (1823–29), is a monument of his learning and industry. By his munificence he founded the Dane professorship of law in Harvard University.

D'Anville's Expedition (1746). While the eastern colonies were preparing to attempt the conquest of Canada (see *Canada, Expedition against*), they were alarmed by the intelligence that a powerful French fleet, under command of the Duke D'Anville, was crossing the Atlantic from France. It consisted of forty ships-of-war, besides transports, and bore nearly four thousand regular land-troops, under experienced officers, with all kinds of military stores. This was the most powerful armament ever sent to North America from Europe. It came to recover Louisburg (which see), and to distress, if not to conquer, all New England. D'Anville had been instructed to dismantle Louisburg, retake Annapolis, N. S., destroy Boston, ravage along the North American coast, and to visit the British sugar-islands. The troops destined for Canada were recalled, and six thousand four hundred of the inland militia marched into Boston (September, 1746). To their assistance six thousand more were prepared to march from Connecticut at the first notice. The old forts on the sea-coasts were strengthened, and great anxiety everywhere prevailed. This was relieved when intelligence came of disasters to the French fleet as they approached the American coast. In a terrible gale several ships were wrecked; the expected junction with some vessels from Santo Domingo had failed; a pestilent fever among the French land-troops had carried off many; and intercepted letters, opened in a council of war on the admiral's ship, which indicated the speedy arrival of an English fleet, caused a division among the officers. Mortified by the result of his great expedition, D'Anville died suddenly, either by apoplexy, brought on by anxiety and mortification, or by self-administered poison. His successor, D'Estournelle, proposed to abandon the expedition. The rejection of his proposition so agitated him that a fever was brought on, and, in delirium, he fell on his sword. The remains of the shattered fleet proceeded to attempt the capture of Annapolis, but when off Cape Sable (Oct. 13) another violent tempest scattered them, and they returned singly to France. They had buried two thousand four hundred men in American soil.

Dare, Virginia. In 1587 John White went to Roanoke Island as governor of an agricultural colony sent out by Sir Walter Raleigh. He was accompanied by his son-in-law, William Dare, and his young wife. It was intended to plant the colony on the mainland, but White went no farther than Roanoke. There he found the melancholy remains, in the form of whitened skeletons and a broken fort, which told the sad fate of the "protectors of the rights of England" which Grenville had left there. (See *Grenville.*) The new colonists wisely determined to cultivate the friendship of the Indians. Manteo — the chief who accompanied Amidas and Barlow (see *Amidas*) to England — living with his mother and relatives on Croatan Island, invited the colonists to settle on his domain. White persuaded him to receive the rite of Christian baptism, and bestowed upon him the title of baron, as Lord of Roanoke — the first and last peerage ever created on the soil of our Republic. It became necessary for the ships to return to England for supplies, and, to hasten them, White went with them, leaving behind eighty-nine men, seventeen women, and two children. Among the women was his married daughter, Eleanor Dare, who had given birth to a daughter since her arrival, to whom they gave the name of Virginia. On his way home, White touched at Ireland, where he left some potatoes which he took from Virginia — the first of that kind ever seen in Europe. He started back with two ships laden with supplies; but his greed made him neglect his duty to the colonists, and, instead of going directly to Virginia, he pursued Spanish ships in search of plunder. His vessels were so battered that he was obliged to return to England, and Spanish war-vessels in British waters prevented his sailing for America again until 1590. He found Roanoke a desolation, and no trace of the colony was ever found. It is believed that they became mingled with the natives, for long years afterwards families of the Hatteras tribe exhibited unmistakable specimens of blood mixed with that of Europeans. It is supposed the friendly "Lord of Roanoke" had saved their lives, for an inscription on bark indicated that they had gone from Roanoke to Croatan. Perhaps when Jamestown was founded (1607), on the Roanoke River (see *Jamestown*), little Virginia Dare, then twenty years of age, was a beautiful young Indian queen on the banks of the Roanoke.

Darien Ship Canal. (See *Interoceanic Canal.*) One of the great canal projects which have attracted the nations is now (1880) under consideration by the United States government. It is the construction of a ship canal to connect the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. In 1849 an Irish adventurer published a book in which he said he had crossed and recrossed the Isthmus of Darien, and that in the construction of a canal there only "three or four miles of deep rock cutting" would be required. Believing this, an English company was formed for the purpose, with a capital of seventy-five million dollars, and an engineer was sent to survey a route, who reported that the distance between "tidal effects" was only thirty miles, and the summit level only one hundred and fifty feet. The governments of England, France, the United States, and New Granada joined, late in 1853, in an exploration of the best route for a canal. It was soon ascertained that the English engineer had never crossed the isthmus at all. The summit level to which he directed the expedition was one thousand feet above tide-water, instead of one hundred and fifty feet. The expedition effected nothing. In 1854 Lieutenant Isaac Strain led an American expedition for the same purpose. They followed the route pointed out by the English engineer, and, after intense suffering, returned and reported the proposed route wholly impracticable. The success of the Suez Canal revived the project, and in 1870 two expeditions were sent out by the United States government—one, under Commander T. O. Selfridge, of the United States Navy, to the Isthmus of Darien; and the other, under Captain Shufeldt, of the navy, to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec. Three routes were surveyed across the narrow part of the Isthmus of Darien by Selfridge, and he reported all three as having obstacles that made the construction of a canal impracticable. He reported a route by the Atrato and Napipi rivers as perfectly feasible. It would include one hundred and fifty miles of river navigation and a canal less than forty miles in extent. It would call for three miles of rock-cutting one hundred and twenty-five feet deep, and a tunnel of five miles, with a roof sufficiently high to admit the tallest-masted ships. Selfridge estimated the entire cost at one hundred and twenty-four million dollars. The whole matter was referred in 1872 to a commission to continue investigations. The vast importance of such a work is conceded, and the commercial interests of the world demand its speedy completion. It will undoubtedly be accomplished by the joint efforts of Americans and Europeans.

Daring Raid in Northern Georgia. While General Mitchel was holding the Charleston and Memphis Railway in Northern Alabama (see *Mitchel's Expedition*), he set on foot one of the most daring enterprises attempted during the war. It was an effort to break up railway communication between Chattanooga and Atlanta, in Georgia. For this purpose J. J. Andrews, who had been engaged in the secret service by General Buell, was employed. With twenty picked men Andrews walked to Marietta, in the guise of Secessionists from Kentucky seeking Georgia's freedom from persecution. At Marietta they took the cars for a station not far from the foot of Great Kenesaw Mountain, and there, while the engineer and conductor were at breakfast, they uncoupled the engine, tender, and box-car from the passenger train and started up the road at full speed. They told inquirers where they were compelled to stop that they were conveying powder to Beauregard's army. They passed several trains before they began to destroy the road. The first train that came to a broken spot had its engine reversed and became a pursuer of the raiders. Onward they dashed with the speed of a gale, passing other trains, when, at an important curve of the road, after destroying the track a considerable distance, Andrews said, "Only one more train to pass, boys, and then we will put our engine at full speed, burn the bridges after us, dash through Chattanooga, and on to Mitchel, at Huntsville." The exciting chase continued many miles. The raiders cut telegraph wires and tore up tracks. The pursuers gained upon them. Finally their lubricating-oil became exhausted, and such was the speed of the engine that the brass journals in which the axles revolved were melted. Fuel failing, the raiders were compelled to leave their conveyance, fifteen miles from Chattanooga, and take refuge in the tangled woods on Chickamauga Creek. A great man-hunt was organized. The mountain passes were picketed, and thousands of horse and foot soldiers, with several bloodhounds, scoured the country in all directions. The whole party were finally captured, and Andrews and seven of his companions were hanged. To each of the survivors the Secretary of War gave a bronze medal in token of approval.

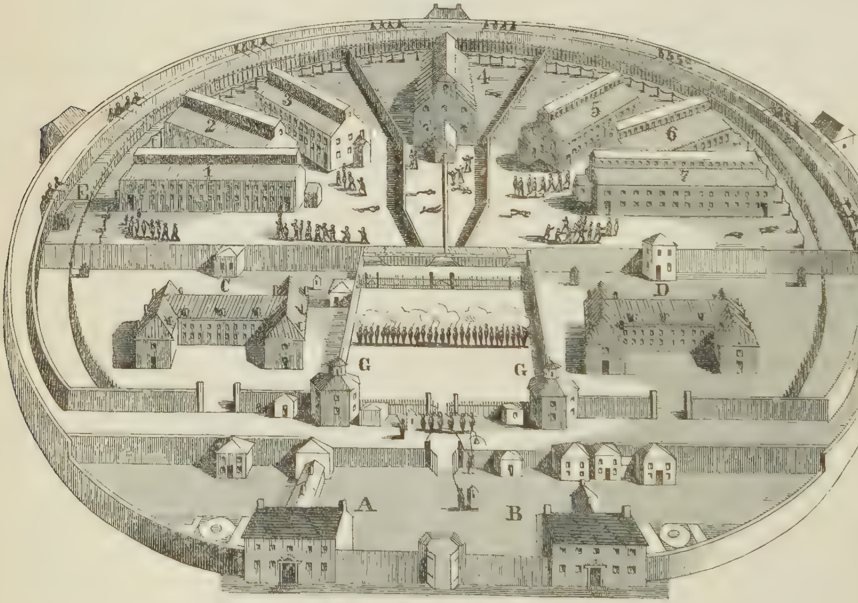
Dark and Bloody Ground. Two sections of our country have received this appellation. First it was applied to Kentucky, the great battle-field between the Northern and Southern Indians, and afterwards to the portion of that state wherein Daniel Boone and his companions were compelled to carry on a warfare with the savages. It was also applied to the Valley of the Mohawk, in New York, and its vicinity, known as Tryon County, wherein the Six Nations and their Tory allies made fearful forays during the Revolution.

Dark Day, THE. On the 12th of May, 1780, a remarkable darkness overspread all New England, varying in intensity at different places. In some sections persons could not read common printed matter in the open air. Birds became silent and went to rest; barn-yard fowls went to roost, and cattle sought their accustomed evening resorts. Houses were lighted with candles, and nearly all out-of-doors' work was suspended. The obscuration began at ten o'clock in the morning and continued until night. The cause of the darkness has never been revealed. The air was unclouded.

Darley, Felix O. C., an eminent American designer and painter, was born in Philadelphia, June 23, 1822. He evinced a taste for drawing at an early age. While a lad in a mercantile house he spent his leisure time in sketching. For some of these he was offered a handsome sum, and this induced him to choose art as a life pursuit. He spent several years in Philadelphia, always living by his pencil, and in 1848 he went to New York, where he made admirable illustrations for some of Irving's humorous works. Among these were *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow* and *Rip Van Winkle.* These works procured for him the reputation, at home and abroad, as a leader in the art of outline illustrations. Mr. Darley has illustrated a great many books and made numerous admirable designs for bank-notes. For Cooper's works he made five hundred illustrations. More than sixty of them were engraved on steel. He executed four large works ordered by Prince Napoleon while in this country. These were, "Emigrants attacked by Indians on the Prairies," "The Village Blacksmith," "The Unwilling Laborer," and "The Repose." He illustrated several of Dickens's works, and during the Civil War he delineated many characteristic scenes. Some of the more elaborate pictures on the United States government bonds were made by Darley; and also the beautiful design of the certificate of stock given as evidence of subscription for the Centennial Exhibition in 1876. Among the later works of Mr. Darley in book illustrations were five hundred beautiful designs for Lossing's *Our Country.* Mr. Darley went to Europe near the close of the war, studied models in Rome, and returned with a portfolio full of personal sketches.

Darlington, William, LL.D., was born of Quaker parents at Birmingham, Penn., April 28, 1782; died at West Chester, Penn., April 23, 1863. Having studied medicine and also languages and botany, he went to Calcutta as surgeon of a ship. Returning in 1807, he practised medicine at West Chester with success; was a Madisonian in politics, and when the war broke out in 1812 he assisted in raising a corps for the service in his neighborhood. He was chosen major of a volunteer regiment, but did not see any active service. He was a member of Congress from 1815 to 1817 and from 1819 to 1823. In his town he founded an academy, an athenæum, and a society of natural history. Dr. Darlington was an eminent botanist, and a new and remarkable variety of the Pitcher plant, found in California in 1853, was named, in his honor, "Darlingtonica California." He wrote and published works on botany, medicine, biography, and history. Dr. Darlington was a member of about forty learned societies in America and Europe.

Dartmoor Prison. At the close of the War of 1812–15 prisoners held by both parties were released as soon as proper arrangements for their enlargement could be made. At the conclusion of peace there were about six thousand American captives confined in Dartmoor Prison, including two thousand five hundred American



DARTMOOR PRISON IN 1815.

seamen impressed by British cruisers, who had refused to fight in the British navy against their countrymen, and were there when the war began. Some had been captives ten or eleven years. The prison was situated on Dart Moor, a desolate region in Devonshire, where it had been constructed for the confinement of French prisoners of war. It comprised about thirty acres, enclosed within double walls, with seven distinct prison-houses, with enclosures. The place, at the time in question, was in charge of Captain T. G. Shortland, with a military guard. He was accused of cruelty towards the captives. It was nearly three months after the treaty of peace was signed before they were permitted to know the fact. From that time they were in daily expectation of release. Delay caused uneasiness and impatience, and symptoms of a determination to escape soon appeared. On April 4 the prisoners demanded bread instead of hard biscuit, and refused to receive the latter. On the 6th, so reluctantly did the prisoners obey orders to retire to their quarters, that when some of them, with the appearance of mutinous intentions, not only refused to retire, but passed beyond the prescribed limits of their confinement, they were fired upon by order of Captain Shortland, for the purpose of intimidating all. The firing was followed up by the soldiers, without excuse. Five prisoners were killed and thirty-three were wounded. This act was regarded by the Americans as a wanton massacre, and when the British authorities pronounced it "justifiable" the hottest indignation was excited throughout the Republic.

Dartmoor Prisoners. The last survivor of the Dartmoor prisoners was Lewis P. Clover, who died in Brooklyn, Long Island, N. Y., in February, 1879, at the age of eighty-nine years.

Dartmouth College, one of the higher institutions of learning in the English-American colonies, was chartered in 1769. It grew out of an earlier school established by Rev. Dr. Wheelock at Lebanon, Conn., designed for the education of Indian children, he being encouraged by his success in educating a young Mohegan, Samson Occom, who became a remarkable preacher. (See *Occom, S.*) Pupils from the Delaware tribe were received, and the school soon attracted public attention. James Moor, a farmer, gave two acres of land and a house for the use of the school, and from that time it was known as Moor's Indian Charity School. Occom accompanied Rev. N. Whittaker to England to raise funds for the increase of the usefulness of the school, and about $50,000 were subscribed. A board of trustees was organized, of which Lord Dartmouth, one of the subscribers, was elected president. The children of the New England Indians came to the school in large numbers, and Dr. Wheelock resolved to transfer it to a place nearer the heart of the Indian population in that region. He selected Hanover, on the Connecticut River, in the western part of New Hampshire, and grants of about forty-four thousand acres of land were made. Governor Wentworth gave it a charter (1769), under the title of Dartmouth College, so named in honor of Lord Dartmouth. The institution was removed, with the pupils, to Hanover, in 1770, where President Wheelock and all others lived in log cabins, for it was an almost untrodden wilderness. Dr. Wheelock held the presidency until his death, in 1779 (see *Wheelock, E.*), and was succeeded by his son John, who was sent to Europe to procure funds for the support of the college. He obtained considerable sums, and philosophical implements. In 1816 a religious controversy led to a conflict with the Legislature, and the latter created a new corporation, called Dartmouth University, in which the property of the old corporation was vested. A lawsuit ensued, carried on for the college by Daniel Webster, which resulted (1819), finally, in the establishment of the inviolability of chartered rights and the restoration of the old charter.

Dartmouth, LORD. (See *Legge, George.*)

Davenant (D'Avenant), SIR WILLIAM, AND HIS PROJECTED COLONY. Davenant was an English dramatist, son of an innkeeper, at whose house Shakespeare often stopped while on his journeys between Stratford and London, and who noticed the boy. Young Davenant left college without a degree. Showing much literary talent, he was encouraged in writing plays by persons of distinction, and on the death of Ben Jonson in 1637 he was made poet-laureate. He adhered to the royal cause during the civil war in England, and escaped to France, where he became a Roman Catholic. After the death of his king he projected (1651) a colony of French people in Virginia, the only American province that adhered to royalty, and, with a vessel filled with French men, women, and children, he sailed for Virginia. The ship was captured by a parliamentary cruiser, and the passengers were landed in England, where the life of Sir William was spared, it is believed, by the intervention of John Milton, the poet, who was Cromwell's Latin secretary. Sir William had a strong personal resemblance to Shakespeare, and it was currently believed that he was a natural son of the great dramatist. This idea Sir William encouraged. He died in April, 1668, at the age of sixty-three years.

Davenport, JOHN, one of the founders of the New Haven colony, was born at Coventry, Eng., 1597; died in Boston, March 15, 1670. Educated at Oxford, he entered the ministry of the Established Church. He finally became a nonconformist, was persecuted, and retired to Holland, where he engaged in secular teaching in a private school. He returned to London and came to America in June, 1637, where he was received with great respect. The next year he assisted in founding the New Haven colony, and was one of the chosen "seven pillars." (See *New Haven.*) He concealed Goffe and Whalley, two of the "regicides," in his house, and by his preaching induced the people to protect them from the king's commissioners, sent over to arrest them. (See *Regicides.*) In 1668 Mr. Davenport was ordained minister of the first church in

Boston, and left New Haven. He was the author of several controversial pamphlets.

Davidson, JOHN WYNN, was born in Fairfax County, Va., Aug. 18, 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1845, entering the dragoons. Accompanying Kearney to California in 1846, he was in the several battles during the war with Mexico. He was also active in New Mexico, afterwards, against the Indians. In 1861 he was made major of cavalry, and early in 1862 brigadier-general of volunteers, commanding a brigade in the Army of the Potomac. After serving in the campaign on the Peninsula, he was transferred (August, 1862) to the Department of the Mississippi, and co-operated with General Steele in the capture of Little Rock, Ark. He was breveted major-general of volunteers in March, 1865.

Davie, WILLIAM RICHARDSON, was born near Whitehaven, Eng., June 20, 1756; died at Camden, S. C., Nov. 8, 1820. He came to America in 1764 with his father, and settled in South Carolina with his uncle, who educated him at the College of New Jersey (where he graduated in 1776), and adopted him as his heir. He prepared himself for the law as a profession, but became an active soldier in the Revolution in a troop of dragoons. When he was in command of the troop he annexed it to Pulaski's legion. He fought at Stono, Hanging Rock, and Rocky Mount; and at the head of a legionary corps, with the rank of major, he opposed the advance of Cornwallis into North Carolina. After the overthrow of the American army at Camden he saved the remnant of it; and he was a most efficient commissary under General Greene in the Southern Department. He rose to great eminence as a lawyer after the war, and was a delegate to the convention that framed the National Constitution, but sickness at home compelled him to leave before the work was accomplished. In the convention of North Carolina he was its most earnest and able supporter. In 1799 he was governor of North Carolina, but was soon afterwards sent as one of the envoys to the French Directory. Very soon after his return he withdrew from public life. In March, 1813, he was appointed a major-general, but declined the service on account of bodily infirmities.

WILLIAM RICHARDSON DAVIE.

Davis, ANDREW JACKSON, the subject of remarkable psychological phenomena, was born at Blooming Grove, Orange Co., N. Y., Aug. 11, 1826. While a shoemaker's apprentice in Poughkeepsie, early in 1843, remarkable clairvoyant powers were developed in him by the manipulation of mesmeric influences by William Levingston. He was quite uneducated, yet while under the influence of mesmerism or animal magnetism he would discourse fluently and in proper language on medical, psychological, and general scientific subjects. While in a magnetic or trance state he made medical diagnoses and gave prescriptions. In March, 1844, he fell into a trance state without any previous manipulations, during which he conversed for sixteen hours, as he alleged, with invisible beings, and received intimations and instructions concerning the position he was afterwards to occupy as a teacher from the interior state. In 1845, while in this state, he dictated to Rev. William Fishbough his first and most considerable work, *The Principles of Nature, her Divine Revelations, and a Voice to Mankind*, which embraces a wide range of subjects. He has since put forth several works, all of which he claims to have been the production of his mind under divine illumination and the influence of disembodied spirits. Among his most considerable works are *The Great Harmonia*, in four volumes; *The Penetralia; History and Philosophy of Evil; The Harbinger of Health*, and *Stellar Key to the Summer Land*. Mr. Davis may be considered as the pioneer of modern spiritualism.

Davis, JEFFERSON, born in Christian County, Ky., June 3, 1808; graduated at West Point in 1828; served as lieutenant in the Black Hawk War (which see) in 1831–32, and resigned in 1835 to become a cotton-planter in Mississippi. He was a member of Congress in 1845–46, and served as colonel of a Mississippi regiment in the war with Mexico. He was United States Senator

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

from 1847 to 1851, and from 1857 to 1861. He was called to the cabinet of President Pierce as Secretary of War in 1853, and remained four years. He abdicated his seat in the Senate to join the insurrection against the life of the Republic in January, 1861, and was chosen provisional President of the Southern Confederacy in February. In November, 1861, he was elected permanent President for six years. Early in April, 1865, he and his associates in the government fled from Richmond, first to Danville, Va., and then towards the Gulf of Mexico. He was arrested by Union cavalry in Georgia, taken to Fortress Monroe, and confined on a charge of treason for about two years, when he was released on bail, and was never brought to trial.

Davis, JEFFERSON, CAPTURE OF. (See *Confederate Government, Flight of the.*) Mr. Davis's wife and children, and his wife's sister, had accompanied him from Danville to Washington, Ga., where, for prudential reasons, the father separated from the others. He soon learned that some Confederate soldiers, believing that the treasure that was carried away from Richmond was with Mrs. Davis, had formed a plot to seize all her trunks in search of it. He hastened to the rescue of his family and property, riding rapidly eighteen miles. They were near Irwinsville, south of Macon, Ga. The tents were pitched at night, and the wearied ones retired to rest, intending to resume their flight in the morning. General Wilson, at Macon, hearing of Davis's flight towards the Gulf, had sent out Michigan and Wisconsin cavalry, whose vigilance was quickened by the offered reward of $100,000 for the arrest of the fugitive. Simultaneously, from opposite points, these two parties approached the camp of Davis and his little party just at dawn, May 11, 1865. Mistaking each other for foes, they exchanged shots with such precision that two men were killed and several wounded before the error was discovered. The sleepers were aroused. The camp was surrounded, and Davis, while attempting to escape in disguise, was captured and conveyed to General Wilson's headquarters. Davis had slept in a wrapper, and when aroused hastily pulled on his boots and went to the tent-door. He observed the National cavalry. "Then you are captured!" exclaimed his wife. In an instant she fastened the wrapper around him before he was aware, and then, bidding him adieu, urged him to go to a spring near by, where his horse and arms were. He complied, and as he was leaving the tent-door, followed by a servant with a water-bucket, his sister-in-law flung a shawl over his head. It was in this disguise that he was captured. Such is the story as told by C. E. L. Stuart of Davis's staff. The Confederate chieftain was taken to Fortress Monroe by way of Savannah and the sea, where he was confined about two years under a charge of treason, and finally released on bail. He was never tried for his offence. (See *Amnesty and Pardon*, and *Davis, J.*) Reagan, who was captured with Davis, and Alexander H. Stephens, the Vice-President of the Confederacy, were sent to Fort Warren, in Boston Harbor.

Davis, JEFFERSON C., U. S. Army, was born in Clarke County, Ind., March 2, 1828; died in Chicago, Nov. 29, 1879. He served in the war with Mexico, and was made lieutenant in 1852. He was one of the garrison of Fort Sumter during the bombardment in April, 1861. The same year he was made captain, and became colonel of an Indiana regiment of volunteers. In December he was promoted to brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded a division in the battle of Pea Ridge early in 1862. He participated in the battle of Corinth in 1862; commanded a division in the battles of Stone River, Murfreesborough, and Chickamauga in 1862–63; and in 1864 commanded the Fourteenth Army Corps in the Atlanta campaign and in the march through Georgia and the Carolinas. He was breveted major-general in 1865, and the next year (July 28) was commissioned a colonel of infantry in the army of the United States. He was afterwards on the Pacific coast, and commanded troops in Alaska. He commanded the forces that subdued the Modocs (which see) in 1873.

JEFFERSON C. DAVIS.

Davis Medal. The only medal bestowed as a token of grateful recognition of valuable services by the Confederates during the Civil War was given to a company, mostly Irishmen, known as the "Davis Guards," for gallantly repulsing the attack of the Nationals at Sabine Pass (which see), Sept. 8, 1863. Jefferson Davis presented each of the men with a small silver medal—not struck in a die, but cut out of sheet silver.

Davis, PRESIDENT, RECEPTION OF, AT RICHMOND, VA. The Confederate Congress adjourned May 21, 1861, to meet at Richmond on July 20. On May 26 President Davis started for that city, intending, it is said, to take command of the Confederate troops in Virginia in person. He was accompanied by his favorite aid, Wigfall of Texas (see *Wigfall at Fort Sumter*), and his Secretary of State, Robert Toombs of Georgia. His journey was a continuous ovation. At every railway station men, women, and children greeted him with cheers and waving of handkerchiefs. A reporter for the *Richmond Examiner*, who accompanied him, said: "Never were a people more enraptured with their chief magistrate than ours are with President Davis; and the trip from Montgomery to Richmond will ever be remembered with delight by all who witnessed it." At Petersburg, Davis and his party were met by Governor Letcher and the mayor of Richmond, and he was escorted into his future "capital" by soldiers and civilians. He was taken to the Fair Grounds, where he addressed (May 28) a great multitude. On the 31st he was serenaded, when he uttered a memorable speech that foreshadowed the policy of his administration and evinced the spirit of his associates. "Those with whom we have lately associated," he said, "have shown themselves so incapable of appreciating the blessings of the glorious institutions they inherited that they are to-day stripped of the liberty to which they were born. They have allowed an ignorant usurper [President Lincoln] to trample upon all the prerogatives of citizenship, and to exercise power never delegated to him; and it has been reserved to your state, so lately one of the original thirteen, but now, thank God! fully separated from them, to become the theatre of a great central camp, from which will pour forth thousands of brave hearts to roll back the tide of this despotism. . . . To the remotest limits of the Confederacy, every proud heart beats high with indignation at the thought that the foot of the invader has been set upon the soil of Old Virginia. There is not one true son of the South who is not ready to shoulder his musket, to bleed, to die, or to conquer, in the cause of liberty here." Davis's reference to Virginia having become "the theatre of a great central camp," and the battle-field in defence of the South, recalled to thoughtful minds the assurance of Governor Pickens of South Carolina, so early as the close of December, 1860, that the people of that state would not suffer the horrors of war—"You may plant your seed in peace, for Old Virginia will have to bear the brunt of battle." A caricature of the day, printed on envelopes, represents the "Old Dominion" as a decrepit old woman, much bent and leaning upon a short staff, while armies are contending upon her back—horse, foot, and artillery. Under the figure are the words "Poor old simple Virginia." To a remark from a spectator—"Tell us something about Buena Vista" (which see)—Davis said, "We will make the battle-fields in Virginia another Buena Vista, and drench them with blood more precious than any that flowed there." The citizens of Richmond purchased from James A. Seddon (see *Peace Congress*) his elegant mansion, and presented it, sumptuously furnished, to President Davis as a residence.

Davis's Cabinet. Jefferson Davis, President of the Southern Confederacy, chose for his constitutional advisers a cabinet modelled after that of the United States. He appointed Robert Toombs, of Georgia, Secretary of State; Charles G. Memminger, of South Carolina, Secretary of the Treasury; Le Roy Pope Walker, of Alabama, Secretary of War; Stephen R. Mallory, of Florida, Secretary of the Navy; and John H. Reagan, of Texas, Postmaster-general. Afterwards, Judah P. Benjamin was made Attorney-general.

Davis's Proclamation. Two days after President Lincoln's call for troops (which see) by proclamation, Jefferson Davis issued an intended countervailing one, in the preamble of which he said the President of the United States had "announced the intention of invading the Confederacy with an armed force for the purpose of capturing its fortresses (see *Seizure of Public Property*), and thereby subverting its independence, and subjecting the free people thereof to the dominion of a foreign power." He said it was the duty of his government to repel this threatened invasion, and "defend the rights and liberties of the people by all the means which the laws of nations and usages of civilized warfare placed at its disposal." He invited the people of the Confederacy to engage in privateering (see *Privateering*); and he exhorted those who had "felt the wrongs of the past" from those whose enmity was "more implacable, because unprovoked," to exert themselves in preserving order and maintaining the authority of the Confederate laws. This proclamation was met by President Lincoln by a public notice that he should immediately order a blockade of all the Southern ports claimed as belonging to the Confederacy; and also that if any person, under the pretended authority of such states, or under any other pretence, should molest a vessel of the United States, or the persons or cargo on board of her, such person would be held amenable to the laws of the United States for the prevention and punishment of piracy. With this opposing proclamation the great Civil War was actively begun.

Day, STEPHEN, was the first printer in the English-American colonies. He was born in London in 1611; died at Cambridge, Mass., Dec. 22, 1668. He came to Massachusetts in 1638, and was employed to manage the printing-press sent out by Rev. Mr. Glover. He began printing at Cambridge in March, 1639. He was not a skilful workman, and was succeeded in the management, about 1648, by Samuel Green, who employed Day as a journeyman.

Day's Work in Congress, A (1774). The most momentous act of the first Continental Congress during its whole session occupied the entire business on Oct. 8, 1774. After a short and spicy debate, the great council "*Resolved*, That this Congress approve the opposition of the inhabitants of Massachusetts Bay to the execution of the late acts of Parliament; and if the same shall be attempted to be carried into execution by force, in such case all America ought to support them in their opposition." This is all that appears on the journal for that day. It was enough. From that day the crystallization of the British-American colonies into an independent nation went rapidly on. It was like the luminous handwriting on Belshazzar's wall, and wise men interpreted it as a prophecy of the dismemberment of the British empire. George

III. responded to this resolution by denouncing his American subjects as *rebels*.

Dayton, Elias, was born at Elizabethtown, N. J., in 1735; died there in July, 1807. He fought with the Jersey Blues under Wolfe at Quebec; was a member of the Committee of Safety at the beginning of the Revolution, and became colonel of a New Jersey regiment. He served in New York and New Jersey; fought in several battles, the last at Yorktown, and in January, 1783, was made a brigadier-general. He was a member of Congress in 1787–88, and was afterwards in the New Jersey Legislature.

Dayton, Jonathan, LL.D., son of Elias, was born at Elizabethtown, N. J., Oct. 16, 1760; died there, Oct. 9, 1824. He graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1776; entered the army as paymaster of his father's regiment in August; aided in storming a redoubt at Yorktown, which was taken by Lafayette; and served faithfully until the close of the war. He was a member of the convention that framed the National Constitution in 1787, and was a representative in Congress from 1791 to 1799. He was speaker in 1795, and was made United States Senator in 1799. He held the seat until 1805. He served in both branches of his state Legislature. Suspected of complicity in Burr's conspiracy, he was arrested, but was never proceeded against.

Deaf and Dumb. In 1870 the whole number of deaf and dumb persons in the United States and territories was sixteen thousand two hundred and five. Much has been done in our country for their instruction. So early as 1793, Dr. W. Thornton published an essay in Philadelphia on *Teaching the Dumb to Speak*, but no attempt was made to establish a school for the purpose here until 1811, when the effort was unsuccessful. A school for the instruction of the silent that proved successful was opened in Hartford, Conn., by Rev. T. H. Gallaudet (which see) in 1817, and was chartered under the name of the "New England Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb." Congress granted for its support a township of land in Alabama, the proceeds of which formed a fund of about $340,000. Other asylums have since been established, numbering thirty-six in 1870, and a National Deaf-mute College was established at Washington in 1864. In 1876 there were about four thousand four hundred pupils in these institutions.

Dean Tucker's Proposition. The British ministry knew more of the differences of opinion in the Continental Congress than did the Americans, for Galloway had let out the secret to friends of the crown. This fact encouraged Lord North and his colleagues to believe that a little firmness on the part of Great Britain would shake the resolution and break up the apparent union of the colonists. It was known that a large portion of the most respectable and influential of the inhabitants of the colonies were warmly attached to the mother country. In several colonies there was a strong prejudice felt towards New England, where the most violent proceedings had occurred. The Quakers, as a body, were opposed to violent measures. The governor of Pennsylvania was indifferent, and Scotch Highlanders settled in New York and the Carolinas and Georgia were very loyal. Even should the union remain perfect, it was believed the limited resources of the colonists would be wholly inadequate to any obstinate or lengthened resistance. Military officers boasted that, at the head of a few regiments, they would "march from one end of America to the other." All British writers and speakers exercised their pens and tongues in the same strain. Only one had the good sense to recommend a peaceful separation. That was Dean Tucker, author of the *Light of Nature*, and a prolific pamphleteer of the day. He proposed that Parliament, by a solemn act declaring them to have forfeited all the privileges of British subjects by sea and land, should cut off the rebellious provinces from the British empire; with provision, however, for granting pardon and restoration to either or all of them on their humble petition to that effect. Had this proposition been then adopted, Great Britain would have still retained a large and influential party in the colonies, the hatreds engendered by war would have been avoided, and, at the worst, the colonies would have been lost to Great Britain, as they finally were, without the loss of blood and treasure on both sides which the war caused. But vulgar expedients were preferred, and this wise proposition was denounced as the height of folly, and even the wise Burke called it "childish."

Deane, James, was a missionary to the Six Nations (which see). He was born in Connecticut, Aug. 20, 1748; died at Westmoreland, N. Y., Sept. 10, 1823. Graduated at Dartmouth College in 1773. From the age of twelve years he was with a missionary in the Oneida tribe of Indians, and mastered their language. After his graduation he went as a missionary to the Caughnawagas and St. Francis tribes for two years; and when the Revolution broke out, Congress employed him to conciliate the tribes along the northern frontier. He was made Indian agent and interpreter at Fort Stanwix (now Rome, Oneida Co.), with the rank of major. He was many years a judge in Oneida County, and twice a member of the New York Assembly. Mr. Deane wrote an Indian mythology.

Deane, Silas, was born at Groton, Conn., Dec. 24, 1737; died at Deal, Eng., Aug. 23, 1789. He graduated at Yale College in 1758, became a merchant in Wethersfield, Conn., and was a delegate to the first Continental Congress. He was very active in Congress, in 1775, in fitting out a naval force for the colonies, and in the spring of 1776 he was sent to France as a secret political and financial agent, with authority to operate in Holland and elsewhere. He was to ascertain the feeling of the French government towards the revolted colonies and Great Britain, and to obtain military supplies. He made arrangements with Beaumarchais (which see) for substantial aid from France, and, with Dr. Franklin and Arthur Lee, negotiated treaties of amity, commerce, and alliance in February, 1778. (See *Treaty of Alliance.*) Complaints were made of his extravagance in making contracts, especially with French officers to serve in the Continental Army, and he was recalled by order of Congress (Nov. 21, 1777), and returned home. John Adams took his place abroad. Deane arrived at Philadelphia Aug. 10, 1778, and on the 13th reported to Congress. In that body he found false reports operating against him; and finally, exasperated by the treatment which he received at their hands, he engaged in a controversy with influential members. He was required to give a full statement of his financial transactions in France, and was compelled to return to that country for his papers, which he did. Owing to some strictures which he had made upon the conduct of the French government, he became obnoxious to the authorities there, and retired to the Netherlands. Arthur Lee (whose enmity to Deane was created by jealousy) was the author of the misrepresentations that gave Deane all his trouble. He charged him with appropriating public funds to his private use. Dr. Franklin testified to Deane's strict honesty and private worth, but Lee had the ear of Congress, and Deane had to suffer. He died in obscurity and poverty in England. He has since been vindicated, and all unjust suspicions have been removed from intelligent minds.

SILAS DEANE.

Dearborn, HENRY, was born at Northhampton, N. H., Feb. 23, 1751; died at Roxbury, Mass., June 6, 1829. He became a physician, and employed his leisure time in the study of military science. At the head of sixty volunteers he hastened to Cambridge on the day after the affair at Lexington, a distance of sixty-five miles. He was appointed a captain in Stark's regiment, participated in the battle of Bunker's Hill, and in September following (1775) accompanied Arnold in his wonderful expedition to Quebec. (See *Arnold's Expedition.*) He participated in the siege of Quebec, and was made prisoner, but was paroled in May, 1776, when he became major of Scammel's New Hampshire regiment. He was in the battles of Stillwater and Saratoga in the fall of 1777, and led troops in those engagements—in the latter as lieutenant-colonel. He was in the battle of Monmouth, was in Sullivan's campaign (which see) against the Indians in 1779, and in 1781 was attached to Washington's staff as deputy quartermaster-general, with the rank of colonel. In that capacity he served in the siege of Yorktown. In 1784 he settled in Maine, and became general of militia. He was marshal of Maine, by the appointment of Washington, in 1789, member of Congress from 1793 to 1797, and was Secretary of War under Jefferson from 1801 to 1809. From 1809 till 1812 he was collector of the port of Boston, when he was appointed as senior major-general in the United States Army, and commander-in-chief of the Northern Department. He was not very successful in that position, and was superseded July 6, 1813, in consequence of being charged with political intrigue. He asked in vain for a court of inquiry. In 1822–24 he was the American minister in Portugal, and in the latter year returned to his farm at Roxbury, near Boston, where he died.

HENRY DEARBORN.

Dearborn's Invasion of Canada. On the first of September, 1812, Brigadier-general Bloomfield had collected about eight thousand men—regulars, volunteers, and militia — at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, besides some small advanced parties at Chazy and Champlain. On the arrival of General Dearborn, he assumed direct command of all the troops, and on Nov. 16 he moved towards the Canada line with three thousand regulars and two thousand militia. He moved on to the La Colle, a small tributary of the Sorel, where he was met by a considerable force of mixed British and Canadian troops and Indians, under Lieutenant-colonel De Salaberry, an active British commander. Just at dawn, on the morning of the 20th, Colonel Zebulon M. Pike crossed the La Colle and surrounded a block-house. Some New York militia approaching were mistaken, in the dim light, for British soldiers. Pike's men opened fire upon them, and for nearly half an hour a sharp conflict was maintained. When they discovered their mistake, they found De Salaberry approaching with an overwhelming force. These were fiercely attacked, but the Americans were soon forced to retreat so precipitately that they left five of their number dead and five wounded on the field. The army, disheartened, returned to Plattsburg.

Death and Burial of De Soto. On May 21, 1542, De Soto (which see) died on the banks of the Mississippi, which he had discovered. As he had declared to the Indians, who were sun-worshippers, that he was a son of the sun, and that Christians could not die, it was thought wise to conceal his death from the pagans. He was secretly buried in the gateway of the Spanish camp. The Indians knew he was sick. He was not to be seen, and they saw a new-made grave. They looked upon it, and pondered. Moscoso, whom De Soto had appointed his successor, ordered the body to be taken up at the dead of night. It was wrapped in mantles in which sand had been sewed up, taken in a boat to the middle of the great river, and there dropped to the bottom in nineteen fathoms of water. Herrera says it was sunk in a hollow live-oak log. When the Indian chief asked Moscoso for De Soto, that leader replied, "He has ascended to heaven, but will return soon."

Death of King Philip. Captain Church (which see) surprised Philip at Mount Hope (Aug. 2, 1676), killed about one hundred and thirty of his followers, and captured his wife and son. Philip barely escaped. Ten days afterwards an Indian deserter told Church that Philip was on Mount Hope Neck, and offered to guide him to the place and help to kill him, for Philip had killed the deserter's brother because he had proposed peace with the English. Church immediately went in search of Philip with a small number of men, English and Indians, following his volunteer guide. On his arrival at a swamp where Philip was concealed, he disposed his men around it in ambuscade. Philip's shelter was soon discovered on the edge of the swamp, and the English and Indians opened fire upon it. At that instant Philip seized his gun and fled for the thicket, where he was confronted by an Englishman and an Indian in covert. When he was within fair musket-shot distance the Englishman snapped his gun. It missed fire, when he bade the Indian to shoot. He did so, and the bullet pierced King Philip's heart.

Death of President Harrison. On Saturday, March 27, 1841, President Harrison, who had been inaugurated twenty-three days before, after suffering much from a cold for a week previous, was taken with a chill and other symptoms of fever. This attack was followed by pneumonia, which baffled medical skill, and terminated his life on Sunday morning, just one month from the day when he took the chair of the Presidency. He was seriously ill only eight days. About three hours before his death, after his physician had just administered something for his comfort, and while his mind seemed wandering, he spoke out as if to his successor, saying, "Sir, I wish you to understand the principles of the government. I wish them carried out. I ask nothing more." These were his last words. The members of his family who were in Washington, the members of his cabinet, Colonels Chambers and Todd, who were his aides in the battle of the Thames (which see), and a number of relatives and friends were near his bedside when he expired. His funeral took place from the presidential mansion on April 7, attended by an immense multitude of people. The body was interred in the Congressional burying-ground, and was afterwards conveyed to North Bend, Ohio, and placed in the family vault.

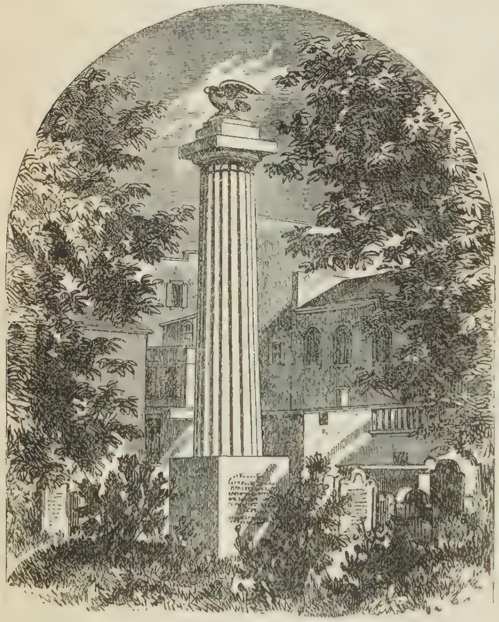
Death of President Taylor. While the hot debates in Congress were going on concerning the slavery question, the country was called to mourn the death of the President. He was seized by a malady similar in its effects to cholera, which assumed the form of bilious fever, and terminated his life (July 9, 1850) in five days. He died at the presidential mansion, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. He was attended in his last moments by his wife; his daughter (Mrs. Colonel Bliss) and her husband; his son, Colonel Taylor, and family; his son-in-law, Jefferson Davis, and family; and by Vice-President Fillmore, other officers of the government, members of the diplomatic corps, etc. His last audible words were: "I am about to die. I expect the summons soon. I have endeavored to discharge all my official duties faithfully. I regret nothing, but am sorry that I am about to leave my friends." The funeral occurred on Saturday, July 13, and was attended by a vast concourse of citizens and strangers. The pageant exceeded everything of the kind, in order and magnificence, that had ever taken place at the national capital.

Decatur, STEPHEN, was born at Sinepuxent, Md., Jan. 5, 1779; died near Washington, D. C., March 22, 1820. He entered the United States Navy as midshipman April 30, 1798, and rose to captain in 1804. His first notable exploit was the destruction of the *Philadelphia* in the harbor of Tripoli (see *Philadelphia*), for which Congress gave him thanks, a sword, and promotion. He commanded a division of gunboats in the attack on Tripoli, Aug. 3, 1804. In command of the frigate *United States*, he captured the frigate *Macedonian*, Oct. 25, 1812, for which Congress gave him a gold medal. In January, 1815, after a running fight, the *President*, his flag-ship, was captured by a British squadron; and a few months later he was sent to the Mediterranean, and compelled the government of Algiers to relinquish its barbarous conduct towards other powers, and to pay for American property de-

STEPHEN DECATUR.

KALORAMA.

stroyed. (See *Algiers.*) He was appointed a navy commissioner in November, 1815, and made his residence in the fine mansion of Kalorama, about a mile from Georgetown, built by Joel Barlow. Decatur had opposed the reinstatement of Barron to his former position in the navy, and a duel was the consequence. (See *Barron.*) They fought at the famous duelling ground near Bladensburg, when Decatur was mortally wounded, and was taken to Washington. General Solomon Van Rensselaer wrote to his wife from that city, on March 20, 1820, as follows: "I have only time, after writing to several, to say that an affair of honor took place this morning between Commodores Decatur and Barron, in which both fell at the first fire. The ball entered Decatur's body two inches above the hip and lodged against the opposite side. I just came from his house. He yet lives, but will never see another sun. Barron's wound is severe, but not dangerous. The ball struck the upper part of his hip and turned to the rear. He is ruined in public estimation. The excitement is very great." On the following day Van Rensselaer wrote of his death, and said, "His poor wife (they have no children) is distressed beyond expression. She would suffer no one to be in her room, and, strange to say, she did not see him until after his death." General Van Rensselaer was misinformed, for she was present when he died. Mrs. Decatur survived her husband about forty years, dying at Georgetown, in 1860. Decatur's remains were taken from the house in Washington, at four o'clock in the afternoon, and borne to Kalorama by the following officers: Commodores Tingey, Macdonough, Rodgers, and Porter, Captains Cassin, Ballard, and Chauncey, Generals Brown and Jesup, and Lieutenant McPherson. The funeral was attended by nearly all the public functionaries in Washington, American and foreign, and a great number of citizens. While the procession was moving minute-guns were fired at the navy-yard. His remains were deposited in Joel Barlow's vault at Kalorama, where they remained until 1846, when they were taken to Philadelphia and reinterred, with appropriate ceremonies, in St. Peter's Burying-ground. Over them a beautiful monument, delineated in the engraving, was erected.

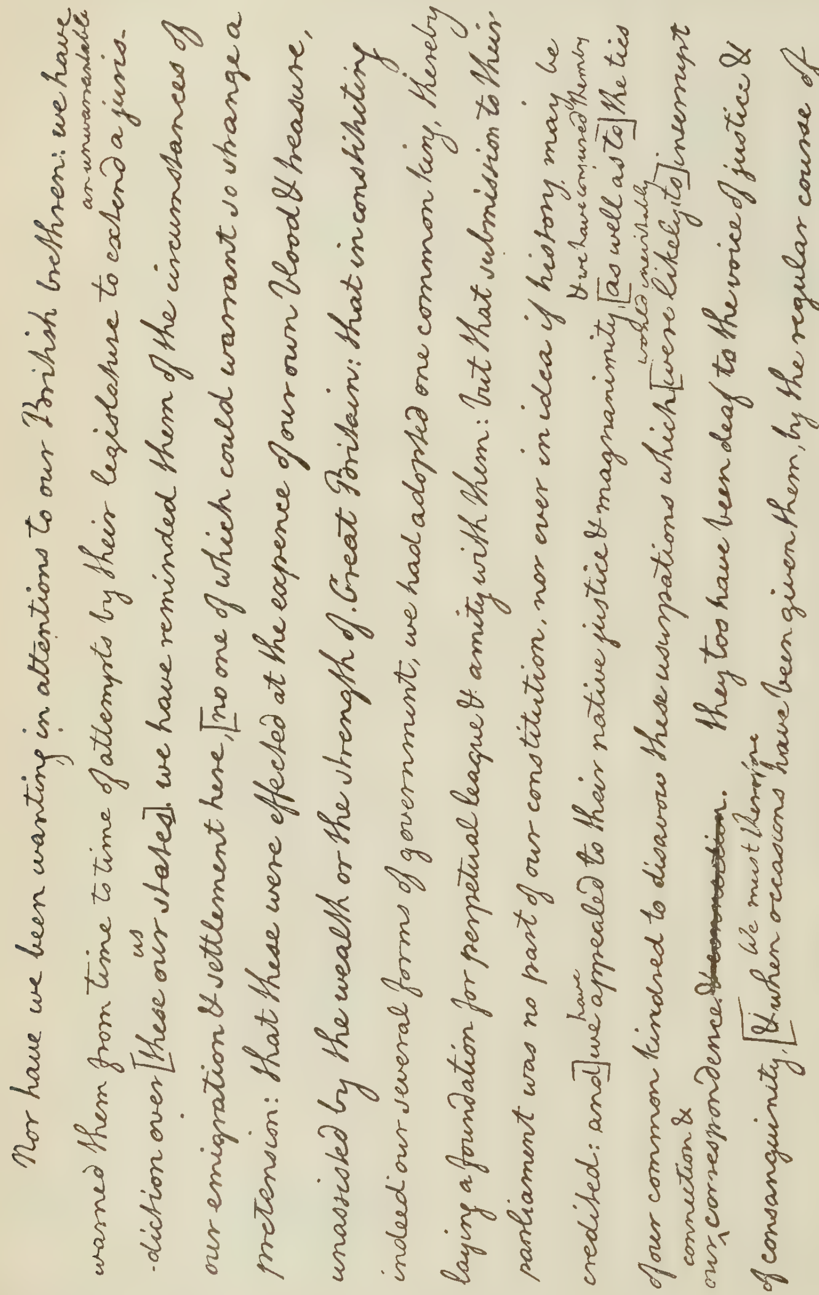


DECATUR'S MONUMENT.

Declaration of Colonial Rights. In the First Continental Congress (1774) a committee of two from each colony framed and reported, in the form of a series of ten resolves, a declaration of the rights of the colonies: 1. Their natural rights; 2. That from their ancestry they were entitled to all the rights, liberties, and immunities of free and natural-born subjects of England; 3. That by the emigration to America by their ancestors they never lost any of those rights, and that their descendants were entitled to the exercise of those rights; 4. That the foundation of all free governments is in the right of the people to participate in their legislative council; and as the American colonists could not exercise such right in the British Parliament, they were entitled to a free and exclusive power of legislation in their several provincial legislatures, where the right of representation could alone be preserved. (They conceded the right of Parliament to regulate external commerce, but denied its right to tax them in any way, without their consent, for raising an internal or external revenue.) 5. That they were entitled to the common law of England, and more especially the great privilege of being tried by their peers of the vicinage according to the course of law; 6. That they were entitled to the benefit of English statutes at the time of the emigration of their ancestors; 7. That they were entitled to all the immunities and privileges conferred upon them by royal charters or secured to them by provincial laws; 8. That they had a right peaceably to assemble, state their grievances, and petition the king without interference of ministers; 9. That the keeping of a standing army in any colony, without the consent of the Legislature, was unlawful; 10. That the exercise of legislative power in several colonies by a council appointed during pleasure by the crown was unconstitutional, dangerous, and destructive to the freedom of American legislation. The report of the committee designated the various acts of Parliament which were infringements and violations of the rights of the colonists, and that the repeal of them was essentially necessary in order to restore harmony between Great Britain and the American colonies. The acts enumerated were eleven in number—namely, Sugar Act, Stamp Act, two quartering acts, Tea Act, Act suspending the New York Legislature, two acts for the trial in Great Britain of offences committed in America, Boston Port Bill, the Act for Regulating [subverting] the Government of Massachusetts, and the Quebec Act. (See these respectively.)

Declaration of Independence. It was very important to have Lee's resolution for independence, offered June 7, 1776, prefaced by a preamble that should clearly declare the causes which impelled the representatives of the people to adopt it. To avoid loss of time, a committee was then appointed to prepare such declaration. The committee was composed of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. Mr. Lee having been called home before the appointment of the committee, Mr. Jefferson was put in his place. He was requested by the committee, after discussing the topics, to make a draft of a declaration of independence. It was discussed in committee, amended very slightly, and finally reported. Debates upon it were long and animated. There was some opposition to voting for independence at all, and it was considerably amended. It was evident from the beginning that a majority of the colonies would vote for independence (the vote in Congress was by colonies), but it was important that the vote should be unanimous. The declaration was warmly debated on the day (July 2) when the resolution was passed, and also on the 3d. Meanwhile news came of the arrival of a large British armament, under the brothers Howe, at Sandy Hook. Immediate and united action was essential. McKean, one of the two representatives of Delaware present, burning with a desire to have the vote of his colony recorded in the affirmative, sent an express after the third delegate, Cæsar Rodney. He was eighty miles from Philadelphia. Ten minutes after receiving McKean's message Rodney was in the saddle, and, riding all night, he reached the floor of Congress (July 4) just in time to secure the vote of Delaware in favor of independence. All three of the delegates from Delaware voted for the declaration. The vote of Pennsylvania was also secured, a majority of its seven delegates being in favor of the measure; and on the 4th of July, 1776, the Declaration of Independence was adopted by the unanimous vote of the thirteen colonies. (See *New York and Independence.*) In that document, after reciting the causes and the reasons for making it, in a series of definite charges against King George III., the Congress said, "We, therefore, the representatives of the United States in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that the united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor." This declaration was signed on the day of its adoption by every member present who voted for it, to show that a majority of the colonies approved the measure. These signatures were attached to a copy on paper. It was engrossed on parchment and again signed on the 2d of August. Two others afterwards signed it — one in September, and the other later in autumn. Immediately after it was adopted it was printed and sent throughout the colonies, with only the names of John Hancock, President of Congress, and Charles Thomson, the Secretary, attached to it. In January, 1777, it was printed on a "broadside," with the names of all the signers, and sent to the several assemblies and to the several commanding officers of the Continental troops. (See fac-simile on following page.)

Declaration of Independence, THE, IN FRANCE. Vergennes, the French minister for foreign affairs, was not a man of high-toned morality, but was a keen diplomat, and never scrupulous in regard to measures that would favorably affect the interests of France. He was eager to promote and prolong the quarrel of Great Britain with her colonies and push it to a separation, for it would weaken the power of the "natural enemy of France." He favored secret aid to the struggling colonists (see *Beaumarchais*), and when the Declaration of Independence reached Versailles (August, 1776) he read to the king, in cabinet council, considerations on the part which France should then take towards England. He showed the advantages of war with that nation. "The war will form," he said, "between France and North America a connection which will not grow up and vanish with the need of the moment. No interest can divide the two nations. Commerce will form between them a very durable, if not an eternal, chain; vivifying industry, it will bring into our harbors the commodities which America formerly poured into those of England, with a double benefit, for the augmentation of our national labor lessens that of a rival." The young king, whose decision in the matter was invoked, too weak to lead in affairs of such magnitude, hating republicanism and fearing revolution, resolved that peace with England should not be broken during his reign. That broken peace was only *delayed* less than two years, not prevented.



Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren: we have
an unwarrantable
warned them from time to time of attempts by their legislature to extend a juris-
us
-diction over [these our states]. we have reminded them of the circumstances of
our emigration & settlement here, [no one of which could warrant so strange a
pretension: that these were effected at the expence of our own blood & treasure,
unassisted by the wealth or the strength of Great Britain: that in constituting
indeed our several forms of government, we had adopted one common king, thereby
laying a foundation for perpetual league & amity with them: but that submission to their
parliament was no part of our constitution, nor ever in idea if history may be
have & we have conjured them by
credited: and] we appealed to their native justice & magnanimity [as well as to] the ties
would inevitably
of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations which [were likely to] interrupt
connection &
our correspondence ~~& connection~~. They too have been deaf to the voice of justice &
We must therefore
of consanguinity, [& when occasions have been given them, by the regular course of

FAC-SIMILE OF A PORTION OF THE ORIGINAL DRAFT OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

Declaration of Rebellion in the Colonies. In an address to the throne (Feb. 7, 1775), proposed by the ministry, they declared that a rebellion existed in Massachusetts, countenanced and fomented by unlawful combinations in other colonies, and recommended energetic measures for suppressing it. The address was adopted, after a long debate, by a large majority; and Parliament pledged its support to the king in the maintenance of the just authority of the crown and nation.

Declaration of Rights by Virginia. George Mason drafted for Virginia a declaration of rights, and on May 27, 1776, Archibald Carey presented it to the Virginia convention. On the 12th of June it was adopted. It declared that all men are by nature equally free, and are invested with inalienable rights — namely, the enjoyment of life, liberty, property, and the pursuit of happiness and safety; that all power is vested in, and consequently derived from, the people; that government is, or ought to be, instituted for the common benefit and security of the people, nation, or community, and that when government shall fail to perform its required functions, a majority of the people have an inalienable right to reform or abolish it; that, public services not being descendible, the office of magistrate, legislator, or judge ought not to be hereditary; that the legislative and executive powers of the state should be distinct from the judicature, and that the members of the first two should, at fixed periods, return unto the body from which they were originally taken, and the vacancies be supplied by frequent elections; that elections ought to be free; that all men having a permanent interest in and attachment to the country have the right of suffrage, and cannot be taxed or deprived of their property for public uses without their own consent or that of their representatives freely elected, nor bound by any law to which they have not, in like manner, assented; that there ought to be no arbitrary power for suspending laws, for requiring excessive bail, or for granting of general warrants; that no man ought to be deprived of liberty except by the law of the land or the judgment of his peers, holding sacred the ancient trial by jury; that the freedom of the press is one of the greatest bulwarks of liberty, and can never be restrained but by despotic governments; that a well-regulated militia, composed of the body of the people, trained to arms, is the proper, natural, and safe defence of a free state; that standing armies in times of peace should be avoided as dangerous to liberty, and in all cases the military should be under strict subordination to the civil power; that the people have a right to uniform government; that no free government can be preserved but by a firm adherence to justice, moderation, temperance, frugality, and virtue, and by frequent recurrences to fundamental principles; and that religion can be directed only by reason and conviction, not by force or violence; therefore all men are equally entitled to the free exercise of it according to the dictates of conscience. The unanimous voice of the convention approved of this declaration of rights.

Declaration of War against Great Britain (1812). The British Orders in Council and French Decrees remained unrepealed. Forbearance on the part of the United States no longer seemed a virtue. British newspapers had declared that the United States could not "be kicked into a war." The indignation of the American people was at fever heat; and on June 1, 1812, President Madison submitted to Congress a confidential war message, in which he recapitulated all the causes of complaint against Great Britain, and asking the National Legislature to consider and decide whether their country should longer remain passive "under these progressive and accumulated wrongs." He also made grave charges against France. The message was referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations, which, on June 3, reported an echo to the sentiments of the message. As a part of the report, Calhoun, the chairman, presented a bill declaring war against Great Britain. A motion was made, and lost, to include France in the same declaration. While the matter was pending in Congress the people throughout the country were fearfully excited by contending emotions. After much debate in Congress, it finally passed both houses, June 18, and became a law on receiving the signature of the President. The bill had been debated in secret session; now the seal of secrecy was removed, and on the 19th the President issued a proclamation announcing the fact, and calling upon the people of the United States to sustain the public authorities in measures for obtaining a speedy, just, and honorable peace. In the House of Representatives the members from Pennsylvania and the states south and west gave sixty-two votes for the measure to seventeen against it. In the Senate the same states gave fourteen for it to five against it. "Thus," said a late writer, "the war may be said to have been a measure of the South and West to take care of the interests of the North, much against the will of the latter." The minority in Congress soon issued an able protest against the war, which was chiefly written by Josiah Quincy, who was at the head of the opposition, not only in Congress, but throughout the country.

Declaration of War between England and France. On March 15, 1744, the King of France, at Versailles, declared war against England; and on the 29th King George, at St. James's Palace, declared war against France. Before these declarations were made known in Boston the governor of Cape Breton sent about nine hundred men under Duvivier, who surprised and took Canso, burned the place, and sent the prisoners (eighty in number) to Boston. Annapolis (Port Royal) was kept in alarm for a month by the French and Indians, and two hundred men were sent from Boston to reinforce the English garrison there. Massachusetts took vigorous measures for defence against the French and Indians everywhere. Full five hundred men were impressed, of which three hundred were for the eastern frontier, and two hundred for the western. The garrisons in the East were reinforced. Fortunately, twenty cannons (42-pounders) and two 13-inch mortars had just been sent to Castle William, in Boston harbor, a gift from the king, with all stores excepting gunpowder. The Legislature also ordered a chain of forts to be built between the Connecticut River and the New York boundary-line.

Declaratory Act, The. Pitt concluded his speech in the Commons against the Stamp Act by a proposition for its absolute and immediate repeal, at the same time recommending an act, to accompany the repeal, declaring, in the most unqualified terms, the sovereign authority of Great Britain over her colonies. This was intended as a salve for the national honor, necessary, as Pitt knew, to secure the repeal of the act. But Lord Camden, who was the principal supporter of the repeal bill in the Upper House, was opposed to the declaratory act, and vehemently declared that "taxation and representation are inseparable." The declaratory act became a law, but it was distasteful to thinking Americans, for it involved the kernel of royal prerogative, which the colonists rejected. But it was overlooked. Pitt had the honor of the repeal. The London merchants lauded him as a benefactor, and there was a burst of gratitude towards him in America. New York voted a statue to Pitt and the king; Virginia voted a statue to the monarch; Maryland passed a similar vote, and ordered a portrait of Lord Camden; and the authorities of Boston ordered full-length portraits of Barré and Conway, friends of the Americans, for Faneuil Hall.

Decorum, First Breach of, in Congress. Matthew Lyon was a rough, energetic member of Congress from Vermont from 1797 to 1801. A native of Ireland, he possessed much of the excitability of his people. Roger Griswold was also a member of Congress from Connecticut at the same time. Lyon was a democrat, Griswold a federalist. In his maiden speech Lyon ridiculed the formality exercised towards the President in waiting upon him, and challenged the ill-will of the Federalists and the dislike of his own partisans, for he assumed to be a leader of the democracy. During the balloting in the house (Jan. 30, 1798), in the case of the impeachment of Senator Blount, Lyon began a conversation with the speaker in a loud tone, as if he desired to attract the attention of the other members, in which he made disparaging and insulting remarks about the Connecticut members, saying the people of that state were misrepresented by their members of Congress. He said he knew the people well, for he had had occasion to fight them when they came to visit their relations. "Did you fight them with your wooden sword?" asked Griswold, in jocular allusion to the dismissal of Lyon from a company of Green Mountain Boys (which see) in 1775 for cowardice. This taunt was repeated in another form when Lyon declared that if he could only go to Connecticut and manage a newspaper there he would enlighten the people. "You couldn't change the opinion of the meanest hostler in the state," said Griswold, good-naturedly. Lyon declared he could, and that he had serious thoughts of moving into the state and fighting them on their own ground. Griswold laid his hand on Lyon's arm, and said, smiling, "If you go, Mr. Lyon, I suppose you will wear your wooden sword?" At this Lyon took fire, and, turning suddenly round, spat in Griswold's face. There was some commotion for a moment, and a motion was made for Lyon's expulsion from the house. Lyon's party friends rallied, and defeated the motion for expulsion. Soon afterwards Griswold attacked Lyon with a cane as he sat in his seat in the House, and seriously beat him over the head. Lyon rushed to the fireplace, and, seizing a pair of tongs, approached Griswold, who struck him a violent blow in the face, threw him down, and beat him on the floor. Griswold dragged him by the legs, when a call to order from the speaker stopped the disgraceful affray. A motion was made for the expulsion of both Lyon and Griswold, but it was lost; so also was a motion for a vote of censure. This was the first of those disgraceful personal encounters on the floor of Congress which have occasionally disgraced that body. A caricature representing the fight with cane and tongs was published soon after the occurrence.

Deerfield, on the west bank of the Connecticut River, Franklin County, Mass., was twice the victim of a foray by French and Indians. During King Philip's War a terrible slaughter occurred a mile from the town, Sept. 18 (O. S.), 1675. The Indians had burned Deerfield and murdered some of the inhabitants. The survivors fled, leaving about three thousand bushels of wheat in stacks in the field. Captain Thomas Lothrop, commanding part of a force at Hadley, was sent with eighty men to secure this grain. They were young soldiers, the "flower of Essex County." As they approached Deerfield they fell into an Indian ambush, and the captain and seventy-six of his men were slain. They sold their lives dearly, for ninety-six of their assailants perished in the fight. The stream near which the scene occurred has been called Bloody Brook to this day. A rude monument was erected on the spot forty years afterwards, and in 1838 another—an obelisk of white marble—was put up there. Late in February, 1704, a party of French and Indians, under Major Hertel de Rouville, who had travelled on snow-shoes from Canada, approached Deerfield. The chief object of the expedition was to procure a little bell hung over the meeting-house in that village. It had been bought in France for the church in the Indian village of Caughnawaga, ten miles above Montreal. The vessel that bore it to America was captured by a New England privateer and taken into Boston harbor. The bell was sold to the Deerfield congregation. Father Nicolas, the priest at Caughnawaga, persuaded the Indians to accompany him, under De Rouville, to get the bell. When the invaders approached Deerfield, the snow lay four feet deep in that region, and was covered by a hard crust that bore the men. Upon drifts that lay by the palisades they were able to crawl over these defences in the gloom of night, while the inhabitants were slumbering. The first intima-

Congressional Pugilists.
1. Jonathan Dayton, Speaker.
2. Jonathan W. Condy, Clerk.
3. Rev. Ashbel Green, Chaplain.
He in a trice struck Lyon thrice
Upon his head, enrag'd sir,
Who seiz'd the tongs to ease his wrongs,
And Griswold thus engag'd, sir.
Congress Hall,
in Philad'a, Feb. 15, 1798.
S.E. Cor. 6th & Chestnut St.

FIRST FIGHT IN CONGRESS.

tion the villagers had of danger was the bursting in of the doors before the dawn (March 1, 1704), and the terrible sound of the war-whoop. The people were dragged from their beds and murdered, without regard to age or sex, or carried into captivity. The village was set on fire, and every building, excepting the chapel and one dwelling-house, was laid in ashes. Forty-seven of the inhabitants were killed, and one hundred and twenty were captives on their way through the wilderness towards Canada an hour after sunrise. Under the direction of Father Nicolas, the bell was carried away, and finally found its destined place in the belfry of the church at Caughnawaga, where it still hangs. Among the victims of this foray were Rev. John Williams, pastor of the church at Deerfield, and his family, who were carried into captivity, excepting two children, who were murdered. (See *Williams, John.*)

Defection in Pennsylvania. The gloomy outlook after the fall of Fort Washington (which see) and the flight of Washington and his melting army across New Jersey (which see) caused many persons of influence in Pennsylvania, as well as in New Jersey, to waver and fall away from the patriot cause. The most conspicuous of these in Pennsylvania were Joseph Galloway, who had been a member of the first Continental Congress, and Andrew Allen, also a member of that Congress, and two of his brothers. The brothers Howe having issued a new proclamation of pardon and amnesty to all who should within sixty days promise not to take up arms against the king, these men availed themselves of it, not doubting their speedy restoration to their former fortunes and political importance. They went over to Howe; so did Samuel Tucker, a leader in the movements against British oppression in New Jersey, and a host of Jerseymen, who signed a pledge of fidelity to the British crown. Even John Dickinson, whose fidelity as a patriot may not be questioned, was so thoroughly convinced of the folly of the Declaration of Independence and the probability of a return to the British fold that he discredited the Continental bills of credit, and refused to accept an appointment from Delaware as a delegate in Congress. The State of Maryland also showed a willingness at this juncture to renounce the Declaration of Independence for the sake of peace. Amidst this falling away of civilians and the rapid melting of his army, Washington's faith and courage never faltered. From Newark, when he was flying with his shattered and rapidly diminishing forces towards the Delaware River before pursuing Cornwallis, he applied to the patriotic and energetic William Livingston, governor of New Jersey, for aid. To expressions of sympathy from the governor, he replied (Nov. 30, 1776), "I will not despair."

Defence, General Preparations for. On May 26, 1775, the Continental Congress unanimously determined that, as hostilities had actually commenced in Massachusetts, and large reinforcements were expected for the British troops in Boston, the several provinces should be immediately put in a state of defence. The necessary committees were speedily appointed to prepare reports. One of them was to designate the posts to be occupied in New York; another to recommend methods for raising ammunition and military stores; a third to estimate the amount of money necessary to be raised for purposes of defence; and a fourth to prepare rules and regulations for the government of the army. Washington's good judgment had been so conspicuous in the past that he was named chairman of all these committees.

Defences of the Delaware. When Howe entered Philadelphia (September, 1777) the Americans still held control of the Delaware River below that city. On Mud Island (consisting of mud and sand), near the confluence of the Schuylkill and Delaware, was built Fort Mifflin. On the New Jersey shore, opposite, at Red Bank, was Fort Mercer, a strong redoubt, well furnished with heavy artillery. At Billingsport, on the same shore, three miles lower down, were extensive but unfinished works designed to guard some obstructions in the river there. Other formidable obstructions were placed in the river below forts Mifflin and Mercer, in the form of *chevaux-de-frise*—sunken crates of stones, with heavy spears of iron-pointed timber, to receive and pierce the bows of vessels. Besides these, there were floating batteries on the river. (See *Forts Mercer and Mifflin.*)

Defences of Washington. Immediately after the battle at Bull's Run (which see) energetic measures were taken to place defences around the city of Washington that should make it absolutely secure from attack. General George B. McClellan had been called to the chief command of the forces at and near Washington. With the assistance of Majors Barry and Barnard he projected a series of fortifications at prominent elevated points, and the two officers named were detailed to construct them. Not an eminence near the capital was long without a fortification upon it. So vigorously was the enterprise prosecuted that in the course of a few months not less than fifty-two of these military works were completed.* At no time afterwards during the war did the Confederates ever seriously attempt to assail them. At no time was the capital in danger from external foes. (See map on opposite page.)

Definitive Treaty of Peace. (See *Treaty of Peace*, 1783.)

De Gourgues HANGS SPANIARDS IN FLORIDA. (See *Huguenots in Florida.*)

De Grasse, COUNT, DEFEATED. On April 12, 1782, a fierce naval engagement occurred in the West Indies between Admiral the Count de Grasse and Admiral Sir George Rodney. The count's flag-ship was the *Ville de Paris*, the same as when he assisted in the capture of Cornwallis at Yorktown. She was a magnificent vessel, which the city of Paris had presented to the king (Louis XV.). The count fought his antagonist with such desperation that when he was compelled to strike his colors only two men besides himself were left standing on the upper deck. By this defeat and capture there fell into the hands of the English thirty-six chests of money and the whole train of artillery intended for an attack on Jamaica. The French lost in the engagement, in killed and wounded, about three thousand men; the British lost eleven hundred. For more than a century the French had not, in any naval engagement, been so completely beaten. The fleet was nearly ruined.

COUNT DE GRASSE.

De Haas, JOHN PHILIP, was born in Holland about 1735; died in Philadelphia about 1794. He was descended from an ancient family in northern France; came to America in 1750; was an ensign in the French and Indian War; participated in a sharp conflict with Indians near Pittsburgh; and was colonel of the First Pennsylvania regiment in 1776. He served in the American army in Canada, and afterwards at Ticonderoga. He led his regiment from Lake Champlain to New York, and participated in the battle on Long Island in August, 1776. In February, 1777, he was promoted to brigadier-general. General De Haas was a good disciplinarian, and served in various capacities during the entire war with credit to himself and benefit to his adopted country. The latter years of his life were passed in Philadelphia.

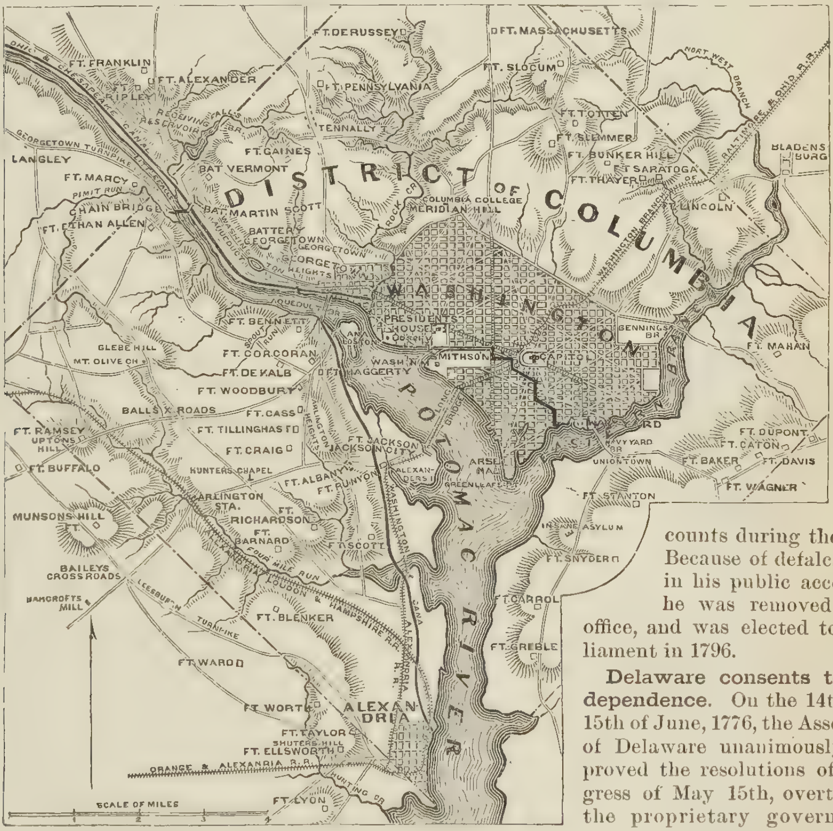
De Haven, EDWIN J., an arctic explorer, was born in Philadelphia in 1819; died there May 9, 1865. He entered the navy as midshipman, rose to lieutenant in 1841, and resigned in 1857. He was with Wilkes in his great exploring expedition in 1838–42, and commanded the first exploring expedition fitted out at New York to search for Sir John Franklin in the Arctic seas. The expedition consisted of the *Advance*, one hundred and forty tons, and the *Rescue*, ninety tons. Dr. Kane, who accompanied the expedition, published a full account of it.

---

* According to general orders issued by McClellan on Sept. 30, 1861, in which the names and locations of these forts were designated, thirty-two of them were then completed. At the beginning of December forty-eight were finished.

De Lancey, JAMES, was born in New York in 1703; died there, Aug. 2, 1760. He graduated at the University of Cambridge, England, and soon after his return to New York (1729) was made a justice of the Supreme Court of that province, and chief-justice in 1733. For two years, as lieutenant-governor, he was acting governor (1753–55), after the death of Governor Osborn. Mr. De Lancey was for many years the most influential man in the politics and legislation of the colony, and was one of the founders of King's (now Columbia) College. He wrote a *Review of the Military Operations from* 1753 *to* 1756.

De Lancey, OLIVER, brother of Chief-justice James, was born in New York city in 1717; died at Beverley, England, Oct. 27, 1785. He was for many years a member of the Assembly and council, also a colonel of provincial troops, and when the Revolution broke out he organized and equipped, chiefly at his own expense, a corps of loyalists. In 1777 he was appointed brigadier in the royal service. His military operations were chiefly in the region of New York city. At the evacuation of that city in 1783 he went to England.



MAP SHOWING THE DEFENCES OF WASHINGTON.

De Lancey, OLIVER, was born in New York city; died in Edinburgh in September, 1822. Educated abroad, he entered the British army in 1766, and rose to major in 1773; was with the British army in Boston during the siege in 1775–76, and accompanied it to Nova Scotia. He returned with it to Staten Island in June, and commanded British cavalry when the army invaded Long Island in August, which formed the advance of the right column. To him General Woodhull surrendered under promise of protection, but it was not afforded, and the patriot was murdered. He was active under Sir Henry Clinton throughout the war. In 1781 he succeeded Major André as adjutant-general, and on his return to England undertook the arrangement of the claims of the loyalists for compensation for losses in America. He was also at the head of a commission for settling all army accounts during the war. Because of defalcations in his public accounts, he was removed from office, and was elected to Parliament in 1796.

Delaware consents to Independence. On the 14th and 15th of June, 1776, the Assembly of Delaware unanimously approved the resolutions of Congress of May 15th, overturned the proprietary government within her borders, substituted her own name on all occasions for that of the king, and gave to her delegates new instructions, which left them at liberty to vote, respecting independence, according to their judgment. This was considered a tacit sanction of independence.

Delaware, POSITION OF (1861). This little state lay, still more than Maryland, within the embrace of the free-labor states, and took but very little part in the secession movements at the beginning of 1861. Its governor (William Burton), several of its senators, its representatives in the National Senate, and many leading politicians sympathized with the Secessionists, but the people in general were conservative and loyal. Its Legislature convened at Dover, the capital of the state, on June 3, 1861, when the governor, in his message, charged the impending troubles upon the Abolitionists of the North, who, from "pulpits, rostrums, and schools, by press and people," had waged a "persistent war upon more than $2,000,000,000 of property." On the following day Henry Dickinson, a commissioner from Mississippi, addressed the Legislature, and urged the right and duty of secession from the free-labor states. The House, by unanimous vote (concurred in by a majority of the Senate), adopted a resolution that they deemed it proper, and due to themselves and the people of Delaware, to express their unqualified disapproval of the remedy for existing evils proposed by the commissioner from Mississippi. This ended his mission. Delaware maintained this position during the war that ensued; and it is a noteworthy fact that it was the only slave-labor state whose soil was not moistened with the blood of the slain in battle.

Delaware, The Colony and State of, takes its name from Lord De la Warr (Delaware), who entered the bay of that name in 1610, when he was governor of Virginia. It had been discovered by Hudson in 1609. In 1629 Samuel Godyn, a director of the Dutch West India Company, bought of the Indians a tract of land near the mouth of the Delaware; and the next year De Vries, with twenty colonists from Holland, settled near the site of Lewes. (See *De Vries.*) The colony was destroyed by the natives three years afterwards, and the red men had sole possession of that district until 1638, when a colony of Swedes and Finns landed on Cape Henlopen, and purchased the lands along the bay and river as far north as the falls at Trenton. (See *New Sweden.*) They built Fort Christiana near the site of Wilmington. Their settlements were mostly planted within the present limits of Pennsylvania. The Swedes were conquered by the Dutch of New Netherland in 1655, and from that time until 1664, when New Netherland was conquered by the English, the territory was claimed by the Dutch, and controlled by them. Then Lord Baltimore, proprietor of Maryland, claimed all the territory on the west side of Delaware Bay, and even to latitude 40°; and settlers from Maryland attempted to drive away the settlers in the present State of Delaware. When William Penn obtained a grant of Pennsylvania, he was very desirous of owning the land on Delaware Bay to the sea, and procured from the Duke of York a release of all his title and claim to New Castle and twelve miles around it, and to the land between that tract and the sea; and in the presence of all the settlers he produced his deeds (October, 1682), and formally accepted the surrender of the territory. Lord Baltimore pressed his claim, but in 1685 the Lords of Trade and Plantations made a decision in Penn's favor. A compromise afterwards adjusted all conflicting claims. The tracts which now constitute the State of Delaware, Penn called "The Territories," or "Three Lower Counties on the Delaware." They were governed as a part of Pennsylvania for about twenty years afterwards, and each county had six delegates in the Legislature. Then Penn allowed them a separate Legislature; but the colony was under the governor of Pennsylvania until 1776, when the inhabitants declared it an independent state. A constitution was adopted by a convention of the people of the three counties—New Castle, Kent, and Sussex—Sept. 20, 1776. A state government was organized, and John McKinley was elected its first governor. In 1792 a second constitution was framed and adopted. Delaware was the first state that adopted the National Constitution. This was done by a convention on Dec. 7, 1787, or less than three months after it was signed by the members of the convention who framed it. Although Delaware was a slave-labor state, it refused to secede at the outbreak of the Civil War; and, though it assumed a sort of neutrality, that little state furnished several regiments of volunteers for the National army. During the French and Indian War, and the war for independence, Delaware patriotically furnished its share of men and money for the public defence.

LIBERTY AND IN...

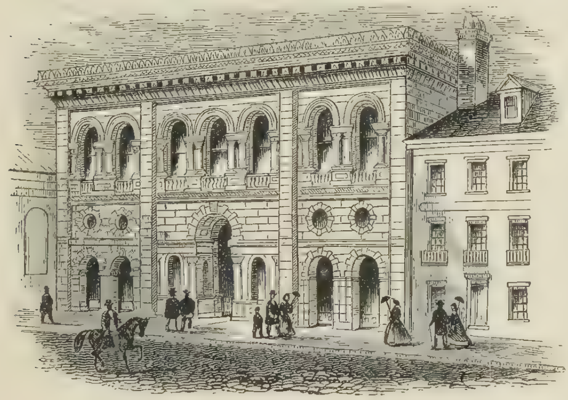
STATE SEAL OF DELAWARE.

Delawares, an important family of the Algonquin nation, who are also called Lenni-Lenapes, or "men." When the Europeans found them, they were dwelling in detached bands, under separate sachems, on the Delaware River. The Dutch traded with them as early as 1613, and held friendly relations with them; but in 1632 the Dutch settlement of Swanendael was destroyed by them. The Swedes found them peaceful when they settled on the Delaware. This family claim to have come from the west with the Minquas, to whom they became vassals. They also claimed to be the source of all the Algonquins, and were styled "grand fathers." The Delawares comprised three powerful families (viz., Turtle, Turkey, and Wolf), and were known as Minseys, or Munsees, and Delawares proper. The former occupied the northern part of New Jersey and a portion of Pennsylvania, and the latter inhabited lower New Jersey, the banks of the Delaware below Trenton, and the whole valley of the Schuylkill. After the conquest of New Netherland, the English kept up trade with the Delawares, and William Penn and his followers bought large tracts of land from them. They were parties on the Indian side to the famous treaty with Penn. At that time the Indians within the limits of his domain were estimated at six thousand in number. The Five Nations conquered the Delawares, and called them "women" in contempt; and when, at the middle of the last century, the latter, dissatisfied with the interpretation of a treaty, refused to leave their land, the Five Nations haughtily ordered them to go. Commingling with warlike tribes, the Delawares became warlike themselves, and developed great energy on the war-path. They fought the Cherokees, and in 1773 some of them went over the mountains and settled in Ohio. So early as 1741 the Moravians had begun missionary work among them on the Lehigh, near Bethlehem and Nazareth, and a little church was soon filled with Indian converts. At the beginning of the French and Indian War the Delawares were opposed to the English, excepting a portion who were led by the Moravians; but in treaties held at Easton, in Pennsylvania, at different times, from 1756 until 1761, they made peace with the English, and redeemed themselves from their vassalage to the Six Nations. They settled on the Susquehanna, the Christian Indians apart. Then another emigration over the mountains occurred, and they planted a settlement at Muskingum, Ohio. These joined Pontiac, and besieged Fort Pitt (Pittsburgh) and other frontier posts, but were defeated in August, 1763, by Colonel Bouquet, and their great chief, Teedyuscung, was killed. Their towns were ravaged, and the Moravian converts, who were innocent, fled for refuge to Philadelphia. These returned to the Susquehanna in 1764, and the Ohio portion made peace at Muskingum the same year, and at Fort Pitt in 1765. The remainder in Pennsylvania emigrated to Ohio, and in 1786 not a Delaware was left east of the Alleghany Mountains. Moravian missionaries went with their flocks, and the Christian Indians increased. The pagans kept upon the war-path until they were severely smitten in a drawn battle at Point Pleasant, in 1774. The Delawares joined the English when the Revolutionary War broke out, but made peace with the Americans in 1778, when a massacre of ninety of the Christian Indians in Ohio by the Americans aroused the fury of the tribe. Being almost powerless, they fled to the Huron River and Canada. Under the provisions of a treaty in 1787, a small band of Delawares returned to the Muskingum, the remainder being hostile. These fought Wayne, and were parties to the treaty at Greenville in 1795. (See *Greenville.*) The scattered tribes in Ohio refused to join Tecumtha in the War of 1812, and in 1818 they ceded all their lands to the United States, and settled on the White River, in Illinois, to the number of eighteen hundred, leaving a small remnant behind. They finally settled in Kansas, where missions were established among them, and they rapidly increased in the arts of civilized life. In the late Civil War, the Delawares furnished one hundred and seventy soldiers for the National army. Having acquired land from the Cherokees in the Indian Territory, they are now there, about one thousand strong, and still keep up their totemic distinction of Turtle, Turkey, and Wolf families.

Democracy, EARLY, IN NEW YORK. We have observed (see *Keith* and *Stuyvesant*) how the first germ of democracy or republicanism appeared in New Amsterdam, and was checked in its visible growth by the heel of power. It grew, nevertheless. It was stimulated by the kind acts of Governor Dongan (see *Dongan*); and when the English revolution of 1688 had developed the strength of the people's will, and their just aspirations were formulated in the Bill of Rights, it sprang up into a vigorous fruit-bearing plant. Its power was manifested in the choice and administration of Leisler as ruler until a royal governor was appointed (see *Leisler*), and his death caused the line of separation between democracy and aristocracy — republicanism and monarchy — "Leislerians" and "Anti-Leislerians"—to be distinctly drawn. During the exciting period of Leisler's rule, the aristocratic or royalist party were led by Nicholas Bayard, a wealthy and influential citizen, who was warmly seconded by Robert Livingston. These two men were chiefly instrumental in bringing Leisler to the scaffold and treating his family and friends in a shameful manner. This conduct was continued until the Earl of Bellomont succeeded Fletcher as governor (see *Bellomont*), when the "Anti-Leislerians" were reduced to a minority, and kept quiet for a while. After the death of Bellomont (March 5, 1701), John Nanfan, his lieutenant, ruled for a while. Nanfan favored the democratic party. So soon as it was known that Lord Cornbury, a thorough aristocrat and royalist, had been appointed governor, Bayard and his party heaped abuse not only upon the dead Bellomont, but upon Nanfan. The latter saw that Bayard was on the verge of a pit which he had digged himself, and he pushed him into it. Bayard had procured an act, in 1691, aimed at Leisler and his supporters, providing that any person who should in any manner endeavor to disturb the government of the colony should be deemed "rebels and traitors unto their majesties," and should incur the pains and penalties of the laws of England for such offence. Bayard was arrested on a charge of treason, tried, convicted, and received the horrid sentence then imposed by the English law upon traitors—to be hanged, quartered, etc. Bayard applied for a reprieve until his majesty's pleasure should be known. It was granted, and in the meantime Cornbury arrived, when all was reversed. Bayard was released and reinstated. The democrats were placed under the lash of the aristocrats, which Bayard and Livingston used without mercy by the hand of the wretched ruler to whom they offered libations of flattery. The chief-justice who tried Bayard, and the advocate who opposed him, were compelled to fly to England. From that time onward there was a continuous conflict by the democracy of New York with the aristocracy as represented by the royal governors and their official parasites. It fought bravely, and won many victories, the greatest of which was in a fierce battle for the freedom of the press, in the case of John Peter Zenger. (See *Zenger's Trial.*)

Democracy in New Netherland. Governor Kieft (which see) had resolved to chasten the Raritan Indians for a grave offence. He called upon the people to shoulder their muskets for a fight. They knew his avarice and greed, and withal his cowardice, and boldly charged these things upon him. "It is all well for you," they said, "who have not slept out of the fort a single night since you came, to endanger our lives and our homes in undefended places," and they refused to obey. This attitude of the people transformed the governor. He invited (Aug. 23, 1641) the heads of families of New Amsterdam to meet him in consultation on public affairs. They assembled at the fort, and promptly chose twelve citizens to represent them. So appeared the first popular assembly, and so was chosen the first representative congress in New Netherland. It was a spontaneous outgrowth of the innate spirit of democracy that animated the people. The twelve were the vigorous seeds of that representative democracy which bore fruit in all the colonies more than a century later. Again, when the colony was threatened with destruction by the Indians, Kieft summoned the people into council (September, 1643), who chose eight men as the popular representatives, to act with the governor in public affairs. Again, when Governor Stuyvesant (which see) found the finances of the colony of New Netherland in such a wretched condition that taxation was necessary, he dared not tax the people without their consent, for fear of offending the States-General, so he called a convention of citizens, and directed them to choose eighteen of their best men, of whom he might select nine as representatives of the tax-payers, and who should form a co-ordinate branch of the local government. He tried to hedge them around with restrictions, but the nine proved to be more potent in promoting popular liberty than had Kieft's twelve. They nourished the prolific seed of democracy, which burst into vigorous life in the time of Jacob Leisler (which see). Stuyvesant tried to stifle its growth. The more it was opposed, the more vigorous it grew. Late in the autumn of 1653 a convention of nineteen delegates, who represented eight villages or communities, assembled at the town-hall in New Amsterdam, ostensibly to take measures to secure themselves from the depredations of the barbarians around them and sea-rovers. The governor tried in vain to control their action; they paid very little attention to his wishes or his commands. He stormed and threatened, but prudently yielded to the demands of the people that he should issue a call for another convention, and give legal sanction for the election of delegates thereto. These met in New Amsterdam on Dec. 10, 1653. Of the eight districts represented, four were Dutch and four English. Of the nineteen delegates, ten were of Dutch and nine were of English nativity. This was the first really representative assembly in the great State of New York chosen by the people. The names of the delegates were as follows: From New Amsterdam, Van Hattem, Kregier, and Van de Grist; from Breucklen (Brooklyn), Lubbertsen, Van der Beeck, and Beeckman; from Flushing, Hicks and Flake; from Newtown, Coe and Hazard; from Heemstede (Hempstead), Washburn and Somers; from Amersfoort (Flatlands), Wolfertsen, Strycker, and Swartwout; from Midwout (Flatbush), Elbertsen and Spicer; and from Gravesend, Baxter and Hubbard. Baxter was then the English secretary of the colony, and led the English delegates. The object of this convention was to form and adopt a remonstrance against the tyrannous rule of the governor. It was drawn by Baxter, signed by all the delegates present, and sent to the governor, with a demand that he should give a "categorical answer." In it the grievances of the people were stated under six heads. Stuyvesant met this severe document with his usual pluck. He denied the right of some of the delegates to seats in the convention. He denounced the whole thing as the wicked work of Englishmen, and doubted whether George Baxter knew what he was about. He wanted to know whether there was no one among the Dutch in New Netherland "sagacious and expert enough to draw up a remonstrance to the Director-general and his council," and severely reprimanded the new city government of New Amsterdam (New York) for "seizing this dangerous opportunity for conspiring with the English [with whom Holland was then at war], who were ever hatching mischief, but never performing their promises, and who might to-morrow ally themselves with the North"—meaning Sweden and Denmark. The convention was not to be intimidated by bluster. They informed Stuyvesant, by the mouth of Beeckman, that unless he answered their complaints, they would appeal to the States-General. At this the governor took fire, and, seizing his cane, ordered Beeckman to leave his presence. The plucky ambassador coolly folded his arms, and silently defied the magistrate. When Stuyvesant's anger had abated, he asked Beeckman's pardon for his rudeness. He was not so complaisant with the convention. He ordered them to disperse on pain of his "high displeasure." The convention executed their threat by sending an advocate to Holland to lay their grievances before the States-General.

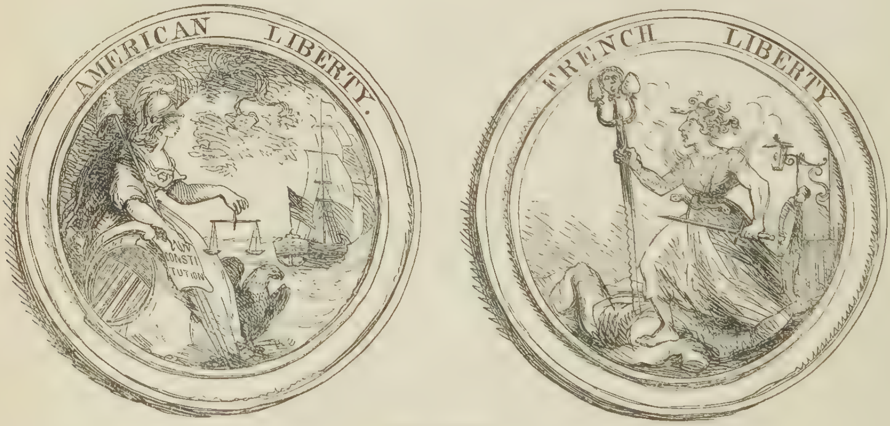
Democratic Convention at Charleston (1860). On April 23, 1860, about six hundred chosen representatives of the Democratic party assembled in convention in the hall of the South Carolina Institute in Charleston, and chose Caleb Cushing, of Massachusetts, their chairman. From the first hour of the session knowing ones discovered omens of an impending tempest, which might topple from its foundations the political organization, founded in 1828, known as the Democratic party. Mr. Cushing was a statesman of great experience, and then sixty years of age. He was a scholar of wide and varied culture, and a sagacious observer of men. Having joined the Democratic party at the time of the defection of President Tyler, he became conspicuous among the advocates of the war with Mexico and other measures for the extension of slave territory and the perpetuation of the system, and was regarded with great favor by the Southern politicians in the convention as their fast political friend. His opening address to the convention pleased them. In it he declared it to be the mission of the Democratic party "to reconcile popular freedom with constituted order," and to maintain "the sacred reserved rights of the sovereign states." He charged the Republicans with "laboring to overthrow the Constitution." He declared that the Republicans were aiming to produce "a perpetual sectional conspiracy," which would hurry the country on to civil war," and that it was "the high and noble part of the Democratic party of the Union to withstand—to strike down and conquer—these banded enemies of the Constitution." This speech was applauded by all but the extreme pro-slavery wing of the convention; who, it is said, desired rather to "strike down" the Democratic party, to obtain more important advantages for themselves. They had come instructed to demand from the convention a candidate and an avowal of principles which should promise a guarantee for the speedy recognition by the national government and the people, in a political way, of the system of slavery as a national institution. The most prominent candidate for the presidency in the convention was Stephen A. Douglas, who was committed to an opposite policy concerning slavery, and whose friends would never vote for the demands of the extreme pro-slavery men. This the latter well knew. They also knew that the rejection of Mr. Douglas by the representatives of the slaveholders would split the Democratic party, and they resolved to act, it is said, in accordance with their convictions. They held the dissevering wedge in their own hands, and they determined to use it with effect. (See *Impending Crisis.*) A committee of one delegate from each state was appointed to prepare a platform of principles for the action of the convention. Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, proposed in that committee to adopt the doctrine of the right of the people in any state or territory to decide whether slavery should or should not exist within its borders. This was rejected by seventeen states (only two of them free-labor states) against fifteen. This was the entering of the dissevering wedge. The majority now offered to accept that doctrine, with an additional resolution declaring that, in the spirit of Judge Taney's opinion (see *Dred Scott Case*), neither Congress nor any other legislative body had a right to interfere with slavery anywhere, or to impair or destroy the right of property in slaves by any legislation. This was a demand for the Democratic party to recognize slavery as a sacred, permanent, and national institution. The minority, composed wholly of delegates from the free-labor states, resolved that the limit of concession to the demands of the Southern politicians was reached, and they would yield no further. They represented a majority of the presidential electors—one hundred and seventy-two against one hundred and twenty-seven. They offered to adopt a resolution expressive of their willingness to abide by any decision of the Supreme Court of the United States. To this concession Butler objected, and three reports from the committee went into the convention—a majority and minority report, and one from Mr. Butler. A warm debate ensued, and Avery, from North Carolina, declared that the doctrine of popular sovereignty—the authority of the people concerning slavery—was as dangerous as that of Congressional interference with the institution. The debate continued until the 29th, and the next morning a vote was taken. The minority report, in favor of popular sovereignty, was adopted by a decided majority, when Walker, of Alabama, afterwards the Confederate Secretary of War, announced that the delegates from his state would secede from the convention. The movement was preconcerted. This delegation was followed by those of other slave-labor states, and the seceders assembled in St. Andrew's Hall, to prepare for an independent political organization. The disruption of the Democratic party, as represented in the convention, was now complete. When D. C. Glenn, of Mississippi, announced the secession of the delegation from his state, he said: "I tell Southern members, and for them I tell the North, that in less than sixty days you will find a united South standing side by side with us." There was great rejoicing in Charleston that night because of this secession, for the politicians were aware that the scheme for disunion was ripe for execution. The seceders organized a "Constitutional Convention," with James A. Bayard, of Delaware, as chairman. They called the body they had left the "Rump Convention." On May 3d they adjourned, to meet in Richmond, Va., in June. (See *Seceders' Convention.*) The regular convention also adjourned, to meet in Baltimore June 18. (See *Baltimore Convention.*)



THE SOUTH CAROLINA INSTITUTE.

Democratic Revolution in England. Upon the changes in the policy of Great Britain the English-American colonies were always affected; and of each phase of the imperial government, admirers and supporters would always be found in the colonies. The revolt against Charles I. (1641) was an active protest of growing democracy against the absurd doctrine of the divine right of kings and the almost illimitable royal prerogative. The revolution, which was for a while successful, and swept monarchy from the land, was the effort of the people to lead in the progress of humanity, and to contend for that equality which the law of nature gave them. They failed to secure permanent success because they attempted too much at once. Their energy in detaching the decaying institutions of the past from the living issues of the hour was too heroic, and a little more than eleven years after they decapitated their monarch the old order of things was restored in the person of his son. In these changes society in America felt the shocks, but with far less intensity than they were felt in England.

Democratic Societies. In imitation of the Jacobin clubs in Paris, members of the Republican party, at about the time when Genet arrived from France, formed secret associations, which they called "Democratic societies." Their ideas and feelings were almost wholly French, and a large proportion of their membership consisted of French people. They were disloyal to the government of the United States, and sought to control the politics of the Union. They seem to have been inspired with the fanaticism which at that time controlled France. They vigorously denounced and opposed Washington's proclamation of neutrality. The societies existed in various states, and first introduced the word "Democrat" into American politics. Many of the Republican party would not adopt the word, preferring the old name, until the combined opposition became known as the Democratic-Republican party. The Democratic societies flourished for a while with great vigor. Their members were pledged to secrecy. Each society had a distinct seal of its own, which was attached to the certificate of every member, in which he was commended to the good offices of every similar society in the Union. The informed and thoughtful citizens saw scarcely any resemblance between French and American democracy. The former assumed the aspect of violence in every form, while the latter was calm, just, and peaceful. A pamphlet was published in 1796 in which the difference is delineated by an engraving called *The Contrast*. It was soon after that these societies began to dwindle in numbers and soon disappeared.


AMERICAN LIBERTY.
CONSTITUTION
FRENCH LIBERTY.

THE CONTRAST.

Democratic Societies, Certificate of Membership in. The certificate of membership in the political societies which played a conspicuous part in national politics during the administration of President Washington ran as follows: "To all other societies established on principles of Liberty, Equality, Union, Patriotic Virtue, and Perseverance: We, the members of the Republican Society of Baltimore, certify and declare to all Republican or Democratic societies, and to all Republicans individually, that citizen —— hath been admitted, and now is a member of our society, and that, from his known zeal to promote Republican principles and the rights of humanity, we have granted him this our certificate (which he has signed in the margin), and do recommend him to all Republicans, that they may receive him with fraternity, which we offer to all those who may come to us with similar credentials. In witness whereof, etc. Alexander McKinn, President; George Sears, Secretary." The seal of the Baltimore Society, which issued the above certificate, is composed of a figure of Liberty, with pileus, Phrygian cap, and fasces, with the name of the society.

SEAL.

De Monts, Sieur (Pierre de Gast), a wealthy Huguenot (see *Huguenots*), who was commissioned viceroy of New France (see *Verrazani*), with full powers to settle and rule in a region extending over six degrees of latitude, from Cape May to Quebec. The domain was named Cadié in the charter. (See *Acadia.*) Vested with the monopoly of the fur-trade in the region of the River and Gulf of St. Lawrence, they attempted to make a settlement on the former. Making arrangements with Champlain as chief navigator, De Monts sailed from France in March, 1604, with four ships, well manned, accompanied by his bosom friend, the Baron de Poutrincourt, and Pont-Grevé as his lieutenants; and finding the St. Lawrence ice-bound, on his arrival early in April, he determined to make a settlement farther to the southward. The ships also bore a goodly company of Protestant and Roman Catholic emigrants, with soldiers, artisans and convicts. There were several Jesuits in the company. Passing around Cape Breton and the peninsula of Nova Scotia into the Bay of Fundy, they anchored in a fine harbor on the northern shore of that peninsula early in May. Poutrincourt was charmed with the country, and was allowed to remain with a part of the company, while De Monts, with the remainder, seventy in number, went to Passamaquoddy Bay, and, on an island near the mouth of the St. Croix, built a fort, and there spent a terribly severe winter, that killed half of them. In the spring they returned to Poutrincourt's settlement, which he had named Port Royal — now Annapolis, N. S. Early the next autumn De Monts and Poutrincourt returned to France, leaving Champlain and Pont-Grevé to make further explorations. (See *Champlain.*) There was a struggle for rule and existence at Port Royal for a few years. Poutrincourt returned to France for recruits for his colony. Jesuit priests who accompanied him on his return to Acadié (Nova Scotia) claimed the right to supreme rule by virtue of their holy office. Poutrincourt resisted their claim stoutly, saying, "It is my part to rule you on earth; it is your part to guide me to heaven." When he finally left Port Royal (1612) in charge of his son, the Jesuit priests made the same claim on the fiery young Poutrincourt, who threatened them with corporal punishment, when they withdrew to Mount Desert Island (now a summer resort) and set up a cross in token of sovereignty. They were there in 1613, when Samuel Argall, a freebooter of the seas, went, under the sanction of the governor of Virginia, to drive the French from Acadié as intruders on the soil of a powerful English company. The Jesuits at Mount Desert, it is said, thirsting for vengeance, piloted Argall to Port Royal. He plundered and burned the town, drove the inhabitants to the woods, and broke up the settlement. (See *Acadia.*) Unable to contend with the English company, De Monts abandoned Acadié and proposed to plant a colony on the St. Lawrence River, under the direction of Champlain and Pont-Grevé. But his monopoly was partially revoked in 1608. Under the auspices of a company of merchants at Dieppe and St. Malo, settlements were begun at Quebec and Montreal. (See *Champlain.*) Soon afterwards the fortune of De Monts was so much reduced that he could not pursue his scheme of colonization, and it was abandoned.

SIEUR DE MONTS.

Denmark, and American Cruisers. Near the close of September, 1779, an American frigate entered the port of Bergen, with two rich prizes. The British envoy at Copenhagen complained, and the Danish minister published an ordinance forbidding the sale of the prizes until they should have been condemned in an American court of admiralty. In the same ordinance he declared that as the King of Denmark had recognized neither the independence nor the flag of the United States, its vessels could not be permitted to bring their prizes into Danish harbors. The two prizes were set free.

Dennie, Joseph, author and journalist, was born in Boston, Aug. 30, 1768; died in Philadelphia, Jan. 7, 1812. He graduated at Harvard in 1790, became a lawyer, but abandoned his profession for the pursuit of literature. He contributed articles to various newspapers, while yet practising law, over the signature of "Farrago." In 1795 he became connected with a Boston weekly newspaper called *The Tablet.* It survived only three months, when Dennie became the editor of the *Farmer's Weekly Museum,* at Walpole, N. H., which acquired an extensive circulation. To it he contributed a series of attractive essays under the title of *The Lay Preacher.* These gave their author a high reputation and were extensively copied into the newspapers of the country. He went to Philadelphia in 1799, where he was confidential secretary to Timothy Pickering, then Secretary of State. In that position he remained for a few months, and after editing for a short time the *United States Gazette*, he commenced, in conjunction with Asbury Dickens, the *Portfolio*, at first a weekly, but afterwards a monthly periodical, which acquired a high reputation. In that publication he adopted the literary name of "Oliver Oldschool." The *Portfolio* became the recognized leader in periodical literature, and was enriched by the contributions of some of the foremost writers in the country. Mr. Dennie continued his connection with it until his death.

Dennison, WILLIAM, known as the "war-governor" of Ohio, was born in Cincinnati, Nov. 23, 1815. He was educated at the Miami University, and graduated in 1835. Admitted to the bar in 1840, he became an eminent practitioner. In 1848–50 he was a member of the Ohio Legislature; and he took an active part in financial and railroad matters. Mr. Dennison was one of the founders of the Republican party in 1856. In 1860 he was chosen governor of Ohio, which office he held two years, during which time he performed most important official service in putting troops into the field for the defence of the life of the Republic. From October, 1864, to July, 1866, Mr. Dennison was Postmaster-general, when he withdrew from the cabinet of President Johnson.

WILLIAM DENNISON.

De Nonville, THE EXPEDITION OF. In 1685 the Marquis de Nonville, a colonel in the French army, brave and sagacious, was appointed governor of Canada, with instructions to "humble the pride of the Iroquois," who were the friends of the English and had rejected overtures from the French. He took post at Fort Frontenac (see *La Salle*), on the site of Kingston, Canada, and there prepared for an expedition against a portion of the Five Nations. He declared to his sovereign that the Indians sustained themselves only by the aid of the English, who were "the chief promoters of the insolence and arrogance of the Iroquois." He tried to induce them to meet him in council, to seduce them from the influence of the English, and a few went to Frontenac; but when Dongan heard of the designs of the French he invited representatives of the Five Nations to a council in New York city. They came, and Dongan told them the King of England would be their "loving father," and conjured them not to listen to the persuasions of the French. Finally, in May, 1687, De Nonville was joined by eight hundred French regulars from France, and soon afterwards assembling more than two thousand French regulars, Canadians, and Indians, he proceeded, at their head, to attack the Senecas. (See *Iroquois Confederacy*.) He coasted along the southern shores of Lake Ontario to Irondequoit Bay, in Monroe County, where he landed and was joined by some French and Indians coming from the West. Thence he penetrated to Ontario County, where he was attacked by a party of Senecas in ambush, but he repulsed his assailants. The next day two old Seneca prisoners, after having been confessed by the Jesuit priests, were cooked and eaten by the savages and the French. Withdrawing to a point near West Meriden, Monroe Co., De Nonville then took possession of the whole Seneca country (July, 1687) in the name of King Louis, with pompous ceremonies. After destroying all the stored corn (more than one million bushels), the growing crops, cabins, and a vast number of swine belonging to the natives whose country he had invaded, De Nonville returned to Irondequoit Bay and thence to Montreal. An act of gross treachery committed by him before he undertook the expedition, in seizing deputies from those nations and sending them to France, gave the death-blow to Jesuit missions among the Five Nations. Lamberville, a faithful missionary, barely escaped with his life, through the generosity of the Onondagas.

De Peyster, ABRAHAM, was one of the most eminent merchants and citizens of New York in the days of early English rule there. He was born in New Amsterdam (afterwards New York), July 8, 1658; died there, Aug. 10, 1728. Between 1691 and 1695 he was mayor of the city of New York; was first assistant justice and then chief-justice of New York, and was one of the king's council under Governor Hyde (afterwards Lord Cornbury), and as its president was acting-governor for a time in 1701. Mr. De Peyster was colonel of the forces in New York and treasurer of that province and New Jersey. He was a personal friend and correspondent of William Penn. Having amassed considerable wealth, he built a fine mansion, which stood, until 1856, in Pearl Street. It was used by Washington as his headquarters for a while in 1776. His father, John, was born in Haerlem, was of Huguenot descent, and was one of the earlier settlers of New Amsterdam.

Depreciation of the Continental Paper-money. The issue of bills of credit had been of vast benefit to the colonies at the beginning of the armed contest with Great Britain, and their value was kept up remarkably through the patriotism of the people. At the end of eighteen months from the first issue, $20,000,000 had been emitted, besides large issues by the several colonies, and no depreciation had been observed. It was soon obvious, however, that depreciation could only be prevented by stopping the issue, and Congress, as a substitute, proposed to raise a loan and to establish a lottery for the same purpose. But at the beginning of 1777, owing to reverses to the American arms, depreciation began. On the 1st of January, 1777, the value of $100 in specie was $105 in Continental money. The scale of depreciation was as follows:

	1777.	1778.	1779.	1780.	1781.
January........	$105	$325	$742	$2934	$7400
February......	107	350	868	3322	7500
March.........	109	370	1000	3736	——
April..........	112	400	1104	4000	——
May...........	115	400	1215	4600	——
June..........	120	400	1342	6400	——
July...........	125	425	1477	8900	——
August........	150	450	1630	7000	——
September.....	175	475	1800	7100	——
October........	275	500	2030	7200	——
November......	300	545	2308	7300	——
December.....	310	634	2593	7400	——

The credit of Congress was so low that loans came in slowly. The rate of interest was raised from four to six per cent., with very little effect, and Congress was compelled to resume the issue of bills of credit. The result was a very rapid depreciation in their nominal value. (See *Continental Paper-money.*)

Dermer, THOMAS, an active friend of colonization schemes, and a man of prudence and industry, was employed by the Plymouth Company after his return from Newfoundland, in 1618, to bring about, if possible, reconciliation with the barbarians of New England, and to make further explorations. He sailed from Plymouth with two vessels (one a small open pinnace) in February, 1619, touched at Mohegan Island, and then visited the coast. Dermer was accompanied from England by Squanto (see *New England*); also by Samoset, a native of Sagadahock, whom John Mason, Governor of Newfoundland, had lately sent home, he having been one of Hunt's captives. Dermer succeeded, in a degree, and proceeded to explore the coast to Virginia. He sent home his ship from Mohegan Island, laden with fish and furs, and, leaving Squanto at Saco, sailed southward. Near Cape Cod he was captured by Indians, but ransomed himself by a gift of some hatchets. Passing Martin's (Martha's) Vineyard, he navigated Long Island Sound by the help of an Indian pilot, the first Englishman who had sailed upon these waters, and passed out to sea at Sandy Hook. Going through Hell Gate he lost an anchor in "the dangerous cataract," and the current was so swift that he did not stop at Manhattan; but on his return from Virginia (1620) he touched there and held a conference with some Dutch traders "on Hudson's River." Dermer took occasion to warn the Dutch that they were on English territory, when they replied that they found no Englishmen there, understood no such thing, and "hoped they had not offended." Dermer sent a journal of his proceedings to Gorges, and thus, no doubt, hastened the procurement of the new charter for the Plymouth Company. (See *Plymouth Company.*)

Des Barres, JOSEPH FREDERICK WALLET, born in 1722; died at Halifax, N. S., Oct. 24, 1824, aged one hundred and two years. He was educated for the army at the Royal Military College at Woolwich, and, as lieutenant, came to America in 1756, and raising three hundred recruits in Pennsylvania and Maryland, formed them into a corps of field-artillery. He distinguished himself as an engineer in the siege of Louisburg (which see), and was aide-de-camp to Wolfe when he fell at Quebec, that general dying in Des Barres's arms. He was active in the retaking of Newfoundland in 1762, and for ten years afterwards he was employed in a coast survey of Nova Scotia. He prepared charts of the North American coasts in 1775 for Earl Howe, and in 1777 he published *The Atlantic Neptune*, in two large folios. He was made governor of Cape Breton, with the military command of Prince Edward's Island, in 1784, and in 1804, being then about eighty-two years of age, he was made lieutenant-governor of Prince Edward's Island.

Desolation of the Niagara Frontier (1813). Early in October, 1813, General McClure, of the New York militia, was left in command of Fort George, on the Niagara River. In November the startling intelligence reached him from the westward that Lieutenant-general Drummond was approaching with a heavy force of white men and Indians. McClure's garrison was then reduced to sixty effective men, and he determined to abandon the post and cross over to Fort Niagara. The weather became extremely cold, and on Dec. 10 he attempted to blow up the fort while his troops were crossing the river. He also wantonly set on fire the village of Newark, near, and one hundred and fifty houses were speedily laid in ashes. McClure had barely escaped with his troops, leaving Fort George unharmed and tents that would shelter fifteen hundred men, when Colonel Manning arrived with his regulars and Indians. Retaliation immediately began. The British seized Fort Niagara, and massacred a part of the garrison; and every village and hamlet along the New York side of the river between the lake and Buffalo was plundered and burned. Buffalo, also, was given to the flames; only four buildings were left. Hundreds of innocent inhabitants at Newark and on the American side suffered intensely in consequence of the cruel acts of McClure.

De Soto, FERNANDO, was born at Xeres, Estremadura, Spain, about the year 1500. His family was noble but impoverished. Davila, Governor of Darien (see *Nuñez*), was his kind patron, through whose generosity he received a good education, and who took him to Central America, where he engaged in exploring the coast of the Pacific Ocean hundreds of miles in search of a supposed strait connecting the two oceans. When Pizarro went to Peru, De Soto accompanied him, and was his chief lieutenant in achieving the conquest of that country. Brave and judicious, De Soto was the chief hero in the battle that resulted in the capture of Cuzco, the capital of the Incas (Peruvian kings), and the destruction of their empire. (See *Incas.*) Soon after that event he returned to Spain with large wealth, and was received by the king (Charles V.) with great consideration. He married Isabella Bobadilla, a scion of one of the most renowned of the Castilian families, and his influence at court was thereby strengthened. Longing to rival Cortez and Pizarro in the brilliancy of his deeds, and believing Florida to be richer in the precious metals than Mexico or Peru, De Soto offered to conquer it at his own expense. Permission was readily given him by his king (Charles V.), who commissioned him governor of Cuba, from which island he would set out on his conquering expedition. Elegant in deportment, winning in all his ways, an expert horseman, rich and influential, and then thirty-seven years of age, hundreds of young men, the flower of the Spanish and Portuguese nobility, flocked to his standard, the wealthier ones dressed in suits of gorgeous armor and followed by trains of servants. With these and his beautiful young wife and other noble ladies De Soto sailed from Spain early in April, 1538, with seven large and three small vessels, the *San Christoval*, of eight hundred tons, being his flag-ship. Amply supplied and full of joy in the anticipation of entering an earthly paradise, gayety and feasting, music and dancing, prevailed on board the flag-ship during that sunny voyage, in which richly dressed ladies, with handsome pages to do their bidding, were conspicuous, especially on warm moonlit nights within the tropic of Cancer. At near the close of May the fleet entered Cuban waters. De Soto occupied a whole year preparing for the expedition, and at the middle of May, 1539, he sailed from Cuba with nine vessels, bearing a thousand followers, and cattle, horses, mules, and swine, the first of the latter seen on the American continent. He left public affairs in Cuba in the hands of his wife and the lieutenant-governor. The voyage to Florida was pleasant, and the armament landed on the shores of Tampa Bay on the 25th of May, near where Narvaez had first anchored. (See *Narvaez.*) Instead of treating the natives kindly and winning their friendship, De Soto unwisely sent armed men to capture some of them, in order to learn something about the country he was to conquer. The savages, cruelly treated by Narvaez, and fearing the same usage by De Soto, were cautious. They were also wily, expert with the bow, revengeful, and fiercely hostile. With cavaliers clad in steel and riding one hundred and thirteen horses, with many footmen armed with arquebuses, cross-bows, swords, shields, and lances, and a single cannon, and supplied with savage bloodhounds from Cuba, and handcuffs, iron neck-collars, and chains for the captives, De Soto began his march in June, 1539. He was accompanied by mechanics, priests, inferior clergy, and monks in sacerdotal robes bearing images of the Virgin, holy relics, and sacramental bread and wine, wherewith to make Christians of the captured pagans. At the very outset the expedition met with determined opposition from the dusky inhabitants, but De Soto pressed forward towards the interior of the fancied land of gold. He wintered east of the Flint River, near Tallahassee, on the borders of Georgia. The next year he went northward to the head-waters of the Savannah River, crossed the beautiful country of the Cherokees (see *Cherokees*), and penetrated the fertile Coosa region, where the Spaniards practised the most cruel treachery towards the friendly natives. De Soto was rewarded in kind not long afterwards, and in a terrible battle with the Mobilians (see *Mobilians*), on the site of Mobile, the expedition was nearly ruined. Turning northward with the remnant of his forces, he fought his way through the Chickasaw country (see *Chickasaws*), and reached the upper waters of the Yazoo River late in December, where he wintered, in great distress. Moving westward in the spring, he discovered the Mississippi River, in all its grandeur, full to the brim, in May, 1541. (See *Mississippi.*) It was near the Lower Chickasaw Bluff, in Tunica Co., Miss. Crossing the mighty stream, De Soto went westward in his yet fruitless search for gold, and spent a year in the country towards the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains. Returning to the Mississippi in May, 1542, he died of a fever on its banks in May or June, at the age of forty-two, and was buried in its turbid waters, encased in a trough made of the trunk of a live-oak. It was sunk in the waters at midnight, to prevent its being desecrated by the Indians. Before his death he had conferred the leadership of the expedition upon Moscoso, his lieutenant, who, with the wretched remnant of the expedition, wandered another year in the region west of the Mississippi; and returning to that river in May, 1543, they built rude vessels, and, with a number of beautiful Alabama girls whom they had carried away captive after the battle at Maubila (which see), they made their way to Mexico, where the elegant Castilian ladies at the court of the viceroy were enraptured by the beauty of the dusky Mobilian girls. The news of De Soto's death cast a gloom over Havana, and poor Doña Isabella, wife of

FERNANDO DE SOTO.

the great leader, who had so long waited for his return, died of a broken heart.

De Soto's Perfidy towards an Indian Queen. The Spaniards in Florida wintered at Tallahassee. In March, 1540, De Soto broke up his encampment and marched northward, having been told that gold would be found in that direction. He reached the Savannah River, at Silver Bluff. On the opposite side of the stream, in (present) Barnwell District, lived an Indian queen, young, beautiful, and a maiden, who ruled over a large extent of country. In a richly wrought canoe filled with shawls and skins and other things for presents, the dusky *cacica* glided across the river, and with kind words welcomed the Spaniards and offered them her services. Presents were exchanged. A magnificent string of pearls was upon her neck. This she drew over her head and hung it around the neck of De Soto as a token of her regard. Then she invited him and his followers to cross over to her village. In canoes and on log-rafts they passed the stream, and, encamping in the shadows of mulberry-trees, they soon received a bountiful supply of venison and wild turkeys. There they enjoyed the young queen's hospitality until May, and when they departed De Soto requited the kindness of the royal maiden with foul treachery. He carried her away a prisoner, and kept her near his person as a hostage for the good behavior of her people towards the Spaniards. She finally escaped, and returned home a bitter enemy of the perfidious white people.

Destruction of the Pequod Nation. Sassacus and his warriors crossed the Pequod (now Thames) River and fled westward, pursued by the English. They took refuge in Sasco swamp, near the site of Fairfield, Conn., where they were nearly all either killed or captured. Sassacus and a few followers escaped to the Mohawks. Those who were yet free in the forests were hunted like wild beasts, and the scalps of Pequods were almost daily brought into Hartford or Windsor. Sachem's Head, a point on Long Island Sound, in Guilford, was so named because there two Pequod sachems who had been made prisoners were executed. Those of the nation who were made prisoners were divided among the Mohegans and Narragansets and incorporated with those people. Literally, "a nation had perished in a day." The result was relief to the colonies from Indian wars for nearly forty years. The Puritans, who believed themselves to be under the peculiar care of Divine Providence, and the Indians to be the children of the devil, exulted in this signal instance of the favor of Heaven. "The Lord was pleased," wrote Captain Mason, "to smite our enemies in the hinder parts and give us their land for an inheritance." (See *Pequod War*.)

Detroit, SIEGE OF (1763–64). The tragedy of Pontiac's war was to open at Detroit. Under pretext of holding a friendly council with Major Gladwin, commander of the fort, the wily chief entered it in May (1763) with about three hundred warriors, each carrying a knife, tomahawk, and short gun under his blanket. When Pontiac should rise and present the green side of a belt, the massacre of the garrison was to begin. Gladwin was warned of the plot the day before by a friendly Indian, and the calamity was averted by the appointment of another day for the council. When the Indians retired, the gates of the fort were closed upon them, and, knowing the reason, Pontiac began a siege that lasted full a year. General Amherst hastily collected a small body in the East for the relief of Detroit and reinforcement of Fort Niagara, and sent them under the command of Captain Dalyell, one of his aides. Dalyell left reinforcements at Niagara, and proceeded to Detroit with the remainder of his troops and provisions in a vessel that arrived on the evening of July 30. They succeeded in entering the fort with provisions. Pontiac had already summoned Gladwin to surrender; now Dalyell proposed to make a sortie and attack the besieging Indians. Gladwin thought it would be imprudent, but Dalyell persisted, and before daylight on the morning of July 31 he sallied out with two hundred and forty chosen men to attack the barbarians, who lay about a mile up the river. Pontiac was on the alert, and at a small stream on the northern verge of the city of Detroit the English, furiously assailed by the Indians, were forced to make a precipitate retreat in the darkness, leaving twenty of their comrades killed and forty-two wounded on the borders of the brook, which has ever since been called "Bloody Run." Dalyell was slain while trying to carry off some of the wounded, and his scalp became an Indian's trophy. Pontiac continued the siege of Detroit until the arrival of Colonel Bradstreet in May, 1764.

Detroit, SURRENDER OF (1812). General Brock, Governor of Upper Canada, with a few regulars and three hundred militia, hastened to Amherstburg to assist in turning back the invaders of Canada. He arrived there on the night of Aug. 13. Tecumtha and his Indian warriors were on an island opposite Fort Malden. On the following morning Brock held a conference with the Indians (of whom about one thousand were present), telling them he had come to assist in driving the Americans from their rightful hunting-grounds north of the Ohio. The barbarians were pleased, and at a subsequent interview with Tecumtha and other chiefs they assured him that the Indians would give him all their strength in the undertaking. Then Brock marched from Malden to Sandwich, which the Americans had deserted, and a battery was planted opposite Detroit, which commanded the fort there. The American artillerists begged permission to open fire upon it, and Captain Snelling asked the privilege of going over in the night to capture the British works. Hull would not allow any demonstrations against the enemy, and the latter prepared for assault without any molestation. It is evident that Hull had determined to surrender his post, under certain contingencies, and did not wish to exasperate the British and Indians. The truth is, he was much deceived by letters intended to be intercepted, showing preparations for large and immediate reinforcements to Brock's army; and he had also been deceived into the belief that a large portion of the followers of the latter, who were only militia, were regulars. The militia had been dressed in scarlet uniforms, and were paraded so as to show treble their real number. Hull was hemmed in on every side; his provisions were scarce, and he saw no chance of receiving any from Ohio. He knew that if the barbarians were exasperated and the fort should be taken there would be a general massacre of the garrison and the inhabitants, and his kindness of heart and growing caution, incident to old age, made him really timid and fearful. When Brock's preparations for attack were completed (on the 15th), he sent a summons to Hull for an unconditional surrender of the post. In that demand was a covert threat of letting loose the bloodthirsty barbarians in case of resistance. Hull's whole effective force at that time did not exceed one thousand men. The fort was thronged with trembling women and children and decrepit old men of the village and surrounding country, who had fled to it for protection from the Indians. He kept the flag that bore the summons waiting full two hours, for his innate bravery and patriotism bade him refuse and fight, while his fear of dreadful consequences to his army and the people bade him surrender. His troops were confident in their ability to successfully confront the enemy, and he finally refused compliance with the demand. Active preparations were then made for defence. The British opened a cannonade and bombardment from their battery, which was kept up until near midnight. The firing was returned with spirit; but Hull would listen to no suggestions for the erection of a battery at Spring Wells to oppose the enemy if they should attempt to cross the river. Early on the morning of the 16th they crossed and landed unmolested; and as they moved towards the fort, in single column, Tecumtha and his Indians, seven hundred strong, who had crossed two miles below during the night, took position in the woods on their left as flankers, while the right was protected by the guns of the *Queen Charlotte*, in the river. They had approached to a point within five hundred yards of the American line, when Hull sent a peremptory order for the soldiers to retreat within the already overcrowded fort. The infuriated soldiers reluctantly obeyed; and while the enemy were preparing to storm the fort, Hull, without consulting any of his officers, hoisted a white flag, and a capitulation for a surrender was soon agreed upon. The surrender took place at noon, Aug. 16, 1812. The fort, garrison, army, and the Territory of Michigan were included in the terms of surrender. The spoils of victory for the British were twenty-five hundred stand of arms, twenty-five iron and eight brass pieces of ordnance, forty barrels of gunpowder, a stand of colors, a great quantity of military stores, and the armed brig *John Adams*. One of the brass cannons bore the following inscription: "Taken at Saratoga on the 17th of October, 1777." General Hull and his fellow-captives were sent first to Fort George and then to Montreal, where they arrived Sept. 6, when they were paroled, and returned to their homes. Hull was tried for treason and cowardice, and sentenced to be shot, but was pardoned by the President. His character has since been fully vindicated. (See *Hull's Trial.*)

Devens, Charles, Jr., was born at Charlestown, Mass., April 4, 1820, and graduated at Harvard University in 1838. He studied at the Cambridge Law School, and practised the profession of law several years. In 1848 he was a State Senator, and was United States Marshal for Massachusetts from 1849 to 1853. He was engaged in his profession at Worcester, Mass., when the Civil War began, and was one of the earliest Union volunteers, becoming major of a rifle battalion April 16, 1861, and colonel of a regiment in July following. Before the arrival of Colonel Baker, he commanded at Ball's Bluff (which see), and again after that officer's death. In April, 1862, he was made brigadier-general; served on the Peninsula; was wounded at Fair Oaks; was in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam; and commanded a division in the Eleventh Corps at Chancellorsville. In the Richmond campaign of 1864–65 he was continually engaged, and in December, 1864, he was in temporary command of the Twenty-fourth Army Corps. In April, 1865, he was breveted major-general of volunteers, and in 1867 was appointed a justice of the Superior Court of Massachusetts. In March, 1877, he was called to the cabinet of President Hayes as Attorney-general of the United States.

De Witt, Simeon, was born in Ulster County, N. Y., Dec. 26, 1756; died at Albany, Dec. 3, 1834. He graduated at Queen's (now Rutgers) College in 1776; joined the army under Gates; and was made assistant geographer to the army in 1778, and chief geographer in 1780. He was surveyor-general of New York fifty years (1784–1834). In 1796 he declined the appointment of surveyor-general of the United States. He was regent, vice-chancellor, and chancellor of the State of New York, and member of many learned societies.

Dexter, Samuel, LL.D., was born in Boston, May 14, 1761; died at Athens, N. Y., May 4, 1816. He graduated at Harvard in 1781; studied law at Worcester; and became a state legislator, in which position he became distinguished for intellectual ability and oratory. President Adams appointed him, successively, Secretary of War (1800) and of the Treasury (1801), and for a while he had charge of the State Department. On the accession of Jefferson (1801) he resumed the practice of law. He declined foreign embassies offered by Adams and Madison. Mr. Dexter was a Federalist until the War of 1812, when, being in favor of that measure, he separated himself from his party. He was the first president of the first temperance society formed in Massachusetts.

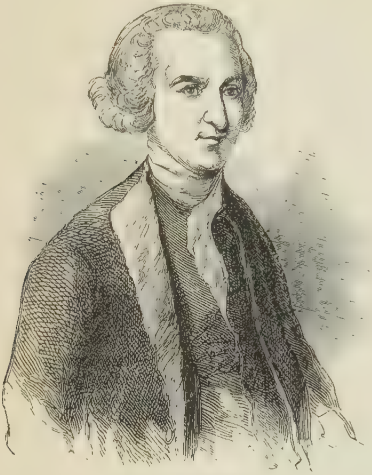
Dey of Algiers, Insolence of the. In May, 1800, Captain Bainbridge, in command of the *George Washington*, 24 guns, went to Algiers with the usual tribute to its ruler. (See *Algiers, Tribute to.*) He arrived in September, performed with courtesy the duties enjoined upon him, and was about to leave port, when the dey commanded him to carry an Algerine ambassador to the court of the sultan at Constantinople. Bainbridge politely refused compliance, when the haughty and offended dey said sternly, "You pay me tribute, by which you become my slaves, and therefore I have a right to order you as I think proper." The guns of the Algerine castle, he was assured, would open upon his vessel if he attempted to leave the harbor without the ambassador, and he was compelled to submit. Assured also that if he did not accede to the Algerine ruler's demands his vessel would be seized, he was compelled to submit to the further humiliation of displaying the Algerine flag at the main and that of the United States at the fore. He sailed out of the port, transposed the flags, and bore the ambassador to Constantinople. "I hope," he wrote to the Secretary of the Navy, "I shall never again be sent to Algiers with tribute unless I am authorized to deliver it from the mouth of our cannon." The sultan had never heard of the United States; but he drew a good omen from the fact that its flag was related to his own, for it bore stars, while his displayed a crescent moon. He believed the two nations would always be friends, and so they have been. On his return to Algiers, Bainbridge bore a *firman* from the Turkish authorities for his protection. The dey requested him to go on another errand to Constantinople. He refused. The dey flew into a rage, threatened war, and finally menaced the captain with personal violence. Bainbridge produced the *firman*, and the haughty dey became as obsequious as a slave. Then Bainbridge assumed the air of a dictator. He demanded the instant release of the French consul and fifty or sixty of his countrymen who had lately been imprisoned by the dey; and when Bainbridge left he carried away all the French in Algiers.

ALGIERS IN 1800.

Diamond State. A name sometimes applied to the State of Delaware because of its small size, wealth, and supposed importance.

Diaz del Castillo, BERNAL, was born at Medina del Campo, Spain, about 1500, and came to America as an adventurer in extreme youth in 1514, joining the expedition of Cordova in 1517, and of Grijalva in 1518. He served Cortez faithfully and valiantly. During his adventurous career he was engaged in one hundred and nineteen battles and skirmishes, and was wounded several times. He wrote a history of the conquest of New Spain, which he completed in 1568, intended to correct the misstatements of Gomara's *Chronicle of New Spain*, in which nearly all the glory of its conquest was given to Cortez. Diaz was a rough, unlettered soldier, and his history has been pronounced a "collection of fables."

Dickinson, JOHN, LL.D., was born in Maryland, Nov. 13, 1732; died at Wilmington, Del., Feb. 14, 1808. He studied law in Philadelphia and at the Temple in London, and practised his profession in Philadelphia. In the Pennsylvania Assembly, to which he was elected in 1764, he showed great legislative ability, and was a ready and vehement debater. At the same time, he wrote much on the subject of British infringement on the liberties of the colonies. The most noted of these writings were papers (twelve in number) entitled *Letters from a Pennsylvania Farmer*, etc. (see *Letters*, etc.), published in the *Pennsylvania Chronicle* in 1767. Mr. Dickinson was a member of the first Continental Congress, and wrote several of the state papers put forth by that body (see *Continental Congress*). Considering the resolution of independence unwise, he voted against it and the Declaration, and did not sign the latter document. This made him unpopular. In 1777 he was made a brigadier-general of the Pennsylvania militia. He was elected a representative in Congress from Delaware in 1779, and wrote the *Address to the States* put forth by that body in May of that year. He was successively president of the states of Delaware and Pennsylvania (1781–85), and a member of the convention that framed the National Constitution (1787). Letters from his pen, over the signature of "Fabius," advocating the adoption of the National Constitution, appeared in 1788; and another series, over the same signature, on our relations with France, appeared in 1797. Mr. Dickinson assisted in framing the Constitution of Delaware in 1792. His monument is Dickinson College, at Carlisle, Penn., which he founded and liberally endowed.



JOHN DICKINSON.

Dictatorship conferred on Washington. On Dec. 27, 1776, the Congress, sitting in Baltimore, alarmed at the dangerous aspect of affairs, "*Resolved*, That General Washington shall be, and he is hereby, invested with full, ample, and complete powers to raise and collect together, in the most speedy and effectual manner, from any or all of these United States, seventy-six battalions of infantry, in addition to those already voted by Congress (see *Continental Army, Reorganization of the*); to appoint officers for the said battalions of infantry; to raise, officer, and equip three thousand light horse, three regiments of artillery, and a corps of engineers, and to establish their pay; to apply to any of the states for such aid of the militia as he shall judge necessary; to form such magazines of provisions, and in such places, as he shall think proper; to displace and appoint all officers under the rank of brigadier-general, and to fill up all vacancies in every other department in the American armies; to take, wherever he may be, whatever he may want for the use of the army, if the inhabitants will not sell it, allowing a reasonable price for the same; to arrest and confine persons who refuse to take the Continental currency [not then beginning to depreciate], or are otherwise disaffected to the American cause; and return to the states of which they are citizens their names and the nature of their offences, together with the witnesses to prove them." The foregoing powers were vested in Washington for the term of six months ensuing the date of the resolution, unless sooner determined by Congress. These powers were almost equal to those of a Roman dictator. They were conferred before the Congress could possibly have heard of the brilliant victory at Trenton on the morning of the previous day.

Dieskau, Ludwig August, Baron, was born in Saxony in 1701; died at Suresnes, near Paris, Sept. 8, 1757. He was lieutenant-colonel of cavalry under Marshal Saxe, and was made brigadier-general of infantry in 1748, and commander of Brest. In 1755 he was sent to Canada with the rank of major-general; and in an attack upon the fortified encampment of General William Johnson at the head of Lake George (Sept. 8, 1755), he was so severely wounded that he died from the effects exactly two years afterwards.

Dinwiddie and the French. The revelations made to Washington at Fort Le Bœuf, the evident preparations of the French to make a concerted movement to secure the occupation of the Ohio region, and the tenor of St. Pierre's answer to Dinwiddie's letter, convinced the latter of the necessity of quick and energetic countervailing measures. St. Pierre declared that he was acting under the instructions of his superior, the Marquis Duquesne, at Montreal, and refused to withdraw his troops from the disputed territory. Dinwiddie immediately prepared for an expedition against the French, and asked the other colonies to co-operate with Virginia. This was the first call for a general colonial union against the common enemy. All hesitated excepting North Carolina. The Legislature of that province promptly voted four hundred men, who were soon on the march for Winchester, the place of rendezvous; but they eventually proved of little worth, for, doubtful of being paid for their services, a great part of them were disbanded before they reached the Shenandoah Valley. Some volunteers from South Carolina and New York hastened to the gathering-place. Virginia responded to the call to arms by organizing a regiment of six hundred men, of which Joshua Fry was appointed colonel and Major Washington lieutenant-colonel. The Virginians assembled at Alexandria, on the Potomac, whence Lieutenant-colonel Washington, with the advance, marched (April 2, 1754) at their head for the Ohio. Meanwhile Captain Trent had recruited a company among the traders west of the mountains, and had begun the erection of a fort at the forks of the Ohio, the site of Pittsburgh. They were attacked (April 18) by a party of French and Indians, who expelled Trent and his men, completed the fort, and named it Duquesne, in honor of the captain-general of Canada. News of this event reached Washington at Will's Creek (now Cumberland). He pushed forward with one hundred and fifty men to a point on the Monongahela less than forty miles from Fort Duquesne. There he was informed that a strong force of French and Indians was marching to intercept him. He wisely fell back to the Great Meadows, where he erected a stockade, and called it Fort Necessity. Before it was completed, a few of his troops attacked an advanced party of the enemy under Jumonville in the night, and the commander and several of his men were killed. Some of his captured men were sent to Governor Dinwiddie. Reinforced, Washington marched for Fort Duquesne again, but was driven back to Fort Necessity, which he was obliged to surrender on the 3d of July. (See *Fort Necessity.*)

Dinwiddie and the Virginia Assembly. Robert Dinwiddie, born in Scotland about 1690; died at Clifton, England, Aug. 1, 1770, was lieutenant-governor of Virginia from 1752 to 1757. He was rapacious, and unscrupulous in the accumulation of wealth. Owing to his exaction of enormous fees authorized by the Board of Trade for the issue of patents for lands, he gained the ill-will of the people of Virginia, and when he called for money to enable him to oppose the encroachments of the French, the House of Burgesses paid no attention to his expressed wishes. (See *Dinwiddie and the French.*) Dinwiddie, unmindful of this conduct, enlisted a captain's command, and sent them to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio (now Pittsburgh), and called on neighboring colonies for aid in the work. On the return of Washington, the governor called the Virginia Assembly together. They now saw impending danger, and granted $50,000 towards the defence of the frontiers. A committee of the burgesses was appointed to act in concert with the governor in the expenditure of this money, for Dinwiddie could not be trusted. He submitted with a bad grace to this "encroachment on the prerogative" of a royal governor.

Dinwiddie, Robert, was born in Scotland about 1690; died at Clifton, England, Aug. 1, 1770. While acting as clerk to a collector of customs in the West Indies he discovered and exposed enormous frauds practised by his principal, and was rewarded with the office of surveyor of the customs, and afterwards with that of lieutenant-governor of Virginia. He arrived in the colony in 1752, and returned to England in 1758. He attempted to expel the French from the Ohio region, after sending Washington to their commander on a mission of observation. Washington proved himself to be a zealous officer; and Dinwiddie, discovering his capacity, made him adjutant-general of a military district. Dinwiddie was the first to suggest to the British Board of Trade the taxing of the colonies (1754) for funds to carry on the war with the French and Indians; and he was one of the five colonial governors who memorialized Parliament (1755) in favor of the measure. He had much clashing and vexation with the House of Burgesses; and, worn out with trouble and age, he left Virginia under a cloud caused by a charge made by his enemies that he had appropriated to his own use £20,000 transmitted to him for compensation to the Virginians for money expended by them in the public service.

Diplomacy of the Revolution. So soon as the idea of independence had taken the practical shape of a resolution and declaration adopted by Congress, the Americans began to contemplate the necessity of foreign aid, material and moral. The Congress appointed a Secret Committee of Correspondence (which see) for the purpose, and sent Silas Deane upon a half-commercial, half-diplomatic mission to France. Franklin was at first opposed to seeking foreign alliances. "A virgin state," he said, "should preserve the virgin character, and not go about suitoring for alliances, but wait with decent dignity for the application of others." But Franklin soon became the chief suitor in Europe, for in the autumn of 1776 he was sent as "commissioner"—a real "ambassador"—to France to seek an alliance and material aid. The aid was furnished through Beaumarchais, at first secretly, and afterwards by the government openly. (See *Beaumarchais.*) The American commissioners proposed a treaty of alliance with France, but the French government hesitated, for it did not then desire an open rupture with England; but when the news of the defeat and capture of Burgoyne's army, late in 1777, reached France, the king no longer hesitated, and a treaty of amity, commerce, and alliance was consummated in February, 1778. (See *Treaty of Alliance.*) The recognition of the independence of the United States involved France in war with England, and the latter sent commissioners to negotiate with the Americans for peace. The terms were not satisfactory, and the mission failed. The French government pressed Spain to join in espousing the cause of the Americans, but that power hesitated, because a support of such a republican system in America might be dangerous to the integrity of her own colonial system in that part of the world. In this feeling France had been alike cautious, and for the same reasons. They had agreed that while it would not be politic to invade the rights of the British crown, they would evade the obligations of treaties, for both had a mischievous intent to foment the disturbances between England and her American colonies. While doing this secretly, they held the language of honest neutrality. When, therefore, France had determined openly to espouse the cause of the Americans, Spain was urged to do likewise; but the Spanish court could not be persuaded to go beyond a certain point. The French minister, with keen prescience, saw ultimate independence for America, while the Spanish court dreaded such a result. Meanwhile the Continental Congress had sent Mr. Jay as ambassador to Spain, to win the active friendship of that power. He could effect nothing; and it was well he did not, as subsequent events manifested. From the time of the treaty of alliance with France, the action of Spain towards the United States was selfish, hypocritical, and often sullen. She declared war against England for her own selfish purpose, but it worked in favor of the Americans by keeping British troops employed elsewhere than in America. The Count d'Aranda, the Spanish minister in France, who had watched the course of events with keen vision from the beginning to the end of the American war for independence, suggested to his sovereign, as an antidote to American independence, the formation of the Spanish-American colonies into independent Spanish monarchies. He said, in reference to the treaty of peace in 1783: "The independence of the English colonies has been, then, recognized. It is for me a subject of grief and fear. France has but few possessions in America; but she was bound to consider that Spain, her most intimate ally, had many, and that she now stands exposed to terrible reverses. From the beginning France has acted against her true interests in encouraging and supporting this independence, and so I have often declared to the ministers of this nation." When the Armed Neutrality (which see) was proposed in 1780, the Americans gladly joined the European powers with their moral influence (all they could then give), for it would aid themselves by weakening England. Its results were disappointing to the other powers, but it added to the open enemies of England. The Congress, in instructions to Dana at St. Petersburg, had said: "You will readily perceive that it must be a leading and capital point, if these United States shall be formally admitted as a party to the convention of the neutral maritime powers for maintaining the freedom of commerce." Thus early, while yet fighting for independence, the American statesmen assumed the dignity and used the language of the representatives of a powerful nation, which they certainly expected to form. The Americans had opened negotiations with the States-General of Holland for a treaty so early as 1778. William, brother of Richard Henry and Arthur Lee, had begun the discussion of such a treaty with Van Berkel, the pensionary of Amsterdam. This negotiation with a single province was made in secret. Lee had no authority to sign a treaty, nor could the expression of a single province bind the Dutch Republic. Finally, Henry Laurens was sent by Congress to negotiate a treaty with the States-General, but was captured while crossing the Atlantic, and imprisoned in England. Then John Adams was sent for the purpose to the Hague. Early in 1782, through the joint exertions of Mr. Adams and the French minister at the Hague, the provinces, one after another, consented to the public recognition of Mr. Adams, and so openly recognized the independence of the United States. He was publicly introduced to the Prince of Orange on April 22, 1782. In October following he had completed the negotiation of a treaty with Holland, and signed it with great satisfaction. It was a "Treaty of Alliance between their High Mightinesses the States-General of the United Netherlands and the United States of America." This treaty was not altogether dependent upon the alliance of the United States with France, and was a step forward in the march of the former towards independent national existence. The final great act in the diplomacy of the Revolution was the negotiation of a treaty of peace with England, the chief points of which will be found under the title of *Treaty of Peace*. In their foreign diplomacy the Congress had been greatly aided at almost every step by the enlightened wisdom, prudence, and firmness of Count Gravier de Vergennes, who was a faithful servant of his king, while he earnestly desired the boon of the enjoyment of rational liberty for all peoples. He died soon after the peace. (See *Vergennes*.)

Diplomatic Troubles (1778). To Silas Deane, who was first sent to France as a diplomatic and commercial agent of the Congress, were intrusted the receipts and expenditures of money by the commissioners. Dr. Franklin had deserved confidence in his ability and honesty. The jealous, querulous Arthur Lee, who became associated with him and Franklin, soon made trouble. He wrote letters to his brother in Congress (Richard Henry Lee), in which he made many insinuations against the probity of both his colleagues. Ralph Izard, commissioner to the Tuscan court, offended because he was not consulted about the treaty with France, had written home similar letters; and William Carmichael, a secretary of the commissioners, who had returned to America, insinuated in Congress that Deane had appropriated the public money to his own use. Deane was recalled, and out of this affair sprang two violent parties, Robert Morris and other members of Congress who were commercial experts taking the side of Deane, and Richard Henry Lee, then chairman of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, being against him. Deane published in the *Philadelphia Gazette* an "Address to the People of the United States," in which he referred to the brothers Lee with much severity, and claiming for himself the credit of obtaining supplies from France through Beaumarchais. Thomas Paine, then secretary of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, replied to Deane (Jan. 2, 1779), availing himself of public documents in his charge. In that reply he declared that the arrangement had been made by Arthur Lee, in London, and revealed the secret that the supplies, though nominally furnished by a commercial house (see *Beaumarchais*), really came from the French government. This statement called out loud complaints from the French minister (Gerard), for it exposed the duplicity of his government, and to soothe the feelings of their allies, Congress, by resolution, expressly denied that any gratuity had been received from the French court previous to the treaty of alliance. This resolution gave Beaumarchais a valid claim upon Congress for payment for supplies which he, under the firm name of Hortales & Co., had sent to America. (See *Beaumarchais*.) Paine's indiscretion cost him his place. He was compelled to resign his secretaryship. The discussion among diplomatic agents soon led to the recall of all of them excepting Dr. Franklin, who remained sole minister at the French court. Deane, who was undoubtedly an able, honest man, preferred claims for services and private expenditures abroad, but, under the malign influence of the Lees, he was treated with neglect and fairly driven into poverty and exile. In 1842—more than fifty years after his death—Deane's long-disputed claim was adjusted by Congress, a large sum of money being paid over to his heirs.

Directory, The French Executive. This name was given to the government of the French Republic, established by a constitution in August, 1795, framed by the moderate Republican party after the fall of Robespierre and the end of the Reign of Terror. The Executive Directory consisted of five persons, who promulgated the laws, appointed the ministers, and had the management of military and naval affairs. They decided questions by a majority vote, and presided, by turns, three months each, the presiding member having the signature and the seal. During their terms of office none of them could have a personal command, or absent himself for more than five days from the place where the council held its sessions without its permission. The legislative power, under the constitution, was vested in two assemblies, the Council of Five Hundred and the Council of the Ancients, the former having the exclusive right of preparing laws for the consideration of the latter. The judicial authority was committed to elective judges. The first directors chosen (Nov. 1, 1795) were MM. Barras, Revellière-Lepeaux, Rewbell, Letourneur, and Carnot. The latter organized the armies with great skill and wisdom.

Disaffection in New York. During the winter of 1775–76 disaffection to the Republican cause, especially among the older and wealthier families, became conspicuous and alarming to the patriots, and there were fears of the loss of the city of New York to the Republican cause. In Queens County, on Long Island, the people began to arm in favor of the crown. Hearing of this, General Howe, in Boston, sent General Sir Henry Clinton on a secret expedition. Washington suspected New York was his destination, where Governor Tryon was sowing the seeds of disaffection from his "seat of government" on board the *Duchess of Gordon* in the harbor. The Committee of Safety and the Provincial Convention of New York were strongly tinctured with Toryism. General Lee, then in Connecticut, had heard of disaffection there and asked permission of Washington to raise volunteers to go there and suppress it. The privilege was granted, and, with the aid of Governor Trumbull, he embodied about twelve hundred volunteers and pressed on towards New York, with the bold "King Sears" as his adjutant-general. His approach (February, 1776) produced great alarm. Many Tories fled with their families to Long Island and New Jersey; and the timid Committee of Safety protested against his entering the city, for the captain of the *Asia* (which see) had declared that if "rebel troops" were permitted to enter the town, he would cannonade and burn it. Lee pressed forward and encamped in the Fields, and in a proclamation he said he had come to prevent the occupation of Long Island and New York by the enemies of liberty. "If the ships of war are quiet," he said, "I shall be quiet; if they make my presence a pretext for firing on the town, the first house set in flames by their guns shall be a funeral pile of some of their best friends." Before this manifesto the Tories shrank into inactivity. A glow of patriotism warmed the Provincial Congress, and that body speedily adopted measures for fortifying the city and its approaches and garrisoning it with two thousand men. On the day when Lee entered New York Sir Henry Clinton arrived at Sandy Hook, but did not deem it prudent to enter the harbor of New York. He sailed on to the coast of North Carolina.

Disaffection in Pennsylvania. When General Howe landed at the head of Elk River (August, 1777) and marched on Philadelphia, he found the country swarming with Tories. A large part of the Quakers, a wealthy and influential class, were enemies of the patriots, or at least neutral, while the German population (which was large) were indifferent, except as to means to avoid the burdens of war. The Pennsylvania militia, which had been recently organized, numbered thirty thousand men; but owing to the prevalence of Toryism, the loudest call could not bring out at any one time more than three thousand. Delaware, also, was largely disaffected towards the American cause, but her sons were more largely represented in the Continental army than those of any other state in proportion to the population.

Disappointment of the British in New York. Having driven Washington and his little army beyond the Delaware, and seeing the alacrity with which the people of New Jersey, under the influence of his proclamation, seemed to return to their allegiance, Howe believed the rebellion was broken, and he and his officers prepared for a winter's enjoyment in New York. Cornwallis had leave to return home. The young officers were preparing to have theatrical performances, and other indoor amusements. The fighting being over, as was supposed, Cornwallis had sent his baggage on board a packet about to sail for England, and the loyalists of that city were feeling jubilant, when the news of Washington's fatal blow at Trenton (see *Trenton, Battle of*) dispelled the pleasant dream. Cornwallis recalled his baggage and was compelled to take the field for a winter campaign, and he did not leave the country for nearly five years afterwards.

Disarmament of Tories. On March 14, 1776, Congress by resolution recommended to the several assemblies, conventions, and committees and councils of safety of the united colonies immediately to cause all persons to be disarmed in their respective colonies who were notoriously disaffected to the patriot cause, or who had not associated, or refused to associate, to defend by arms the liberties of the united colonies.

Disbanding of the Continental Army (1783). It was expected that the immediate disbanding of the army would follow the proclamation of peace. A definitive treaty had not yet been negotiated, and British troops still held New York city. It would not be safe, under such circumstances, to actually disband the army. The Congress therefore decided that the engagements of men enlisted for the war were binding till the treaty of peace was definitively ratified. On the recommendation of Washington orders were issued for granting furloughs or discharges at the discretion of the commander-in-chief. Greene was authorized to grant furloughs for North Carolina troops; and the lines of Maryland and Pennsylvania serving under him were ordered to march for their respective states. Three months' pay was to be furnished the furloughed soldiers. They were also to keep their arms and accoutrements as an extra allowance. These furloughs amounted to discharges. Few of the recipients ever returned, and so a great portion of the army was gradually disbanded before the definitive treaty was concluded in September. A remnant of the Continental army remained at West Point under Knox until the British evacuated New York (Nov. 25, 1783). After that event they all received their discharge.

Disbanding of the Union Armies (1865). The soldiers of the great armies that confronted Lee and Johnston in Virginia and North Carolina, and conquered them, were marched to the vicinity of the National capital, and during two memorable days (May 22 and 23, 1865) moved through that city, with tens of thousands of moistened eyes gazing upon them, and passed in review before the chief magistrate of the nation and his ministers. Then began the work of disbanding the armies by mustering out of service officers and men. On the 2d of June Lieutenant-general Grant, the general-in-chief of the National armies, issued the following address to them: "Soldiers of the Armies of the United States: By your patriotic devotion to your country in the hour of danger and alarm, your magnificent fighting, bravery, and endurance, you have maintained the supremacy of the Union and the Constitution, overthrown all armed opposition to the enforcement of the laws and of the proclamation forever abolishing slavery—the cause and pretext of the rebellion—and opened the way to the rightful authorities to restore order and inaugurate peace on a permanent and enduring basis on every foot of American soil. Your marches, sieges, and battles, in distance, duration, resolution, and brilliancy of results, dim the lustre of the world's past military achievements, and will be the patriot's precedent in defence of liberty and right in all time to come. In obedience to your country's call, you left your homes and families, and volunteered in her defence. Victory has crowned your valor and secured the purpose of your patriotic hearts; and with the gratitude of your countrymen and the highest honors a great and free nation can accord, you will soon be permitted to return to your homes and families, conscious of having discharged the highest duty of American citizens. To achieve these glorious triumphs, and secure to yourselves, your fellow-countrymen, and posterity the blessings of free institutions, tens of thousands of your gallant comrades have fallen, and sealed the priceless legacy with their blood. The graves of these a grateful nation bedews with tears, honors their memory, and will ever cherish and support their stricken families." (See *Lee's Farewell to his Army.*) On March 1, 1865, there was an aggregate force on the muster-rolls of the army of 965,591 men, of whom 602,593 were present for duty and 132,538 were on detached service. The aggregate force was increased by the 1st of May, by enlistments, to 1,000,516, of all arms, officers and men. The disbanding of this army went steadily on from June 1, and by the middle of autumn 786,000 officers and men were mustered out of the service. The wonderful spectacle was exhibited of vast armies of men, surrounded by all the paraphernalia of war, transformed in the space of one hundred and fifty days into a vast army of citizens, engaged in the blessed pursuits of peace.

Discovery, RIGHTS CONFERRED BY. It early became a law among European nations that the country which each should first explore should be deemed absolute property of the discoverer, from which all others should be entirely excluded. The English, in turn, adopted the law that a nation, a citizen or subject of which should discover the mouth of a great river, became owner of the region drained by that river and its tributaries.

Disinterested Patriotism. In arranging new regiments at Cambridge late in 1775, Colonel Asa Whitcombe, a meritorious officer, who had served in the late French and Indian war, was left out on account of his age. His men were indignant, and refused to re-enlist. The colonel, to set them an example, himself enlisted as a private soldier. One of the other colonels gave up his regiment to Whitcombe; and these examples of disinterested patriotism were noticed by Washington in general orders.

Disloyalty at the National Capital. At the close of 1860, when South Carolina had passed an ordinance of secession, the enemies of the government were bold and defiant at the National capital. Secession cockades (which see) appeared in the streets. The newspapers there were generally filled with seditious matter. Virginia newspapers had already suggested (what the conspirators had planned) the capture of Fortress Monroe, the Gosport navy-yard, and the arsenal at Harper's Ferry, preparatory to the seizure of the National capital and its archives. (See "*On to Washington.*") The disunionists were so confident of the success of their scheme that a leading Virginian said openly: "Mr. Lincoln will not dare to come to Washington after the expiration of the term of Mr. Buchanan. The city will be seized and occupied as the capital of the Southern Confederacy, and Mr. Lincoln will be compelled to take his oath of office in Philadelphia or New York." The veteran journalist Duff Green, the warm coworker with Calhoun, said to Joseph C. Lewis, of Washington: "We intend to take possession of the army and navy and of the archives of the government; not allow the electoral vote to be counted; proclaim Buchanan provisional President, if he will do as we wish—and if not, choose another; seize the Harper's Ferry arsenal and the Gosport navy-yard simultaneously, and, sending armed men down from the former and armed vessels up from the latter, seize Washington and establish a new government." The Secessionists believed the President was pledged not to interfere, and that the seat of government of a "Southern Confederacy" might be established there without governmental resistance. But all were not satisfied of the co-operation of the President. Some South Carolina spies in Washington could not trust him. One of them, writing to the *Charleston Mercury*, said: "I know *all* that has been done here, but depend upon nothing that Mr. Buchanan promises. He will cheat us unless we are too quick for him." Nor would they confide implicitly in each other. The same writer said: "Further let me warn you of the danger of Governor Pickens making Trescott his channel of communication with the President, for the latter will be informed of everything that transpires, and that to our injury." (See *Orr's Plan.*) And the elder Rhett began a letter to his son, the editor of the *Mercury*, by saying, "Jefferson Davis is not only a dishonest man, but a liar." (From an autograph letter.) Washington society was at that time thoroughly permeated with the views of secessionism, and the Southern members of Congress, in both houses, formed the focus of the disunion movements in the slave-labor states which soon created insurrection, rebellion, and civil war. Yet with all this tide of open disloyalty surging around the National capitol, the President, seemingly bound hand and foot in the toils of the enemies of his country, sat with folded hands, and did not lift a finger to stay the fury of the rising tempest. Of him a writer at the capital [J. W. Forney] said: "His confidants are disunionists; his leaders in the Senate and in the House are disunionists, and while he drives into exile the oldest statesman in America [General Cass] simply and only because he dares to raise his voice in favor of the country, he consults daily with men who publicly avow in their seats in Congress that the Union is dissolved and that the laws are standing still."

Dismemberment of Rhode Island. While extending her domain northward by the annexation of Maine and Laconia, Massachusetts was eager to dismember the heretical commonwealth of Rhode Island. Coddington (which see) had obtained from the English Council of State a commission for a separate government for Aquiday, or Rhode Island proper, and this favored the scheme of Massachusetts. The latter claimed Warwick as a part of its territory by virtue of the submission of two sachems to whom it formerly belonged, backed by an alleged grant from Plymouth of any claim she might have under her patent. The Plymouth people denied both the fact and the legality of any such claim. The people of Warwick were hostile in feeling towards Massachusetts. Hearing that two persons had lately been hung for witchcraft, one at Hartford and one at Charlestown (two women), they said that "there were no other witches upon earth, nor devils, but the ministers of New England and such as they." This caused the quarrel to wax warm, and the people of Providence, Warwick, and Newport, apprehending danger to their independence, appealed to England for a confirmation of their charter, protection from the Indian vassals of Massachusetts, and the recall of Coddington's commission. This matter produced a quarrel among the commissioners or congressmen of the united colonies, and came near breaking up the confederacy at that time. The charter was confirmed.

Disputes between Royal Governors and the People. These disputes, which continued about seventy years, were begun in Massachusetts when, in 1702, Joseph Dudley arrived from England with a commission from Queen Anne to be captain-general and governor of the province. In his first speech he demanded a "fit and convenient house" for the governor, and a settled and stated salary for him. The House, in their answer the next day, observed that they would proceed to the consideration of these propositions "with all convenient speed." They resolved to present, out of the public treasury, the sum of £500, and said, "as to settling a salary for the governor, it is altogether new to us, nor can we think it agreeable to our present Constitution, but we shall be ready to do, according to our ability, what may be proper on our part for the support of the government." The governor sent for the speaker and the representatives to come to his chamber, when he declared his disappointment because of their procedure, and expressed a hope that they would think better of the matter. So began those disputes which were one of the causes of the final dismemberment of the British empire.

Disruption of Buchanan's Cabinet. On Dec. 27, 1860, news of the occupation of Fort Sumter by Major Anderson reached Washington. (See *Anderson in Fort Sumter.*) The cabinet assembled at noon. They had a stormy session. Floyd demanded of the President an order for Anderson's return to Fort Moultrie, urging that the President, if he should withhold it, would "violate the solemn pledges of the government." The President was inclined to give the order, but the warning voices of law and duty, as well as public opinion, made him hesitate, and the cabinet adjourned without definite action. The position of the President was painful. He had evidently made pledges to the Secessionists, without suspecting their disloyal schemes when he made them, and had filled his cabinet with disloyal men, supposing them to be honest. It is said that at that time he was in continual fear of assassination. On the morning after the cabinet meeting just referred to, news came of the seizure of Fort Moultrie and Castle Pinckney. The President breathed more freely. The Secessionists had committed the first act of war, and he felt relieved from his pledges. He peremptorily refused to order the withdrawal of Anderson from Sumter, and on the following day Floyd resigned the seals of Secretary of War and fled to Richmond. In his letter of resignation he said, respecting the secretaryship, "I can no longer hold office, under my convictions of patriotism, nor with honor, subjected as I am to a violation of solemn pledges." Joseph Holt, of Kentucky, a thoroughly loyal man, took Floyd's place, and a load of anxiety was lifted from the minds of the loyal people of the Republic. The disruption of Buchanan's cabinet went on. Attorney-general Black had taken the place of General Cass as Secretary of State, and Edwin M. Stanton filled the office of Attorney-general. Philip F. Thompson, of Maryland, had succeeded Orr as Secretary of the Treasury, but, unwilling to assist the government in enforcing the laws, he was succeeded by John A. Dix, a stanch patriot of New York. Thompson left the Interior Department Jan. 8, 1861.

Dissensions in Washington's Cabinet. Mr. Jefferson returned from France in the autumn of 1789, to take a seat in Washington's cabinet. He was filled with the French enthusiasm for republican ideas and hatred of monarchy, and he was chilled by the coldness of Washington, Adams, Hamilton, and others towards the cause of the French revolutionists. He became morbidly sensitive and suspicious, especially of Hamilton, regarding him as still a champion of a limited monarchy, for which he had expressed his preference in the convention that framed the Constitution. The consequence was, that bitter animosity grew up between them which gave Washington great uneasiness, and they became the acknowledged leaders of two violently opposing parties—Federalists and Republicans. When Washington thought of retiring from the presidency, at the close of his first term, Jefferson, who knew and valued his sterling patriotism, urged him to accept the office a second time. In a letter to him, he boldly avowed his belief that there was a conspiracy on foot to establish a monarchy in this country on the ruins of the Republic, and pointed to the measures advocated by Hamilton as indicative of a scheme to corrupt legislators and people. Washington plainly told Jefferson that his suspicions about a monarchical conspiracy were unfounded, and that the people, especially of the great cities, were thoroughly attached to republican principles. But Jefferson was firm in his belief in a conspiracy, and, finally, criminations and recriminations having taken place in the public prints between the two secretaries, Hamilton charged Freneau's *Gazette*, which continually attacked the administration, with being the organ of Jefferson, edited by a clerk in his office. The whole article was courteous in words, but extremely bitter in allusions. It produced an open rupture between the two secretaries, which Washington tried in vain to heal in a letter to Jefferson. Jefferson, not long afterwards, left the cabinet, which Washington regretted, for he was able and thoroughly patriotic.

Dissolution of Non-importation Leagues. Towards the close of 1770 the merchants began to be lax in the observance of non-importation agreements, and at a meeting in Boston in October it was resolved to import everything but tea. Merchants in other cities followed their example. These associations, while having a powerful political effect, brought about many salutary social reforms among the people of the colonies, by causing the discontinuance of many extravagant customs which involved large expenditures of money, and needed lessons of strict economy were learned.

Dissolution of the Union long Contemplated. State pride, the mother of the doctrine of state supremacy, was conspicuously manifested in the formation of the League of States under the Articles of Confederation (which see). It was also conspicuous in the convention that framed the National Constitution, and especially so in the state conventions called to ratify that document. It was so strong in New York that the ratification was effected by only one majority in the convention. Whenever the imperious will of politicians became thwarted by a public policy opposed to their wishes, they were in the habit of speaking of a dissolution of the Union as the remedy for the provocation. Such was eminently the case with the opposers of Jay's treaty in 1795 (which see). Such was the tone of the famous Virginia resolutions of 1798 (which see). So threatening to the peace of the Union had the expression of such threats become during the administration of President Washington, that the chief burden of his Farewell Address was a plea for union. The purchase of Louisiana and its creation as a state called forth this sentiment from New England politicians (see *Secession in New England*), and the positive declarations of Calhoun to Commodore Stewart, in 1812, of the intention of the Southern politicians to dissolve the Union in case of a certain contingency, showed the alarming prevalence of this idea in the slave-labor states. (See *Ruling Class in the South.*) It was put forth conspicuously in the debates on the admission of Missouri. (See *Missouri Compromise.*) After the tariff act of 1828, so obnoxious to the cotton-growers, became a law, the citizens of St. John's parish, in South Carolina, said in convention: "We have sworn that Congress shall, at our demand, repeal the tariff. If she does not, our state Legislature will dissolve our connection with the Union, and we will take our stand among the nations; and it behooves every true Carolinian 'to stand by his arms,' and to keep the halls of our Legislature pure from foreign intruders." When, in the autumn of 1832, the famous Nullification Ordinance was passed (which see), so positive were the politicians of South Carolina that the dissolution of the Union was nigh, that they caused a medal to be struck with this inscription, "JOHN C. CALHOUN, FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE SOUTHERN CONFEDERACY." In 1836 a novel was written by Beverly Tucker, of Virginia, called *The Partisan Leader*, in which the doctrine of state supremacy and sectional feeling was inculcated in the seductive form of a romance, which was widely circulated at the South, and made the people familiar with the idea of secession as a great good for that section. "Southern Rights Associations" were founded, having for their object the dissolution of the Union. These were active at the time of the excitement about the admission of California into the Union. One of the most active of the Virginians in disunion movements at that time was M. R. H. Garnett (who was in Congress when the Civil War broke out). In a letter to W. H. Trescott, a leader in the "Southern Rights Association" of South Carolina (May, 1851), Garnett mourned over the action of Virginia in hesitating to enter into the scheme of revolution then. "I do not believe," he wrote, "that the course of the Legislature is a fair expression of the popular feeling. In the East, at least, the great majority believe in the right of secession, and feel the deepest sympathy with Carolina in opposition to measures which they regard as she does. But the West—Western Virginia—here is the rub! *Only* 60,000 *slaves to* 494,000 *whites!* When I consider this fact, and the kind of argument which we have heard in this body, I cannot but regard with the greatest fear the question, whether Virginia would assist Carolina in such an issue. . . . You will object to the word Democrat. Democracy, in its original philosophical sense, is, indeed, incompatible with slavery and the whole system of Southern society." Mr. Garnett expressed a fear that, if the question was raised between Carolina and the National government, and the latter prevailed, the last hope of Southern civilization would expire. Preston S. Brooks, who assaulted Senator Sumner of Massachusetts, when alone at his desk in the Senate (see *Sumner, Charles*), with a heavy cane, said, in an harangue before an excited populace in South Carolina, "I tell you that the only mode which I think available for meeting the issue is, just to tear in twain the Constitution of the United States, trample it under foot, and form a Southern Confederacy, every state of which shall be a slave-holding state. . . . I have been a disunionist from the time I could think. If I were commander of an army, I never would post a sentinel who would not swear slavery was right. . . . If Frémont be elected President of the United States, I am for the people, in their majesty, rising above the laws and leaders, taking the power into their own hands, going, by concert or not by concert, and laying the strong arm of Southern power upon the treasury and archives of the government." This was attempted in 1861. (See *On to Washington.*)

Distribution of Arms in the South. Secretary Floyd stripped Northern arsenals of arms and sent them to Southern arsenals, in preparation for the insurrection that broke out in 1861. (See *Floyd's Disloyal Acts.*) These arms were distributed as follows:

	Percussion Muskets.	*Altered Muskets.*	*Rifles.*
To Charleston Arsenal..........	9,280	5,720	2,000
To Fayetteville Arsenal........	15,480	9,520	2,000
To Augusta Arsenal............	12,380	7,620	2.000
To Mount Vernon Arsenal......	9,280	5,720	2,000
To Baton Rouge Arsenal.......	18,580	11,420	2,000
	65,000	40,000	10,000

District of Columbia, ORGANIZATION OF THE (1791). The District was erected into two counties, as divided by the Potomac, and was placed under the jurisdiction of a circuit court, composed of a chief-justice and two assessors; the judgment of this court to be final in criminal cases, but in civil cases, where the amount in dispute exceeded $100 in value, a writ of error to lie in the Supreme Court of the United States. This arrangement was afterwards modified. Instead of providing a homogeneous code of laws for the District, those of Maryland and Virginia, as they stood at that moment, were continued in force on the respective sides of the Potomac.

District of Columbia, SLAVERY IN THE, ABOLISHED. A bill for this purpose was passed by the National Congress (April 11, 1862), and became a law by the signature of the President April 16. It provided for the payment, out of the treasury of the United States, of an average compensation of $300 to the master or mistress of each slave thus emancipated. Thus emancipation began at the national capital. In connection with this event was a curious proceeding. A free negro of the district, who had bought and paid for his slave wife, she and her children being, by the slave code, his lawful slaves, claimed and received compensation for her and her half-dozen children.

District of Louisiana. All the region west of the Mississippi and north of Orleans Territory (which see) was constituted the District of Louisiana in 1804. It included a little village on the Arkansas River, and several on or near the Mississippi, the principal of which was St. Louis. (See *Fur-trade.*) The white population was less than four thousand, and it was proposed to reserve this region for the Indians. The President was authorized to propose to the tribes east of the Mississippi an exchange of their lands for other territory out of the reserve, and their migration thither. This policy has since been extensively carried out. The District of Louisiana was placed under the charge of Indiana, and was erected into a separate territory of the second class in 1805, the power of legislation being vested in the governor and judges.

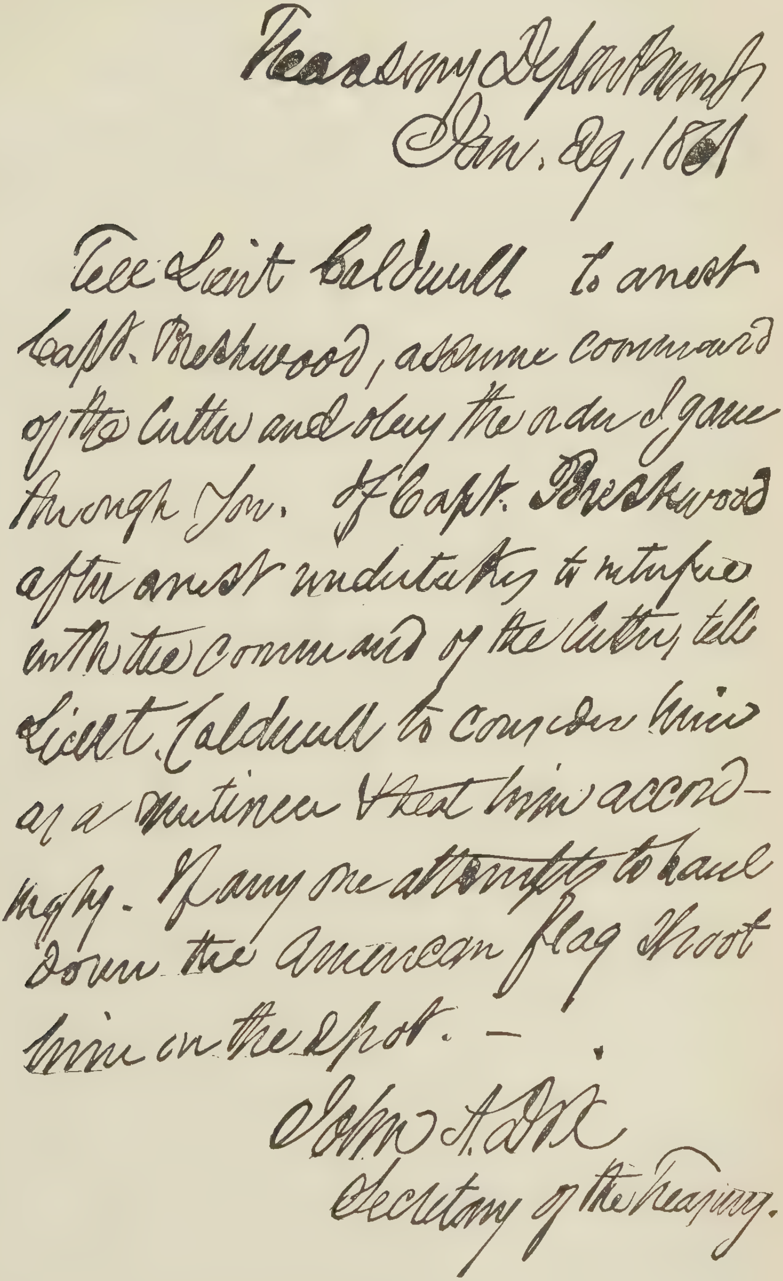
Disunion, PROPOSITION FOR (1804). The purchase of Louisiana was deprecated and violently opposed by the Federalist leaders, because it would strengthen the Southern political influence then controlling the national government. They professed to regard the measure as inimical to the Northern and Eastern sections of the Union. The Southern politicians had made them familiar with the prescription of disunion as a remedy for incurable political evils, and they resolved to try its efficacy in the case in question. All through the years 1803 and 1804 desires for and fears of a dissolution of the Union were freely expressed in what were free-labor states in 1861. East of the Alleghanies, early in 1804, a select convention of Federalists, to be held in Boston, was contemplated, in the ensuing autumn, to consider the question of disunion. Alexander Hamilton was invited to attend it, but his emphatic condemnation of the whole plan, only a short time before his death, seems to have disconcerted the leaders and dissipated the scheme. The Rev. Jedediah Morse, then very influential in the Church and in politics in New England, advocated the severance of the Eastern States from the Union, so as to get rid of the evils of the slave system; and, later, Josiah Quincy, in a debate in the House of Representatives, expressed his opinion that it might become necessary to divide the Union as a cure of evils that seemed to be already chronic.

Disunion threatened in 1779. In angry debates in Congress on the subject of the fisheries, in 1779, threats of disunion were made by deputies of the North and the South. It was shown that the prosperity of New England depended on the fisheries; but in this the Southern States had no common interest. Indeed, in all the states the doctrine of state supremacy was so universally prevalent that the deputies in Congress, instead of willingly legislating for the whole, legislated for their respective states. When appeals had been made in Congress for a favorable consideration of New England in relation to the fisheries without effect, Samuel Adams said that "it would become more and more necessary for the two empires [meaning the Northern and Southern States divided by "Mason and Dixon's Line" (which see)] to separate." When the North offered a preliminary resolution that the country, even if deserted by France and Spain, would continue the war for the sake of the fisheries, four states drew up a protest, declaring peremptorily that if the resolution should be adopted they would withdraw from the confederation. These sectional interests continually stood in the way of a perfect union of the struggling colonists. The inflexible tenacity with which each state asserted its title to complete sovereignty often menaced the Union with destruction, and independence became, in the minds of some, an idle dream. When, in August, 1781, envoys from Vermont were in Philadelphia, entreating for the admission of their state into the Union, the measure was opposed by the Southern delegates, because it would "destroy the balance of power" between the two sections of the confederacy, and give the preponderance to the North.

Dix, Dorothea Lynde, was born at Worcester, Mass. After her father's death she supported herself by teaching a school for young girls in Boston. Becoming interested in the welfare of the convicts in the state prison at Charlestown, her philanthropic spirit expanded and embraced all of the unfortunate and suffering classes. Having inherited from a relative property sufficient to render her independent, she went to Europe for her health. Returning to Boston in 1837, she devoted her life to the investigation and alleviation of the condition of paupers, lunatics, and prisoners, encouraged by her friend and pastor, Dr. Channing. In this work she visited every state in the Union east of the Rocky Mountains, endeavoring to persuade legislatures to aid the unfortunate, and was instrumental in bringing about the foundation of several state asylums. At the breaking out of the Civil War she was placed in a responsible position in relation to public hospitals by the Secretary of War (see *United States Sanitary Commission*), and to the end labored incessantly for the relief of the suffering soldiers.

Dix, John Adams, was born at Boscawen, N. H., July 24, 1798; died April 21, 1879. He graduated at Brown University in 1830, and completed his studies in a French college at Montreal. He entered the army as a cadet in 1812, when the war with England began. While his father, Lieutenant-colonel Dix, was at Fort McHenry, Baltimore, young Dix pursued his studies at St. Mary's College. In the spring of 1813 he was appointed an ensign in the army, and was soon promoted to third lieutenant, and made adjutant of an independent battalion of nine companies. He was commissioned a captain in 1825, and having continued in the army sixteen years, in 1828 he left the military service. His father had been mortally hurt at Chrysler's Field (which see), and the care of extricating the paternal estate from difficulties, for the benefit of his mother and her nine children, had devolved upon him. He had studied law while in the army. After visiting Europe for his health, Captain Dix settled as a lawyer in Cooperstown, N. Y. He became warmly engaged in politics, and in 1830 Governor Throop appointed him adjutant-general of the state. In 1833 he was elected Secretary of State of New York, which office made him a member of the Board of Regents of the University and other important positions. Chiefly through his exertions public libraries were introduced into the school districts of the state and the school laws systematized. In 1842 he was a member of the New York Assembly, and of the United States Senate from 1845 to 1849. In the discussion of the question of the annexation of Texas and of slavery he expressed the views of the Free Soilers (which see), whose candidate for governor he was in 1848. In 1859 he was appointed Postmaster of New York city; and when, early in 1861, Buchanan's cabinet was dissolved, he was called to the position of Secretary of the Treasury. In that capacity he issued the famous order. (See *Dix, Order of.*) He was appointed major-general of volunteers May 16, 1861; commander at Baltimore, and then at Fortress Monroe and on the Virginia peninsula; and in September, 1862, he was placed in command of the Seventh Army Corps. He was also chosen President of the Pacific Railway Company. In 1866 he was appointed minister to France, which position he filled until 1869. He was elected Governor of the State of New York in 1872, and retired to private life at the end of the term of two years, at which time he performed rare service for the good name of the State of New York. General Dix was a fine classical scholar, and translated several passages from Catullus, Virgil, and others into polished English verse. He made a most conscientious and beautiful translation of the *Dies Iræ.*

JOHN ADAMS DIX.



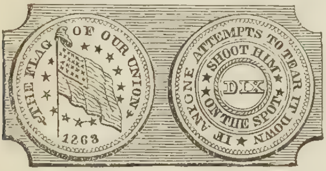
Treasury Department
Jan. 29, 1861

Tell Lieut. Caldwell to arrest Capt. Breshwood, assume command of the Cutter and obey the order I gave through Jon. If Capt. Breshwood after arrest undertakes to interfere with the command of the Cutter, tell Lieut. Caldwell to consider him as a mutineer & treat him accordingly. If any one attempts to haul down the American flag shoot him on the spot. —

John A. Dix
Secretary of the Treasury.

GENERAL DIX'S FAMOUS ORDER.

Dix's Famous Order. Early in January, 1861, John A. Dix was made Secretary of the Treasury. He found the department in a wretched condition, and proceeded with energy in the administration of it. Hearing of the tendency in the slave-labor states to seize United States property within their borders, he sent a special agent of his department (Hemphill Jones) to secure for service revenue cutters at Mobile and New Orleans. He found the *Lewis Cass* in the hands of the insurgents at Mobile. The *Robert McClelland*, at New Orleans, was in command of Captain J. G. Breshwood, of the navy. Jones gave the captain an order from Dix to sail to the North. Breshwood absolutely refused to obey the order. This fact Jones made known, by telegraph, to Dix, and added that the collector at New Orleans (Hatch) sustained the rebellious captain. Dix instantly telegraphed back, "Tell Lieut. Caldwell to arrest Capt. Breshwood, assume command of the cutter, and obey the order I gave through you. If Capt. Breshwood, after arrest, undertakes to interfere with the command of the cutter, tell Lieut. Caldwell to consider him as a mutineer and treat him accordingly. *If anyone attempts to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot.*" The Secessionists in New Orleans had possession of the telegraph, and did not allow this despatch to pass, and the *McClelland* was handed over to the authorities of Louisiana. As Secretary Dix's order was flashed over the land it thrilled every heart with hope that the temporizing policy of the administration had ended. The loyal people rejoiced, and a small medal was struck by private hands commemorative of the event, on one side of which was the Union flag, and around it the words, "THE FLAG OF OUR UNION, 1862;" on the other, in two circles, the last clause of Dix's famous order. After the war the authorship of the famous order was claimed for different persons, and it was asserted that General Dix was only the medium for its official communication. In reply to an inquiry addressed by the writer to General Dix at the close of August, 1873, he responded as follows from his country residence:


THE FLAG OF OUR UNION
1263
IF ANYONE ATTEMPTS TO TEAR IT DOWN
SHOOT HIM ON THE SPOT
DIX

DIX MEDAL.

> "SEAFIELD, WEST HAVEN, N. Y., *Sept.* 21, 1873.
>
> "Your favor is received. The 'order' alluded to was written by myself, without any suggestion from any one, and it was sent off three days before it was communicated to the President or cabinet. Mr. Stanton's letter to Mr. Bonner, of the *Ledger*, stating that it was wholly mine, was published in the *New York Times* last October or late in September, to silence forever the misrepresentations in regard to it. After writing it (about seven o'clock in the evening), I gave it to Mr. Hardy, a clerk in the Treasury Department, to copy. The copy was signed by me, and sent to the telegraph office the same evening, and the original was kept, like all other original despatches. It is now, as you state, in possession of my son, Rev. Dr. Dix, No. 27 West Twenty-fifth Street, New York. It was photographed in 1863 or 1864, and you, no doubt, have the fac-simile thus made.
>
> "Very truly yours, JOHN A. DIX."

Dixie. A supposed imaginary land of luxurious enjoyment somewhere in the Southern States, and during the Civil War it became a collective designation for the slave-labor states. "Dixie" songs and "Dixie" music prevailed all over those states and in the Confederate army. It had no such significance. It is a simple refrain that originated among negro emigrants to the South from Manhattan, or New York, island about eighty years ago. A man named Dixy owned a large tract of land on that island and many slaves. They became unprofitable, and the growth of the abolition sentiment made Dixy's slaves uncertain property. He sent quite a large number of them to Southern planters and sold them. The heavier burdens imposed upon them there, and the memories of their birthplace and its comforts on Manhattan, made them sigh for Dixy's. It became with them synonymous with an earthly paradise, and the exiles sang a simple refrain in a pathetic manner about the joys at Dixy's. Additions to it elevated it into the dignity of a song, and it was chanted by the negroes all over the South, which, in the Civil War, was called the "Land of Dixie."

Dodge, GRENVILLE M., was born at Danvers, Mass., April 12, 1831. He was educated at Partridge's Military Academy, Conn., and became a railroad surveyor in Illinois and Iowa and westward to the Rocky Mountains. He was sent to Washington in 1861 to procure arms and equipments for Iowa volunteers, and became colonel of a regiment in July. He commanded a brigade on the extreme right at the battle of Pea Ridge (which see), and was wounded. For his services there he was made brigadier-general. He was appointed to the command of the District of the Mississippi in June, 1862. He was with Sherman in his Georgia campaign, and was promoted to major-general. He finally commanded the Sixteenth Corps in that campaign, and in December, 1864, he succeeded Rosecrans in command of the Department of Missouri. In 1867–69 he was a member of Congress from Iowa.

Dodge, HENRY, was born at Vincennes, Ind., Oct. 12, 1782; died at Burlington, N. J., Jan. 19, 1867. He commanded a company of volunteers in the War of 1812–15, and rose to the position of lieutenant-colonel of mounted infantry in 1814. He fought the Indians from 1832 to 1834, when he made peace on the frontiers, and in 1835 commanded an expedition to the Rocky Mountains. He was Governor of Wisconsin and Superintendent of Indian Affairs from 1836 to 1841; a delegate in Congress from 1841 to 1845; and United States Senator from 1849 to 1857.

Domestic Manufactures. (See *Home Manufactures.*)

Domestic Slave-trade. The rapid extension of settlements in the southwest after the War of 1812–15, and the great profits derived there from the cultivation of cotton, had not only caused the revival of the African slave-trade, in spite of prohibitory laws, but it had given occasion to a rival domestic slave-trade, of which the national capital had become one of the centres, where it was carried on by professional traffickers in human beings. They bought up the slaves of impoverished planters of Maryland and Virginia, and sold them at large profits in the cotton-growing districts of the South and West. This new traffic, which included many of the worst features of the African slave-trade, was severely denounced by John Randolph, of Virginia, as "heinous and abominable, inhuman and illegal." This opinion was founded on facts reported by a committee of inquiry. Governor D. R. Williams, of South Carolina, denounced the traffic as "remorseless and cruel;" a "ceaseless dragging along the streets and highways of a crowd of suffering victims to minister to insatiable avarice," condemned alike by "enlightened humanity, wise policy, and the prayers of the just." The governor urged that it had a tendency to introduce slaves of all descriptions from other states, "defiling the delightful avocations of private life" "by the presence of convicts and malefactors." The Legislature of South Carolina passed an act forbidding the introduction of slaves from other states. A similar act was passed by the Georgia Legislature. This legislation was frequently resorted to on occasions of alarm, but the profitable extension of cotton cultivation and the demand for slave labor overcame all scruples. Within two years after its passage, the prohibitory act of South Carolina was repealed. The interstate slave-traffic was carried on extensively until slavery was abolished in 1863. A Richmond newspaper, in 1861, urging Virginia to join the Southern Confederacy, which had prohibited the traffic between them and states that would not join them, gave as a most urgent reason for such an act, that if it were not accomplished the "Old Dominion" would lose this trade, amounting annually to from thirteen to twenty million dollars.

Dominion in America, French and English Claims for. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (which see) was only a truce between France and England, contending for dominion in America. The former, excluded from all the frontier coasts of North America, aimed to repair this disadvantage by possessing the river St. Lawrence on the north and the Mississippi on the west and south, and a connection of the colonies of Louisiana and Canada through the intermediate lakes and waters. This design, which the English frustrated, was regarded by the latter as not only prejudicial to them in its operation, but unjust in principle. The French claim rested upon a prior settlement in New France. The English claim rested upon the grant to the Plymouth Company (1620) of all the lands between the parallels of forty and forty-eight degrees north latitude to the Pacific Ocean (see *Council of Plymouth*), and on treaties made with the native inhabitants of the continent. They insisted, moreover, that the country of the Six Nations was ceded to them by the French in the treaties at Utrecht (1713) and Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). The English, therefore, regarded as encroachments by the French the erection by the latter of about twenty forts, besides block-houses and trading-posts, within claimed English domain. So, while Acadia furnished one field for hostilities between the two nations, the country along the lakes and in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys furnished another. The dispute was settled by the arbitrament of arms.

Dongan, Thomas, was a younger son of an Irish baronet, born in 1634. He was a colonel in the royal army, and served under the French king. In 1678 he was appointed Lieutenant-governor of Tangier, Africa, whence he was recalled in 1680. The relations between England and France were then delicate, and Dongan being a Roman Catholic, like the proprietor of New York, he was chosen by Duke James governor of that province (1683), as it was thought his experience in France might make it easier to keep up friendly relations with the French on the borders. Dongan caused a company of merchants in New York to be formed for the management of the fisheries at Pemaquid, a part of the duke's domain (see *Pemaquid*), and he took measures to protect the territory from encroachments. Dongan managed the relations between the English, French, and Indians with dexterity. He was not deceived by the false professions of the French rulers or the wiles of the Jesuit priests; and when De Nonville invaded the country of the Five Nations (1686) he showed himself as bold as this leader in defence of the rights of Englishmen. Dongan sympathized with the people of his province in their aspirations for liberty, which his predecessor (Andros) had denied; and he was instrumental in the formation of the first General Assembly of New York, and in obtaining a popular form of government. (See *Charter of Liberties and Franchises.*) When the perfidious king violated his promises while he was duke, Dongan was grieved, and protested; and when the monarch ordered him to introduce French priests among the Five Nations, the enlightened governor resisted the measure as dangerous to English power on the continent. His firmness in defence of the rights of the people and the safety of the English colonies in America against what he could not but regard as the treachery of the king finally offended his sovereign, and he was dismissed from office in the spring of 1688, when Andros took his place, bearing a vice-regal commission to rule all New England besides. Dongan remained in the province until persecuted by Leisler in 1690, when he withdrew to Boston.

Doolittle, Amos, one of the earliest engravers on copper in the United States. While a volunteer in the camp at Cambridge (1775) he visited the scene of the skirmish at Lexington and made a drawing and engraving of the affair, which furnishes the historian with the only correct representation of the buildings around the "Green" at that time. He afterwards made other historical prints of the time.

Dorr, Thomas Wilson, was born in Providence, R. I., in 1805; died there, Dec. 27, 1854. He graduated at Harvard in 1823. He studied law with Chancellor Kent, and began its practice in 1827. He is chiefly conspicuous in our history as the chosen governor of what was called the "Suffrage party," and attempted to take the place of what was deemed to be the legal state government. (See *Rhode Island.*) He was tried for and convicted of high-treason, and sentenced to imprisonment for life in 1842, but was pardoned in 1847; and in 1853 the Legislature restored to him his civil rights and ordered the record of his sentence to be expunged. He lived to see his party triumph.

Doubleday, Abner, was born at Ballston

Spa, N.Y., June 26, 1819, and graduated at West Point in 1842. He served in the artillery in the war with Mexico; rose to captain in 1855; and served against the Seminole Indians in 1856–58. Captain Doubleday was an efficient officer in Fort Sumter with Major Anderson during its siege. He fired the first gun (April 12, 1861) upon the insurgents from that fort. On May 14 he was promoted to major, and on Feb. 3, 1862, to brigadier-general of volunteers. In Hooker's corps, at the battle of Antietam, he commanded a division; and when Reynolds fell at Gettysburg, Doubleday took command of his corps. He had been made major-general in November, 1862, and had been conspicuously engaged in the battles of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville. He was breveted brigadier- and major-general of the United States Army in March, 1865, and was commissioned colonel of infantry in September, 1867.

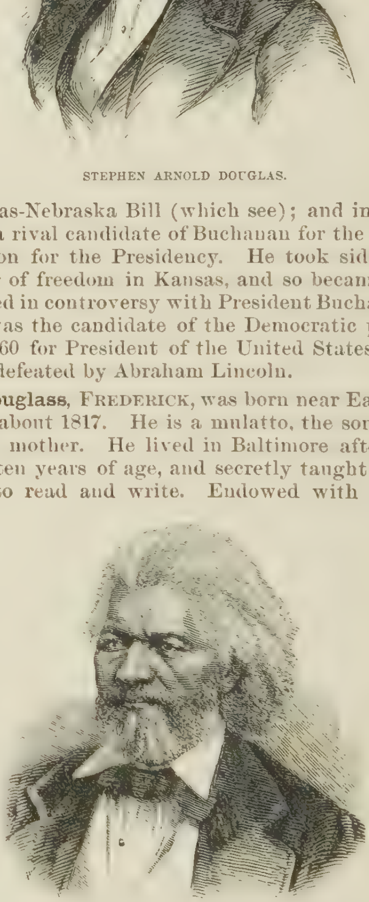
ABNER DOUBLEDAY.

Doughfaces. When, in 1820, the great debate on the slavery question, elicited by proceedings in relation to the admission of Missouri as a free-labor or slave-labor state, eighteen Northern men were induced to vote for a sort of compromise, by which the striking the prohibition of slavery out of the Missouri Bill was carried by ninety to eighty-seven. John Randolph, who denounced the compromise as a "dirty bargain," also denounced these eighteen Northern representatives as "doughfaces"—plastic in the hands of expert demagogues. The epithet was at once adopted into the political vocabulary of the Republic, where it remains.

Douglas, Stephen Arnold, was born at Brandon, Vt., April 23, 1813; died in Chicago, June 3, 1861. He learned the business of cabinet-making, studied law, became an auctioneer's clerk in Jacksonville, Ill., and taught school until admitted to the bar, when he soon became an active politician. Because of his small stature and power of intellect and speech he was called "The Little Giant." He was Attorney-general of Illinois in 1835; was in the Legislature; was chosen Secretary of State in 1840; judge in 1841; and was in Congress in 1843–47. He was a vigorous promoter of the war with Mexico, and was United States Senator from 1847 to 1861. He advanced and supported the doctrine of popular sovereignty (which see) in relation to slavery in the territories, and was the author of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill (which see); and in 1856 was a rival candidate of Buchanan for the nomination for the Presidency. He took sides in favor of freedom in Kansas, and so became involved in controversy with President Buchanan. He was the candidate of the Democratic party in 1860 for President of the United States, but was defeated by Abraham Lincoln.

STEPHEN ARNOLD DOUGLAS.

Douglass, Frederick, was born near Easton, Md., about 1817. He is a mulatto, the son of a slave mother. He lived in Baltimore after he was ten years of age, and secretly taught himself to read and write. Endowed with great natural moral and intellectual ability, he fled from slavery at the age of twenty-one years, and, going to New Bedford, married, and supported himself by day-labor on the wharves and in workshops. In 1841 he spoke at an anti-slavery convention at Nantucket, and soon afterwards was made the agent of the Massachusetts Anti-slavery Society. He lectured extensively in New England, and, going to Great Britain, spoke in nearly all the large towns in



FREDERICK DOUGLASS.

that country on the subject of slavery. On his return to the United States, in 1847, he began the publication, at Rochester, N. Y., of *Frederick Douglass's Paper*, a weekly newspaper. He had published his autobiography. In 1870 he became editor of the *National Era* at Washington city, and in 1876 was appointed marshal of the District of Columbia.

Downfall of Andros. When news came to Boston of the revolution in England, Governor Andros affected to disbelieve it, and imprisoned those who brought it. With the people the "wish was father to the thought," and they gave credence to the rumor and arranged a popular insurrection. A mob gathered in the streets of Boston. The sheriff who attempted to disperse them was made a prisoner; so also was the commander of the frigate *Rose* as he landed from his boat. The militia assembled in arms at the town-house under their old officers. Andros and his council withdrew in alarm to a fort which crowned an eminence still known as Fort Hill. Simon Bradstreet, a former governor, then eighty-seven years of age, was seen in the crowd by the militia, and immediately proclaimed the chief magistrate of the redeemed colony. The magistrates and other citizens formed themselves into a council of safety. The ready pen of Cotton Mather wrote a proclamation, and Andros was summoned to surrender. A barge sent from the *Rose* to take off the governor and his council was intercepted and captured. Andros yielded, and, with the royal ex-President Dudley, Randolph, and his other chief partisans, was imprisoned (April 18, 1689). Andros, by the connivance of a sentinel, escaped to Rhode Island, but was brought back. In July following he was sent to England. (See *Andros.*)

Draft Riots in New York. A draft or conscription of men for the National army had been authorized (April, 1862) by Congress. The President refrained from resorting to this extreme measure as long as possible, but, owing to the great discouragement to volunteering produced by the unpatriotic Peace Faction (which see) and the Knights of the Golden Circle (which see), he issued a proclamation (May 8, 1863) for a draft, to begin in July, and caused the appointment in every Congressional district of an enrolling board. This was made the occasion for inaugurating a counter-revolution in the free-labor states. Organized resistance to the measure instantly appeared. The leaders of the peace faction denounced the law and all acts under it as despotic and unconstitutional, and an obscure lawyer of New York city, named McCunn, who had been elected a judge, so decided. He was sustained by three judges of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania — Lowrie, Woodward, and Thompson—and, supported by these legal decisions, the politicians antagonistic to the administration opposed the draft with a high hand. The public mind was greatly excited by the harangues of public speakers and the utterance of the opposition newspapers when the draft was ordered. The national anniversary (July 4) was made the special occasion for these utterances, and distinguished members of the peace faction exhorted the people to stand firmly in opposition to what they called the "usurpations of the government." Sneers were uttered on that day because Vicksburg had not been taken, and the President had made "a midnight cry for help" because of Lee's invasion in Maryland; when at that very moment Vicksburg, with thirty-seven thousand prisoners, was in possession of General Grant, and Lee and his legions, discomfited at Gettysburg, were preparing to flee back to Virginia. A leading opposition journal in New York city counselled its readers to provide themselves with a "good rifled musket, a few pounds of powder, and a hundred or so of shot," to resist the draft. On the evening of July 3 an incendiary handbill, calculated to incite to insurrection, was scattered broadcast over the city; and it is believed that an organized outbreak had been planned, and would have been executed, but for the defeat of Lee that very day at Gettysburg, and Grant's success at Vicksburg. When, on Monday (July 13), the draft began in New York, in a building on Third Avenue, at Forty-sixth Street, a large crowd (who had cut the telegraph-wires leading out of the city) suddenly appeared, attacked the building, drove out the clerks, tore up the papers, poured a can of kerosene over the floor, and very soon that and an adjoining building were in flames. The firemen were not allowed to extinguish them, and the police who came were overpowered, and the superintendent (Kennedy) was severely beaten by the mob. So began a tumult in which thousands of disorderly persons, chiefly natives of Ireland, were engaged for full three days and nights. The disorders broke out simultaneously at different points, evidently having a central head somewhere. The cry against the draft soon ceased, and those of "Down with the abolitionists!" "Down with the niggers!" "Hurrah for Jeff. Davis!" succeeded. The mob compelled hundreds of citizens—driven out of manufacturing establishments which they had closed, or in the streets—to join them; and, under the influence of strong drink, arson and plunder became the business of the rioters. The special objects of their wrath were the innocent colored people. They laid in ashes the Colored Orphan Asylum, and the terrified inmates, who fled in every direction, were pursued and cruelly beaten. Men and women were beaten to death in the streets, and the colored people in the city were hunted as if they were noxious wild beasts. Finally, the police, aided by the military, suppressed the insurrection in the city, but not until one thousand persons had been killed or wounded, and property to the amount of $2,000,000 destroyed. Over fifty buildings had been destroyed by the mob, and a large number of stores and dwellings, not burned, were sacked and plundered. This riot was undoubtedly an irregular outbreak of a vast conspiracy against the life of the Republic.

Drainsville, SKIRMISH AT. The loyal people of the country became impatient because the Army of the Potomac, full two hundred thousand strong, at near Christmas, 1861, was seemingly kept at bay by sixty thousand Confederates—a little more than their number at Manassas. There was a sense of relief when, on Dec. 20, General E. O. C. Ord had a sharp skirmish with Confederate cavalry near Drainsville, led by Colonel J. E. B. Stuart. Ord had gone out to capture insurgent foragers, and to gather forage from the farms of secessionists. He was attacked by Stuart, who had come up from Centreville. A severe fight occurred, and the Confederates were beaten and fled. The Nationals lost seven killed and sixteen wounded; the Confederates lost forty-three killed and one hundred and forty-three wounded. The Nationals returned to camp with sixteen wagon-loads of hay and twenty-two of corn.

Drake, SAMUEL GARDINER, was born at Pittsfield, N. H., Oct. 11, 1798; died in Boston, June 14, 1875. He received a common-school education, and taught in a district school for several years. Settling in Boston, he there established the first antiquarian book-store in the United States, in 1828. He was one of the founders of the New England Historical Genealogical Society, of which he was at one time president, and in 1847 began the publication of the *New England Genealogical Register*, continuing it many years as editor and publisher, making large contributions of biography to its pages. Mr. Drake resided in London about two years (1858–60). He prepared many valuable books on biographical and historical subjects. His *Book of the Indians* is a standard work on Indian history and biography. He prepared an excellent illustrated *History of Boston*, and his illustrative annotations of very old American books and pamphlets are of exceeding value.

Drake, SIR FRANCIS, was born near Tavistock, Devonshire, England, about 1542; died near Puerto Bello, Dec. 27, 1595. Becoming a seaman in early youth, he was owner and master of a ship at the age of eighteen years. After making commercial voyages to Guinea, Africa, he sold her, and invested the proceeds in an expedition to Mexico, under Captain Hawkins, in 1567. The fleet was nearly destroyed in an attack by the Spaniards at San Juan de Ulloa (near Vera Cruz), and Drake returned to England stripped of all his property. The Spanish government refused to indemnify him for his losses, and he sought revenge and found it. Queen Elizabeth gave him a commission in the royal navy, and in 1572 he sailed from Plymouth with two ships for the avowed purpose of plundering the Spaniards. He did so successfully on the coasts of South America, and returned in 1573 with greater wealth than he ever possessed before. Drake was welcomed as a hero; he soon won the title honorably by circumnavigating the globe. He had seen from a mountain at Darien the waters of the Pacific Ocean, and resolved to explore them. Under the patronage of the queen, he sailed from Plymouth in December, 1577; passed through the Strait of Magellan into the Pacific Ocean; pillaged the Spanish settlements on the coasts of Peru and Chili, and a Spanish galleon laden with gold and silver bullion; and, pushing northward, discovered the bay of San Francisco, took possession of California in the name of his queen, and named the country New Albion, or New England. (See *New England.*) Fearing encounters with the Spaniards on his return with his treasure-laden vessels, Drake sought a north-east passage to England. Met by severe cold, he turned back, crossed the Pacific to the Spice Islands, thence over the Indian Ocean, and, doubling the Cape of Good Hope, reached England in November, 1580. The delighted queen knighted Drake, who afterwards plundered Spanish towns on the Atlantic coasts of America; and, returning, took a distressed English colony from Roanoke Island (see *Roanoke*), and carried them to England. In command of a fleet of thirty vessels, in 1587, he destroyed one hundred Spanish vessels in the harbor of Cadiz; and from a captured vessel in the East India trade the English learned the immense value of that trade and how to carry it on. As vice-admiral, Drake materially assisted in defeating the Spanish Armada in 1588; and the next year he ravaged the coasts of the Spanish peninsula. After various other exploits of a similar kind, he accompanied Hawkins to the West Indies in 1595. Hawkins died at Porto Rico, and Drake, in supreme command, gained victory after victory over the Spaniards. Late in the year a fatal malady destroyed his life, and he was buried at sea.

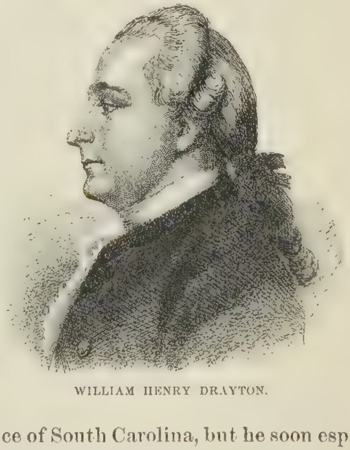
Drake, SIR FRANCIS, IN CALIFORNIA. After Drake had made his plundering raid along the coasts of Spanish South America in 1579, he sailed northward as high, probably, as latitude 46°, or near the boundary between Oregon and the British possessions. He possibly went farther north, for he encountered very cold weather in June, and turned back. Drake entered a fine bay and landed his stores, preparatory to repairing his ship; and he remained on the coast full a month, hospitably treated by the natives. Late in June he was visited by the king of the country and his official attendants. The former was dressed in rabbit-skins—a peculiar mark of distinction. His officers were clad in feathers, and his other followers were almost naked. Drake received them cordially. The sceptre-bearer and another officer made speeches, after which the natives indulged in a wild dance, in which the women joined. Then Drake was asked to sit down, when the king and his people desired him to "become the king and governor of the country." Then the king, singing with all the rest, set a crown upon Drake's head, and saluted him as *Hioh*, or sovereign. Drake accepted the honor in the name of Queen Elizabeth. He took formal possession of the country, named it New Albion (see *New England*), and, erecting a wooden post, placed upon it a copper plate, with an inscription, on which was asserted the right of Queen Elizabeth and her successors to the kingdom, with the time of his arrival there, and a statement of the voluntary resignation of the country to the English by the king and people. On the same plate were engraved the portrait and arms of the queen and the navigator. Then he sailed for the Molucca Islands. It is believed that Sir Francis Drake entered the "Golden Gate" of San Francisco Bay, and that near its shores the ceremony of his coronation took place.

Draper, John William, M.D., LL.D., scientist, was born at St. Helen's, near Liverpool, Eng., May 5, 1811, and was educated in scientific studies at the University of London. He came to America in 1833, and continued his medical and chemical studies in the University of Pennsylvania, where he took the degree of M.D. He became (1836–39) professor of chemistry, natural philosophy, and physiology in Hampden-Sidney College, Virginia. Since 1839 Dr. Draper has been connected, as professor, with the University of the City of New York, and aided in establishing the University Medical College, of which he was appointed (1841) professor of chemistry. In 1850 physiology was added to the chair of chemistry. Since that year he has been president of the medical faculty of the institution, and in 1874 he was also president of the scientific department of the university. Dr. Draper is one of the most patient, careful, and acute of scientific investigators. His industry in experimental researches is marvellous, and his publications on scientific subjects are voluminous. He has contributed much to other departments of learning. His *History of the Intellectual Development of Europe* appeared in 1862; his *Thoughts on the Future Civil Policy of America*, in 1865; and his *History of the American Civil War*, in three volumes, appeared between 1867 and 1870. To Dr. Draper are due many fundamental facts concerning the phenomena of the spectrum—of light and heat. Among his later productions are reports of experimental examinations of the distribution of heat and of chemical force in the spectrum. Dr. Draper's researches materially aided in perfecting Daguerre's great discovery. In 1876 the Rumford gold medal (see *Count Rumford*) was bestowed upon Dr. Draper by the American Academy of Sciences for his researches in radiant energy.

JOHN WILLIAM DRAPER.

Drayton, Charge of Judge. The first charge to the grand jury at Camden, S. C., in 1774, by Judge William H. Drayton, is conspicuous in American history. "In order to stimulate your exertions in favor of your civil liberties, which protect your religious rights," he said, "instead of discoursing to you on the laws of other states and comparing them to our own, allow me to tell you what your civil liberties are, and to charge you, which I do in the most solemn manner, to hold them dearer than your lives—a lesson and charge at all times proper from a judge, but particularly so at this crisis, when America is in one general and grievous commotion touching this truly important point." The judge then discoursed on the origin of the colony, the nature of the constitution, and their civil rights under it, and concluded by saying that some might think his charge inconsistent with his duty to the king who had just placed him on the bench; "but, for my part," he said, "in my judicial character I know no master but the law. I am a servant, not to the king, but to the constitution; and, in my estimation, I shall best discharge my duty as a good servant to the king and a trusty officer under the constitution when I boldly declare the laws to the people and instruct them in their civil rights." This charge, scattered broadcast by the press, had a powerful influence in the colonies, and, with other patriotic acts, cost Judge Drayton his office, for he was soon suspended.

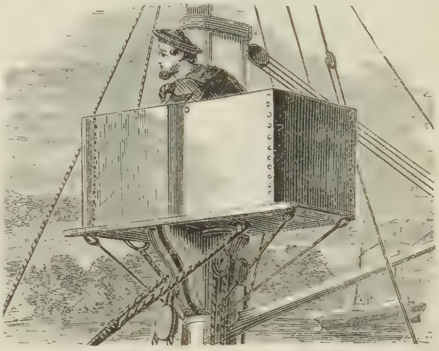
Drayton, William Henry, was born in South Carolina, September, 1742; died in Philadelphia, Sept. 3, 1779. He was educated in England, and on his return he became a political writer. In 1771 he was appointed privy-councillor for the province of South Carolina, but he soon espoused the cause of the patriots and protested against the proceedings of his colleagues. In 1774 he addressed a pamphlet to the Continental Congress, in which he stated the grievances of the Americans, and drew up a bill of rights, and substantially marked out the line of conduct adopted by the Congress. He was appointed a judge in 1774, but was suspended from the office when he became a member of the Committee of Safety at Charleston. In 1775 he was president of the Provincial Congress of South Carolina. In 1776 he became chief-justice of


WILLIAM HENRY DRAYTON.

the state; and his published charge to a grand jury in April, that year, displayed great wisdom and energy, and was widely circulated and admired. Mr. Drayton was chosen President, or Governor, of South Carolina in 1777, and in 1778–79 was a member of the Continental Congress. He wrote a history of the Revolution to the end of the year 1778, which was published by his son in 1821.

Dred Scott Case, THE. At about the time that Mr. Buchanan became President-elect of the Republic a case of much moment was adjudicated by the Supreme Court of the United States. A negro named Dred Scott had been the slave of a United States army officer living in Missouri. He was taken by his master to a military post in Illinois, to which the latter had been ordered in the year 1834. There Scott married the female slave of another officer, with the consent of their respective masters. They had two children born in that free-labor territory. The mother was bought by the master of Scott, and parents and children were taken by that officer back to Missouri and there sold. Scott sued for his freedom on the plea of his involuntary residence in a free-labor territory and state for several years. The case was tried in the circuit court of St. Louis, and the decision was in Scott's favor. The Supreme Court of the state reversed the decision, and the case was carried to the Supreme Court of the United States, Chief-justice Roger B. Taney presiding. The chief-justice and a majority of the court were friends of the slave system, and their decision, which, for prudential reasons, was withheld until after the Presidential election in the fall of 1856, was against Scott. The chief-justice declared that any person "whose ancestors were imported into this country and held as slaves" had no right to sue in a court in the United States; in other words, he denied the right of citizenship to any person who had been a slave or was a descendant of a slave. The chief-justice, with the sanction of a majority of the court, further declared that the framers and supporters of the Declaration of American Independence did not include the negro race in our country in the great proclamation that "*all* men are created equal;" that the patriots of the Revolution and their progenitors "for more than a century before" regarded the negro race as so far inferior that they *had no rights which the white man was bound to respect*, and that they were never spoken of except as property. He also declared that the framers of the National Constitution held the same views. The chief-justice went further in his extra-judicial declarations, saying that the Missouri Compromise (which see), and all other acts restricting slavery, were unconstitutional, and that neither Congress nor local legislatures had any authority for restricting the spread over the whole Union of the institution of slavery. The dominant party assumed that the decision was final—that slavery was a national institution, having the right to exist anywhere in the Union, and that the boast of a Georgia politician that he should yet "count his slaves on Bunker's Hill" might be legally carried out. President Buchanan, who had been informed of this decision before its promulgation, foreshadowed his course in the matter in his inaugural address (March 4, 1857), in which he spoke of the measure as one which would "speedily and finally" settle the slavery question; and he announced his determination to cheerfully submit to it. The decision, or opinion, was promulgated March 6, 1857. (See *March of Public Sentiment.*)

Drewry's Bluff, COMMODORE RODGERS AT. When Huger fled from Norfolk (see *Norfolk, Capture of*) the Confederate flotilla went up the James River, pursued by National gunboats under Commodore Rodgers, whose flag-ship was the *Galena*, the round-top of which was iron-clad, so as to make it a safe lookout. The pursuers met with no obstructions until they approached Drewry's Bluff, a bank on the right side of the James, nearly two hundred feet in height, about eight miles below Richmond. Below this point were two rows of obstructions in the river, formed by spiles and sunken vessels, and the shores were lined with rifle-pits filled with sharpshooters. The *Galena* anchored within six hundred yards of the battery, and opened fire upon it on the morning of May 15. A sharp fight was kept up until after eleven o'clock, when the ammunition of the *Galena* was nearly expended, and the flotilla withdrew. Rodgers lost in the attack twenty-seven men and a 100-pound rifled cannon, which burst on board the gunboat *Naugatuck*, disabling her. The Confederate loss in the battery was ten. Rodgers fell back to City Point.



AN ARMORED LOOKOUT.

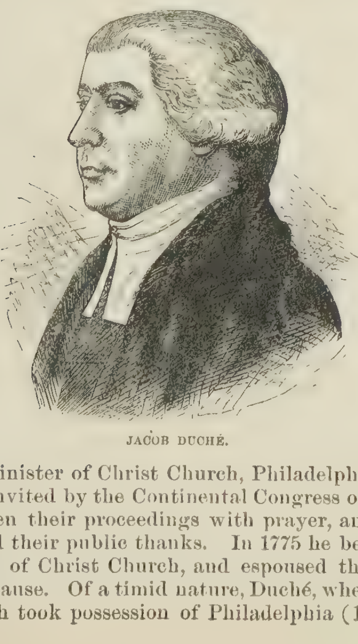
Drummond, SIR GEORGE GORDON, was born in Quebec in 1771; died in London, Oct. 10, 1854. He entered the British army in 1789; served in Holland and Egypt; and in 1811 was made lieutenant-general. In 1813 he was second in command to Sir George Prevost; planned the capture of Fort Niagara in December of that year; took the villages of Black Rock and Buffalo; captured Oswego in May, 1814; and was in chief command of the British forces at the battle of Lundy's Lane (which see) in July. In August he was repulsed at Fort Erie, with heavy loss, and was severely wounded. He succeeded Prevost in 1814, and returned to England in 1816.

The next year he received the grand cross of the Bath.

Duane, JAMES, was born in New York city, Feb. 6, 1733; died at Duanesburg, N. Y., Feb. 1, 1797. He inherited a large estate at the site of Duanesburg, which he began to settle in 1765. In 1759 he married a daughter of Colonel Robert Livingston. He became an active patriot in the Revolution; was a member of the First Continental Congress (1774); also in Congress from 1780 to 1782; was in the Provincial Convention of New York in 1776–77; and was on the committee to draft the first constitution of that state. He returned to New York city in 1783, after the evacuation, and was the first mayor of that city after the Revolution. In 1783–84 he was a member of the Council and State Senator, and in 1788 was a member of the convention of New York that adopted the National Constitution. From 1789 to 1794 Mr. Duane was United States District Judge.

Duane's Proposition. Late in May, 1775, James Duane, a delegate from New York in the Continental Congress, moved, in Committee of the Whole, the "opening of negotiations in order to accommodate the unhappy disputes subsisting between Great Britain and the colonies, and that this be made a part of the [second] petition to the king" prepared by John Jay. It was a dangerous proposal at that time, as it was calculated to cool the ardor of resistance which then animated the people. Duane was a stanch patriot, but was anxious for peace, if it could be procured with honor and for the good of his country.

Duché, JACOB, D.D., was born in Philadelphia in 1739; died there, Jan. 3, 1798. Educated at the University of Pennsylvania, he became an eloquent Episcopalian. A descendant of a Huguenot, he naturally loved freedom. Assistant minister of Christ Church, Philadelphia, he was invited by the Continental Congress of 1774 to open their proceedings with prayer, and received their public thanks. In 1775 he became rector of Christ Church, and espoused the patriot cause. Of a timid nature, Duché, when the British took possession of Philadelphia (1777), alarmed by the gloomy outlook, forsook the Americans, and, in a letter to Washington, urged him to do likewise. This letter was transmitted to Congress, and Duché fled to England, where he became a popular preacher. His estate was confiscated, and he was banished as a traitor. In 1790 Duché returned to Philadelphia, and his sins were forgiven him.



JACOB DUCHÉ.

Ducking-stool. The English colonies in America continued for a long time the manners and customs of their native land: among others, that of the use of the ducking-stool for the punishment of inveterate scolding women. Bishop Meade, in *Old Churches, Ministers, and Families in Virginia*, says, "If a woman was convicted of slander, her husband was made to pay five hundred-weight of tobacco;" but the law proving insufficient, the penalty was changed to ducking. Places for ducking were prepared at court-houses. An instance is mentioned of a woman who was ordered to be ducked three times from a vessel lying in the James River. The woman was tied to a chair at the longer end of a lever, controlled at the shorter end by men with a rope. The stool being planted firmly, the woman was raised on the lever, and then lowered so as to be plunged under the water.

Dudley, JOSEPH, Governor of Massachusetts, was born at Roxbury, July 23, 1647; died there, April 2, 1720. Graduated at Harvard in 1665. He prepared for the ministry, but, preferring politics, he became a representative in the General Court and a magistrate. From 1677 to 1681 he was one of the commissioners for the united colonies of New England. He was in the battle with the Narragansets in 1675, and was one of the commissioners who dictated the terms of a treaty with that tribe. In September, 1685, King James commissioned him President of New England, and in 1687 he was made chief-justice of the Supreme Court. Dudley was sent to England with Andros in 1689, and the next year was made chief-justice of New York. He went to England in 1693, and was deputy-governor of the Isle of Wight. He entered Parliament in 1701, and from 1702 to 1715 he was captain-general and governor of Massachusetts. Then he retired to his quiet home at Roxbury.

Dudley, THOMAS, Governor of Massachusetts in 1634, and also in 1640, 1645, and 1650. He was born in Northampton, England, in 1576; died at Roxbury, Mass., July 31, 1653. He was an officer of Queen Elizabeth, serving in Holland; and afterwards he became a Puritan, and retrieved the fortunes of the Earl of Lincoln by a faithful care of his estate as his steward. He came to Boston in 1630, as deputy-governor, with his son-in-law, Simon Bradstreet, and held the office ten years. He was appointed major-general of the colony in 1644.

Dudley's Defeat. (See *Fort Meigs and its Defence.*)

Duer, WILLIAM, was born in England, March 18, 1747; died May 7, 1799. In 1767 he was aid to Lord Clive in India. He came to America, and in 1768 he purchased a tract of land in Washington County, N. Y.; became colonel of the militia, judge of the county court, member of the New York Provincial Congress, and of the Committee of Safety. He was one of the committee that drafted the first constitution of the State of New York (1777), and was a delegate in Congress in 1777–78; and he was Secretary of the Treasury Board until the reorganization of the finance department under the National Constitution. He was Assistant Secretary of the Treasury under Hamilton until 1790. Colonel Duer married (1779) Catharine, daughter of Lord Stirling.

Dug Springs, BATTLE AT (1861). General Lyon was eighty miles from Springfield when he heard of the perils of Sigel after the fight at Carthage (which see). He pushed on to the relief of the latter, and on July 13 he and Sigel joined their forces, when the general took the chief command. The combined armies numbered, at that time, about six thousand men, horse and foot, with eighteen pieces of artillery. There Lyon remained in a defensive attitude for some time, waiting for reinforcements which had been called for, but which did not come. The Confederates had been largely reinforced; and at the close of July Lyon was informed that they were marching upon Springfield in two columns—twenty thousand—under the respective commands of Generals Price, McCulloch (of Texas), Pearce, McBride, and Rains. Lyon went out to meet them with about six thousand men, foot and horse, and eighteen cannons, leaving a small force to guard Springfield. At Dug Springs, nineteen miles southwest of Springfield, in a broken, oblong valley, they encountered a large Confederate force under General Rains. While the National vanguard of infantry and cavalry, under Steele and Stanley, were leading, they were unexpectedly attacked by Confederate infantry who suddenly emerged from the woods. A sudden charge of twenty-five of Stanley's horsemen scattered the Confederates in every direction. The charge was fearful, and the slaughter was dreadful. "Are these men or devils, they fight so?" asked some of the wounded. Confederate cavalry now appeared emerging from the woods, when some of Lyon's cannons, managed by Captain Totten, threw shells that frightened the horses, and the Confederates were scattered. They then withdrew, leaving the valley in possession of the Nationals. Lyon's loss was eight men killed and thirty wounded; that of Rains was about forty killed and as many wounded.

Duke of York's Patent. This grant, given by King Charles II. to his brother James, included all the country between the Hudson and Connecticut rivers, which was also covered by the charter of Connecticut, and in many places, especially near the Sound, was settled by the English Puritans. This grant produced alarm, and commissioners were appointed on both sides to consider the matter. (See *Duke's Charter.*)

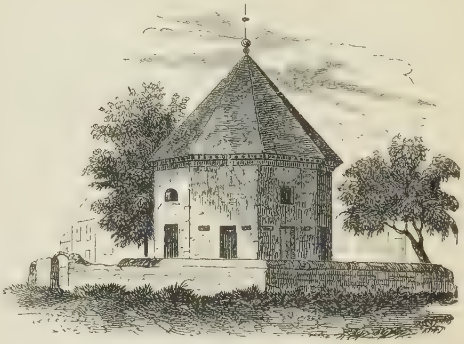
Duke's Charter, THE. On the 12th of March, 1664 (O. S.), King Charles II. granted to his brother James, Duke of York and Albany, under a patent bearing the royal seal, a territory in America which included all the lands and rivers from the west side of the Connecticut River to the east side of the Delaware River. Its inland boundary was a line from the head of the Connecticut River to the source of the Hudson, thence to the head of the Mohawk branch of the Hudson, and thence to the east of Delaware Bay. It also embraced Long Island and the adjacent islands, including Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket; also the "territory of Pemaquid," in Maine. This granted territory embraced all of New Netherland and a part of Connecticut, which had been affirmed to other English proprietors by the charter of 1662. (See *Winthrop.*) The duke (then Lord High Admiral of England) detached four ships from the royal navy, bearing four hundred and fifty regular troops, for the service of taking possession of his domain. Colonel Richard Nicolls commanded the expedition. Stuyvesant was compelled to surrender (see *Stuyvesant*), and the name of the territory was changed to New York. Very soon commissioners appointed by the governments of New York and Connecticut to confer about the boundary between the two colonies agreed, for the sake of peace and good-fellowship, that the territory of New York should not extend farther eastward than along a line twenty miles from the Hudson River, and that remains the boundary to this day. In 1673 the Dutch (partly through treachery, it is believed) again became possessors of New York, but the following year it was returned to England by treaty. It was decided that these political changes had cancelled the Duke of York's title to the domain, and a new one, with boundaries defined as in the first grant, was issued (June 29,1674), but the line agreed upon—twenty miles eastward of the Hudson—was fixed upon as the eastern limit of the Province of New York.

Duke's County. In the grant of New Netherland by Charles II. to his brother James, Duke of York (1664), Long Island, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, and the Elizabeth Islands (see *Gosnold*) were included, they having been purchased of Henry, grandson of William, Earl of Stirling, and previously assigned to the duke. In 1683, when the Province of New York was parcelled into counties, these islands off the coast of Massachusetts were constituted a shire by the name of Duke's County. By the authority of William and Mary this county was taken from New York and annexed to Massachusetts.

Duke's Laws, THE. In 1665, a meeting was held at Hempstead, L. I. (Feb. 28), at which thirty-four delegates assembled—two representatives of each of the English and Dutch towns on Long Island and two in Westchester. Some of them had been members of Stuyvesant's last General Assembly of New Netherland the previous year. (See *New Netherland.*) The meeting had been called by Governor Nicolls to "settle good and known laws" in their government for the future and receive their "best advice and information." The governor laid before the delegates a body of general laws, which had been chiefly compiled from statutes then in force in New England, with more toleration in matters of religion. The delegates were not satisfied with many of them, and several amendments were made; but when they asked to be allowed to choose their own magistrates, the governor exhibited instructions from the Duke of York, his master, wherein the choice of "officers of justice was solely to be made by the governor;" and he told them decidedly that if they would have a greater share in the government than he could give them, they must go to the king for it. The delegates found that they were not popular representatives to make laws, but were mere agents to accept those already prepared for them. They had merely exchanged the despotism of Stuyvesant for English despotism. (See *Stuyvesant.*) The New York code adopted by that meeting was arranged in alphabetical order of subjects and published, and is generally known as the Duke's Laws.

Dunlap, WILLIAM, was a painter, dramatist, theatrical manager, and historian. He was born at Perth Amboy, N. J., Feb. 19, 1766; died in New York city, Sept. 28, 1839. His father, being a loyalist, went to New York city in 1777, where William began to paint. He made a portrait of Washington at Rocky Hill, N. J., in 1783. The next year he went to England and received instructions from Benjamin West. He became an actor for a short time, and in 1796 was one of the managers of the John Street Theatre, New York. He took the Park Theatre in 1798. From 1814 to 1816 he was paymaster-general of the New York State militia. He began a series of paintings in 1816. In 1833 he published a *History of the American Theatres*, and in 1834 a *History of the Arts of Design.* His *History of New Netherland and the State of New York* was published in 1840. Mr. Dunlap was one of the founders of the National Academy of Design.

Dunmore and Patrick Henry. The bold movements in the Virginia Convention (March, 1775) excited the official wrath of Governor Dunmore, who stormed in proclamations; and to frighten the Virginians (or, probably, with a more mischievous intent), he caused a rumor to be circulated that he intended to excite an insurrection among the slaves. Finally, late in April, he caused marines to come secretly at night from the *Fowey*, a sloop-of-war in the York River, and carry to her the powder in the old magazine at Williamsburg. The movement was discovered. The minute-men assembled at dawn, and were with difficulty restrained from seizing the governor. The assembled people sent a respectful remonstrance to Dunmore, complaining of the act as specially cruel at that time, when a servile insurrection was apprehended. The governor replied evasively, and the people demanded the return of the powder. When Patrick Henry heard of the act, he gathered a corps of volunteers and marched towards the capital. The frightened governor sent a deputation to meet him. One of them was the receiver-general of the province. They met sixteen miles from Williamsburg, where the matter was compromised by the receiver-general paying the full value of the powder. Henry sent the money to the public treasury and returned home.



THE OLD MAGAZINE.

Dunmore captures a Printing-office. John Holt, a Whig, published a newspaper at Norfolk, Va., at the time when British vessels, with Governor Dunmore, appeared before that town. Dunmore, offended with Holt for "favoring sedition and rebellion," sent a small armed party ashore to seize the printing-office. They met with no resistance, and the press and other printing materials were carried on board the man-of-war *Fowey*, with two printers, and there used in publishing a gazette that favored the royal side.

Dunmore (John Murray), FOURTH EARL OF, Governor of Virginia (1771–75), was born in 1732; died at Ramsgate, Eng., May, 1809. He was a Scotch nobleman, descended in the feminine line from the house of Stuart. He was made governor of New York in January, 1770, and of Virginia July, 1771, arriving there early in 1772. When the Virginia Assembly recommended a committee of correspondence (March, 1773), he immediately dissolved them; and from that time until he fled for safety on board a ship-of-war in the York River (June 6, 1775), he was in continual collision with the people. He set fire to and destroyed Norfolk, Va., on the 1st of January, 1776, having been defeated in a battle at the Great Bridge (Dec. 9, 1775) ten days before. In an engagement in the Chesapeake (July 8) he was wounded, and soon afterwards returned to England. In 1786 Dunmore was made governor of Bermuda.

SEAL OF LORD DUNMORE.

Dunmore's Call, RESPONSE TO. (See *Dunmore's War.*) When Governor Dunmore called for the militia of the southwest to fight the Ohio Indians, the settlers in the region of the Greenbrier, New River, and Holston responded cheerfully. The Republicans of Watauga (which see), led by Evan Shelby, about fifty in number, with James Robertson and Valentine Sevier as subalterns, left home in August and joined the camp of the Virginians on the Great Levels of the Greenbrier, at (present) Lewisburg. Then these militiamen traversed the pathless mountains with their pack-horses and droves of cattle, and reached the mouth of the Kanawha on Oct. 6. (See *Point Pleasant Battle.*)

Dunmore's Conspiracy. John Murray, Earl of Dunmore, succeeded Lord Botetourt as governor of Virginia in 1771, but did not arrive there from his governorship of New York until the summer of 1772. He acted independently of the people, and soon there was a quarrel between them. In 1775, finding the people of his colony committed to the cause of freedom, he engaged in a conspiracy to bring the Indians in hostile array against the Virginia frontier. He employed Dr. John Connelly, whom he had commissioned in 1774 to lead in a movement for sustaining the claims of Virginia to the whole district of Pennsylvania west of the Alleghany Mountains. He was a native of Pennsylvania, and lived at Pittsburgh; and it is believed that he suggested to Dunmore the plan of combining the western Indians against the colonists. He visited General Gage at Boston early in the autumn of 1775, and immediately after his return to Williamsburg he left Dunmore and departed for the Ohio country, with two companions. They were stopped near Hagerstown as suspicious persons, sent back to Frederick, and there an examination of Connelly's papers revealed the whole nefarious plot. He bore Dunmore's commission of colonel, and was directed to raise a regiment in the western country and Canada, the rendezvous to be at Detroit, where hostilities against the white people might be more easily fomented among the Indians. Thence he was to march in the spring, enter Virginia with a motley force, and meet Dunmore at Alexandria, on the Potomac, who would be there with a military and naval force. The arrest of Connelly frustrated the design. He was put in jail and his papers were sent to the Continental Congress. He was kept a prisoner until about the end of the war.

Dunmore's War. A war with Ohio Indians in 1774 by Governor Dunmore, of Virginia, was so called. The cold-blooded murder of the family of Logan, an eminent Mingo chief, and other atrocities, had caused fearful retaliation on the part of the barbarians. While Pennsylvanians and the agents of the Six Nations were making efforts for peace, Governor Dunmore, bent on war, called for volunteers, and four hundred of these were gathered on the banks of the Ohio, a little below Wheeling. This force marched against and destroyed (Aug. 7, 1774) a Shawnoese town on the Muskingum. They were followed by Dunmore, with one thousand five hundred Virginians, who pressed forward against an Indian village on the Scioto, while Colonel Andrew Lewis, with one thousand two hundred men, encountered a force of Indians at Point Pleasant, at the mouth of the Great Kanawha River (Oct. 10), where a bloody battle ensued. The Indians were led by Logan, Cornstalk, and other braves. The Virginians were victorious, but lost seventy men killed and wounded. Dunmore was charged with inciting the Indian war and arranging the campaign so as to carry out his political plans. It was charged that he arranged the expedition so as to have the force under Lewis annihilated by the barbarians, and thereby weaken the physical strength and break down the spirits of the Virginians, for they were defying royal power. His efforts afterwards to incite a servile insurrection in Virginia for the same purpose show that he was capable of exercising almost any means to accomplish his ends. The Indians in the Ohio country, alarmed at the approach of Dunmore, had hastened to make peace. Logan refused to attend the conference for the purpose, but sent a speech which became famous in history. (See *Logan's Speech.*) Dunmore's officers in that expedition, having heard of the movements in New England, and of the Continental Congress, held a meeting at Fort Gower (mouth of the Hockhocking River), and after complimenting the governor and declaring their allegiance to the king, resolved to maintain the rights of the colonists by every means in their power.

Dunmore's War on the Virginians. In November, 1775, Lord Dunmore proceeded in the war-ship *Fowey* to Norfolk, where he proclaimed freedom to all slaves who should join the royal standard, which he had unfurled, and take up arms against the "rebels." He declared martial law throughout Virginia, and made Norfolk the rendezvous for a British fleet. He sent marauding parties on the shores of the Elizabeth and James rivers to distress the Whig inhabitants. Being repelled with spirit, he resolved to strike a severe blow that should produce terror. He began to lay waste the country around. The people were aroused and the militia were rapidly gathering for the defence of the people, when Dunmore, becoming alarmed, constructed batteries at Norfolk, armed the Tories and negroes, and fortified a passage over the Elizabeth River, known as the Great Bridge, a point where he expected the militiamen to march to attack him. Being repulsed in a battle there (Dec. 9, 1775), Dunmore abandoned his intrenchments at Norfolk and repaired to his ships, when, menaced by famine—for the people would not furnish supplies—and annoyed by shots from some of the houses, he cannonaded the town (Jan. 1, 1776) and sent sailors and marines ashore to set it on fire. The greater portion of the compact part of the city was burned while the cannonade was kept up. After committing other depredations on the Virginia coast, he landed on Gwyn's Island, in Chesapeake Bay, with five hundred men, black and white, cast up some intrenchments, and built a stockade fort. Virginia militia, under General Andrew Lewis, attacked and drove him from the island. Burning several of his vessels that were aground, Dunmore sailed away with the remainder, with a large amount of booty, among which were about one thousand slaves. After more plundering on the coast the vessels were dispersed, some to the West Indies, some to the Bermudas and St. Augustine, and Dunmore himself proceeded to join the naval force at New York, and soon afterwards went to England.

Duponceau, PETER STEPHEN, LL.D., philologist, was born in the Isle of Rhé, France, June 3, 1760; died in Philadelphia, April 2, 1844. He went to Paris in 1775, where he became acquainted with the Baron de Steuben, and accompanied him to America as his secretary. He was breveted a captain (February, 1778), and assisted Steuben in the preparation of his system of military tactics for the use of the United States troops. From 1781 to 1783 he was secretary to Robert R. Livingston, then at the head of the Foreign Office of the government; and then studying law, was admitted to practice in 1785, becoming eminent in the profession on questions of civil and international law. He finally devoted himself to literature and science, and made many valuable researches into the language and literature of the North American Indians. In 1819 he published a *Memoir on the Structure of the Indian Languages.* When seventy-eight years of age (1838) he published a *Dissertation on the Chinese Language;* also a translation of a *Description of New Sweden.* In 1835 the French Institute awarded him a prize for a disquisition on the Indian languages of North America. Mr. Duponceau opened a law academy in Philadelphia in 1821, and wrote several essays on the subject of law.

Dupont, SAMUEL FRANCIS, was born at Bergen Point, N. J., Sept. 27, 1803; died in Philadelphia, June 23, 1865. He entered the United States Navy as midshipman at twelve years of age, and became commander Oct. 28, 1842. He saw much active service on the California coast during the war with Mexico, clearing the Gulf of California of Mexican vessels. He was raised to captain in 1855; and in October, 1861, he proceeded, in command of the South Atlantic squadron, to capture Port Royal Island, on the South Carolina coast, to secure a central harbor and depot of supplies on the Southern shores. (See *Port Royal.*) In July Commodore Dupont was made a rear-admiral on the active list, and in April, 1863, he commanded the fleet which made an unsuccessful effort to capture Charleston. Admiral Dupont assisted in organizing the naval school at Annapolis, and was the author of a highly commended report on the use of floating batteries for coast defence.

SAMUEL FRANCIS DUPONT.

Duportail, LEBEGUE, chevalier, a French general, who came to America during the old war for independence, and was appointed brigadier-general in the Continental Army in November, 1777, and major-general November, 1781. He was directing-engineer at the siege of Yorktown, in the fall of 1781. Returning to France, he was named *maréchal-de-camp;* and in November, 1790, was made minister of war. In December, 1791, he resigned; and when engaged in military service in Lorraine, he received a warning of the designs of the Jacobins, and sought safety in America. He died at sea in 1802, when returning to France.

Duquesne, EXPEDITION AGAINST (1758). The expedition against Fort Duquesne was commanded by General John Forbes, who had about nine thousand men at his disposal at Fort Cumberland and Raystown. These included Virginia troops under Colonel Washington, the Royal Americans from South Carolina, and an auxiliary force of Cherokee Indians. Sickness and perversity of will and judgment on the part of Forbes caused delays almost fatal to the expedition. He was induced, by the advice of some Pennsylvania land speculators, to use the army in constructing a military road farther north than the one made by Braddock. Washington, who knew the country well, strongly advised against this measure, but he was unheeded, and so slow was the progress of the troops towards their destination, that in September, when it was known there were not more than eight hundred men at Duquesne, Forbes, with six thousand troops, was yet east of the Alleghany Mountains. Major Grant, with a scouting-party of Colonel Bouquet's advance corps, was attacked (Sept. 21), defeated, and made a prisoner. Still Forbes went creeping on, wasting precious time, and exhausting the patience and respect of Washington and other energetic officers; and when Bouquet joined the army it was fifty miles from Fort Duquesne. The winter was approaching, the troops were discontented, and a council of war was called, to which Forbes intended to propose an abandonment of the enterprise, when three prisoners gave information of the extreme weakness of the French garrison. Washington was immediately sent forward, and the whole army prepared to follow. When the Virginians were within a day's march of the fort, they were discovered by some Indians, who so alarmed the garrison by an exaggerated account of the number of the approaching troops that the guardians of Fort Duquesne, reduced to five hundred, set it on fire (Nov. 24), and fled down the Ohio in boats with such haste and confusion that they left everything behind them. The Virginians took possession the next day, and the name of the fortress was changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of the great English statesman.

Duquesne, Fort. While Captain Trent and his company were building a fort on the site of Pittsburgh, Captain Contrecœur, with one thousand Frenchmen and eighteen cannons, went down the Alleghany River in sixty bateaux and three hundred canoes, took possession of the unfinished fortification, and named it Fort Duquesne, in compliment to the captain-general of Canada. Lieutenant-colonel Washington, with a small force, hurried from Cumberland to recapture it, but was made a prisoner, with about four hundred men, at Fort Necessity. (See *Dinwiddie.*) In 1755 an expedition for the recapture of Fort Duquesne, commanded by General Edward Braddock, marched from Will's Creek (Cumberland) on June 10th, about two thousand strong, British and Provincials. On the banks of the Monongahela Braddock was defeated and killed on July 9, and the expedition was ruined. In 1758 another expedition, commanded by General John Forbes, moved against Fort Duquesne. In July six thousand troops were gathered at Will's Creek (Cumberland). Washington was there, at the head of two thousand Virginians. It was known that the garrison of Fort Duquesne was weak, and the fort might easily be taken; but the sick and dilatory Forbes crept slowly over the mountains until the autumn. Washington was impatient and indignant. At length, when Forbes was, with the main body of his troops, fifty miles from Fort Duquesne, it was Nov. 8, and at a council of war it was determined to abandon the enterprise. Just then three prisoners gave information of the extreme weakness of the garrison. Washington was immediately sent forward, and the whole army prepared to follow. When the Virginians were within a day's march of the fort, they were discovered by Indian scouts. Their fears greatly magnified the number of the provincials. The French, terrified, set fire to the fort that night (Nov. 24, 1758), and fled down the Ohio in boats by the light of the conflagration. The ruins were entered the next day, and over the charred remains the British standard was unfurled. In honor of the great English statesman, William Pitt, then conducting government affairs with a master's wisdom, it was called Fort Pitt. The little village that soon grew around it was called Pittsburgh.

Durand, Asher Brown, painter and engraver, was born at Jefferson, N. J., Aug. 21, 1796. His paternal ancestors were Huguenots. His father was a watch-maker, and in his shop he learned engraving. In 1812 he became an apprentice to Peter Maverick, an engraver on copper-plate, and became his partner in 1817. Mr. Durand's first large work was his engraving on copper of Trumbull's "Declaration of Independence." He was engaged upon it a year, and it gave him a great reputation. His engravings of "Musidora" and "Ariadne" (the latter from Vanderlyn's painting) place him among the first line-engravers of his time. In 1835 he abandoned that art for painting, and became one of the best of American landscape painters. His pictures are always well selected as subjects, pleasing in tone, and exquisite in coloring. Mr. Durand was one of the first officers of the National Academy of Design (see *Art, Introduction of*); and he and General T. S. Cummings, its first treasurer, have been, since the death of Professor Morse, in 1871, the only survivors of the founders and first officers of that institution.

Dustin, Hannah, Bravery of. When, in the spring of 1697, the French and Indians devastated the New England frontier settlements, Haverhill, within thirty miles of Boston, suffered severely, forty of its inhabitants being killed or carried into captivity. Among the latter were a part of the family of Thomas Dustin, who was in the field when the savages first appeared. Mounting his horse, he hastened to his house to bear away his wife, eight children, and nurse to a place of safety. His youngest child was only a week old. He ordered his other children to fly. While he was lifting his wife and her babe from the bed the Indians attacked his house. "Leave me," cried the mother, "and fly to the protection of the other children." Remounting his horse, he soon overtook the precious flock, and placing himself between them and the pursuing Indians, he defended them so valiantly with his gun that he pressed back the foe. Meanwhile the savages had entered the house, ordered the feeble mother to rise and follow them, killed the infant, and set fire to the dwelling. Half dressed, she was compelled to go with her captors through melting snow in their hasty retreat, accompanied by her nurse. They walked twelve miles the first day without shoes, and were compelled to lie on the wet ground at night, with no covering but the cold gray sky. This was repeated day after day, until they reached an island in the Merrimac six miles above Concord, N. H., the home of the leader of the savages, who claimed Mrs. Dustin and her nurse as his captives. They were lodged with his family, which consisted of two men, three women, seven children, and a captive English boy, who had been with them more than a year. They were told that they would soon start for an Indian village where they would be compelled to "run the gantlet;" that is, be stripped naked, and run for their lives between two files of Indian men, women, and children, who would have the privilege of scoffing at them, beating them, and wounding them with hatchets. The two women resolved not to endure the indignity. Mrs. Dustin planned a means of escape, and leagued the nurse and the English boy with her in the execution of it. Believing in the faithfulness of the lad and the timidity of the women, the Indians did not keep watch at night. Through inquiries made by the lad, Mrs. Dustin learned how to kill a man instantly, and to take off his scalp. Before daylight one morning, when the whole family were asleep, Mrs.

Dustin and her colleagues instantly killed ten of the slumberers, she killing her captor, and the boy despatching the man who told him how to do it. A squaw and a child fled to the woods and escaped. After scuttling all the boats but one, they fled in it down the river, with provisions from the wigwam. Mrs. Dustin remembered they had not scalped the victors, so, returning, they scalped the slain savages, and bore their trophies away in a bag, as evidence of the truth of the story they might relate to their friends. At Haverhill they were received as persons risen from the dead. Mrs. Dustin found her husband and children safe. Soon afterwards she bore to the governor, at Boston, the gun, tomahawk, and ten scalps, and the General Court gave these two women $250 each, as a reward for their heroism. They received other tokens of regard. The island where the scene occurred is called Dustin's Island. On its highest point citizens of Massachusetts and New Hampshire erected a commemorative monument in 1874. On it are inscribed the names of Hannah Dustin, Mary Neff, and Samuel Leonardson, the latter the English lad.

Dutch and German Branch of the Washington Family. The same political causes which impelled the grandfather of Washington and his brother to emigrate to America in Cromwell's time induced their brother James to go to Holland. He settled in Rotterdam, where, in 1650, he married Clara Van der Lanen, daughter of the burgomaster. From them have descended a long line, some of them belonging to noble families—some Roman Catholics, some Protestants. A genealogical register of this branch of the family, from 1650 to 1861, is in the archives of the New York Historical Society, part of it in Dutch and part in the German language. A copy of it was printed in the number of *The Magazine of American History* for February, 1879. The latest recorded births are as follows: "1856—2 Aug. Born, George Baron of Washington. 1858—June. Born, Stephen Baron Van Washington." On Aug. 15, 1855, was recorded the marriage of "Maximilian Baron Van Washington to Frederica, Duchess of Oldenburg."

Dutch and Indian Plot. Uncas, the Mohegan sachem, always bent on mischief, spread a report, in the spring of 1653, that Ninegret, a Niantic sachem, uncle of Miantonomo, had visited New Amsterdam during the preceding winter, and had arranged with the Dutch governor (Stuyvesant) a plot for a general insurrection of the natives and the murder of the New England settlers. The story caused such alarm (England had just declared war against Holland) that the commissioners of the New England Confederacy (which see) assembled in special session at Boston in May. They sent messengers to Ninegret and Pessacus to inquire into the matter, and envoys and a letter to Governor Stuyvesant. They also ordered five hundred men to be raised, to be ready in case "God called the colonists to war." The sachems totally denied any knowledge of such a plot, and Stuyvesant indignantly repelled even a suspicion, and sent back a declaration of the grievances of the Dutch. These denials were rebutted by the testimony of English and Indian malcontents in New Amsterdam. On the report of the envoys, the commissioners at Boston determined on war; but the General Court of Massachusetts desired the opinions of the clergy. The latter thought they saw plain evidence of "an execrable plot tending to the destruction of many dear saints of God," but were opposed to going to war. Other ministers urged war, and so did a majority of the commissioners, but the General Court denied the power to make "offensive war" without unanimous consent. Meanwhile Connecticut and New Haven, bent on war, united in a solicitation to Cromwell to fit out an expedition to conquer New Netherland, and the towns of Stamford and Fairfield, on the Dutch frontier, attempted to raise volunteers to make war against the Dutch on their own account. At another meeting (September, 1653) the commissioners, believing they were "called by God to make present war on Ninegret," ordered two hundred and fifty men to be raised for that purpose. The Massachusetts court again interfered, and prevented war. Cromwell, however, sent three ships and a few troops to attack New Netherland, but before they reached America the war with Holland was over, and the expedition, under John Leverett and Robert Sedgwick, proceeded to capture Acadia from La Tour, who laid claim to it because of a grant made to his father by Sir William Alexander. (See *Alexander;* also, *La Tour's Expedition.*)

Dutch Authority at Manhattan defied. While the absurd Walter Van Twiller was governor of New Netherland, Jacob Eelkins, the Dutch West India Company's former commandant at Fort Orange, entered the mouth of the Hudson in an English vessel (April 18, 1633), and avowed his determination to ascend the river and trade with the Indians. He was in the English service, and claimed that the country belonged to the English, because it had been discovered by a subject of England, Hudson. Van Twiller ordered the Orange flag to be raised over Fort Amsterdam as the best defiance of the intruder. Eelkins as promptly ran up the English flag above his vessel (the *William*), weighed anchor, and sailed up the river. This audacity enraged Van Twiller. He gathered the people, opened a barrel of wine, drank glassful after glassful, and cried, "You who love the Prince of Orange and me do this, and assist me in repelling the insult committed by that Englishman." Having thus unburdened his soul, the governor retired within the fort. Later in the day the energetic De Vries (which see) dined with the governor, and reproved him for his show of impotence. After a few days of hesitation, some small craft with some soldiers were sent after Eelkins, and after the lapse of about a month the *William* was expelled from the harbor.

Dutch Colonists in South Carolina. After the conquest of New Netherland by the English, many of the Dutch colonists emigrated to South Carolina, where they were not only offered lands by the proprietors, but two ships were sent to transport them thither. The surveyor of the colony marked out lands for them on the south side of the Ashley River. They drew lots for a division, and founded a town, which they called James Town.

Dutch Element in New York Society. The Dutch-Americans formed the basis of the population of New York, and were almost to a man in favor of liberty in America, and they formed the bulwark of that liberty in the colony when it was threatened. The supporters of the crown were mostly of British descent, and a large proportion of the members of the Church of England in America were loyalists. The middling classes, too, were generally patriotic, and the mechanics in the city of New York were, almost to a man, enthusiastic advocates of decisive measures against the pretensions of Parliament.

Dutch Gap Canal. There is a sharp bend in the James River between the Appomattox and Richmond, where the stream, after flowing several miles, approaches itself within five hundred yards. To flank Confederate works and to shorten the passage of the river six or seven miles, General Butler set a large force of colored troops at work, in the summer of 1864, in cutting a canal for the passage of vessels across this peninsula. This canal was completed, with the exception of blowing out the bulkhead, at the close of December, 1864. It was five hundred yards in length, sixty feet in width at top, and sixty-five below the surface of the bluff. It was excavated fifteen feet below high-water mark. On New-year's Day, 1865, a mine of twelve thousand pounds of gunpowder was exploded under the bulkhead, and the water rushed through, but not in sufficient depth for practical purposes, for the mass of the bulkhead (left to keep out the water) fell back into the opening after the explosion. The canal was now swept by Confederate cannons, and could not be dredged. As a military operation, it was a failure. It was excavated in one hundred and forty days, and has since been made navigable.

Dutch, THE, AT NEW PLYMOUTH. In the spring of 1627 the colony at New Plymouth was officially informed that the Dutch had planted settlements at Manhattan and elsewhere. Governor Bradford wrote a friendly letter to Governor Minuits, but warned him not to traffic with the Indians north of latitude 40°, as the country belonged to the English. Minuits appointed a commission to visit Plymouth to confer upon subjects of mutual interest. Rasieres, Secretary of New Netherland, was at the head of the commission. They landed at one of the outposts of the Plymouth colony, and, with the blare of trumpets, announced their approach. With the same noise, the Dutch entered the village, where they were hospitably entertained several days at Governor Bradford's table. They also attended public worship with the Pilgrims on the Sabbath. Nothing decisive was done. The Dutch, with an eye to self-interest, advised the Pilgrims to leave their sterile seat and make their home in the beautiful and fertile Valley of the Connecticut, under the jurisdiction of New Netherland. They would not consent to become subjects of the Dutch.

Dutch, THE, IN CONNECTICUT. Governor Stuyvesant steadily asserted the jurisdiction of the Dutch over the country to Narraganset Bay, until a settlement was made in 1650. In 1647 he heard that a Dutch ship was at New Haven, taking in a cargo without a permit from the government at Manhattan. It happened at about that time that the deputy-governor of the New Haven colony had purchased the ship *Zwol* from the Dutch, to be delivered at that settlement. Stuyvesant took advantage of this opportunity to assert, in a forcible manner, the right of Dutch jurisdiction in Connecticut. The Dutch vessel at New Haven (the *St. Benino*) was regarded as a smuggler; and when the *Zwol* sailed for that port she bore, under her hatches, a company of soldiers, led by Captain Van der Geist, to seize the offending vessel and take her to New Amsterdam. Suddenly, on Sunday morning, Van der Geist, with his soldiers, boarded the *St. Benino*, made prisoners of all on board, and sailed for New Amsterdam. Governor Eaton, ruler of the New Haven colony, sent an angry protest to the Dutch governor because of this high-handed act. "We have protested, and by these presents do protest, against you, Peter Stuyvesant, Governor of the Dutch at Manhattan," wrote Eaton, "for disturbing the peace between the English and Dutch in these parts;" and he specified the particular acts of which he complained. Stuyvesant paid no heed to this protest, but confiscated the ship and cargo, and extended his claims to territory in New England. A hot correspondence ensued, Eaton complaining that Stuyvesant wrote to him in Low Dutch, of which he understood but little, and could not get an interpretation from Stuyvesant's messenger. At length Stuyvesant refused to hold any further correspondence with Eaton on that subject, but did on another in an offensive way. Three servants of the Dutch governor escaped to the New Haven colony. Stuyvesant demanded of Eaton their return, addressing his letter to the English governor at "New Haven in the Netherlands." Eaton refused, and Stuyvesant retaliated by issuing a proclamation that any servant fleeing from New Haven to Manhattan should be free on his arrival. His servants, assured of pardon, returned to Manhattan and their master.

Dutch West India Company. The Dutch East India Company was a great monopoly, the profits of the trade of which were enormous. Their ships whitened the Indian seas, and in one year the shareholders received in dividends the amount of three fourths of their invested capital. It was believed that trade with the Western Continent might be made equally profitable, and so early as 1607 William Usselinx suggested a similar association to trade in the West Indies. The States-General of Holland were asked to incorporate such an association. The government, then engaged in negotiations for a truce with Spain, refused;

but when that truce expired, in 1621, a charter was granted to a company of merchants, which gave the association almost regal powers to "colonize, govern, and protect" New Netherland for the term of twenty-four years. (See *New Netherland.*) It was ordained that during that time none of the inhabitants of the United Provinces (the Dutch Republic) should be permitted to sail thence to the coasts of Africa between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope; nor to the coasts of America or the West Indies between Newfoundland and the Strait of Magellan, except with the permission of the company. It was vested with sovereign powers, to be exercised in the name of the States-General, and to report to that body, from time to time, all their transactions. The government of the company was vested in five separate chambers of managers, the principal one at Amsterdam, and the other four in as many separate cities. General executive powers were intrusted to a board of nineteen delegates, called the "College of Nineteen," in which one delegate represented the States-General, by whom the company were guaranteed protection, and received assistance to the amount of one million guilders ($380,000). The company was organized on the 21st of June, 1623; and with such a charter, such powers, and such privileges, they began the settlement and development of New Netherland. The English claimed the domain, and the Dutch hastened to acquire eminent domain, according to the policy of England, by planting permanent settlements there; and the same year (1623) they sent over thirty families, chiefly Walloons, to Manhattan. (See *Walloons.*) The management of New Netherland was intrusted to the Amsterdam chamber. Their traffic was successful. In 1624 the exports from Amsterdam, in two ships, were worth almost $10,000, and the returns from New Netherland were considerably more. The company established a trading-post, called Fort Orange, on the site of Albany, and traffic was extended eastward to the Connecticut River, and even to Narraganset Bay; northward to the Mohawk Valley, and southward and westward to the Delaware River and beyond. To induce private capitalists to engage in the settlement of the country, the company gave lands and special privileges to such as would guarantee settlement and cultivation. (See *Patroons.*) These became troublesome landholders, and in 1638 the rights of the company, it was claimed, were interfered with by a settlement of Swedes on the Delaware. (See *New Sweden.*) In 1640 the company established the doctrines and rituals of the "Reformed Church in the United Provinces" as the only theological formula to be allowed in public worship in New Netherland. The spirit of popular freedom which the Dutch brought with them from Holland asserted its rights under the tyranny of Kieft, and a sort of popular assembly was organized at New Amsterdam. (See *Kieft.*) Its affairs in New Netherland were necessarily under the direct management of a director-general or governor, whose powers, as in the case of Kieft and Stuyvesant, were sometimes so arbitrarily exercised that much popular discontent was manifested, and their dealings with their neighbors were not always satisfactory to the company and the States-General; yet, on the whole, when we consider the spirit of the age, the colony, which, before it was taken possession of by the English in 1664, was of a mixed population, was managed wisely and well; and the Dutch West India Company was one of the most important instruments in planting the good seed from which our nation has sprung.

Dutch West India Company, GOVERNMENT OF THE. The government was vested in five separate chambers of managers—one at Amsterdam, managing four ninth parts; one at Middelburg, in Zealand, two ninth parts; one at Dordrecht, on the Maese, one ninth part; one in North Holland, one ninth part; and one in Friesland and Groningen, one ninth part. Executive powers for all purposes, except that in case of a declaration of war the approbation of the States-General was to be asked, were intrusted to a board of nineteen delegates, called the "College of Nineteen," eight of whom came from the chamber at Amsterdam, four from Zealand, two from the Maese, two from North Holland, and two from Friesland and Groningen; while one delegate was to represent the States-General. (See *Dutch West India Company.*)

Duty on Negroes. A duty of £4 was laid, in 1703, upon every negro imported into the colony of Massachusetts.

Duyckinck, EVART AUGUSTUS, was born in New York city, Nov. 23, 1816; died there, Aug. 13, 1878. He graduated at Columbia College in 1835. His father was a successful publisher, and Evart early showed a love for books and a taste for literary pursuits. In December, 1840, he commenced the publication of *Arcturus; a Journal of Books and Opinions*, in connection with Cornelius Matthews, which was continued about a year and a half. He contributed to the early numbers of the *New York Review*. In 1847, in connection with his brother George, he commenced the *Literary World*, a periodical which continued (with an interval of a year and five months) until the close of 1853. In 1856 the brothers completed the *Cyclopædia of American Literature*, in two volumes, a work of great research and value. To this Evart added a supplement in 1865. His other important works are, *Wit and Wisdom of Sidney Smith; National Portrait-gallery of Eminent Americans; History of the War for the Union; History of the World from the Earliest Period to the Present Time;* and *Portrait-gallery of Eminent Men and Women of Europe and America* (two volumes). Mr. Duyckinck's latest important literary labor was in the preparation, in connection with the late Mr. Bryant, of a new and thoroughly annotated edition of Shakespeare's writings, yet (1880) unpublished. His brother, GEORGE LONG, was born in New York city, Oct. 17, 1823; died there, March 30, 1863. He graduated at the University of the City of New York in 1843. Besides his assistance in the conduct of the *Literary World* and the preparation of the *Cyclopædia of American Literature*, he published biographies of George Herbert (1858), Bishop Thomas Ken (1859), Jeremy Taylor (1860), and Bishop Latimer (1861).

Dwight, THEODORE, was born at Northampton, Mass., Dec. 16, 1764; died in New York city, Jan. 11, 1846. He was a grandson of the eminent theologian Jonathan Edwards. He became eminent as a lawyer and political writer; was for many years in the Senate of Connecticut; and in 1806–7 was in Congress, where he became a prominent advocate for the suppression of the slave-trade. During the War of 1812–15 he edited the *Mirror*, at Hartford, the leading Federal newspaper in Connecticut; and was secretary of the Hartford Convention (which see) in 1814, the proceedings of which he published in 1833. He published the *Albany Daily Advertiser* in 1815, and was the founder, in 1817, of the *New York Daily Advertiser*, with which he was connected until the great fire in 1835, when he retired, with his family, to Hartford. Mr. Dwight was one of the founders of the American Bible Society. He was one of the writers of the poetical essays of the "Echo" in the *Hartford Mercury*. (See *Alsop*.) He was also the author of a *Dictionary of Roots and Derivations*. President Dwight, of Yale College, was his brother.

Dwight, TIMOTHY, D.D., LL.D., was born at Northampton, Mass., May 14, 1752; died in New Haven, Conn., Jan. 11, 1817. He graduated at Yale College in 1769, and was a tutor there from 1771 to 1777, when he became an army chaplain, and served until October, 1778. During that time he wrote many popular patriotic songs. He labored on a farm for a few years, preaching occasionally, and in 1781 and 1786 was a member of the Connecticut Legislature. In 1783 he was a settled minister at Greenfield and principal of an academy there; and from 1795 until his death he was President of Yale College. In 1796 he began travelling in the New England States and in New York during his college vacations, and in 1821 he published his *Travels in New England and New York*, in four volumes. Dr. Dwight wrote some excellent poetry, revised Watts's version of the Psalms, and published many occasional sermons.

Dyer, ELIPHALET, LL.D., was born at Windham, Conn., Sept. 28, 1721; died there, May 13, 1807. He graduated at Yale College in 1740; became a lawyer; and was a member of the Connecticut Legislature from 1745 to 1762. He commanded a regiment in the French and Indian War; was made a member of the Council in 1762; and, as an active member of the Susquehanna Company (which see), went to England as its agent in 1763. Mr. Dyer was a member of the Stamp Act Congress (which see) in 1765, and was a member of the First Continental Congress in 1774. He remained in that body during the entire war excepting in 1779. He was Judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut in 1766, and was chief-justice from 1789 to 1793. Colonel Dyer is alluded to in the famous doggerel poem entitled *Lawyers and Bullfrogs*, the introduction to which avers that at Old Windam, in Connecticut, after a long drought, a frog-pond became almost dry, and a terrible battle was fought one night by the frogs to decide which should keep possession of the remaining water. Many "thousands were defunct in the morning." There was an uncommon silence for hours before the battle commenced, when, as if by a preconcerted agreement, every frog on one side of the ditch raised the war-cry *Colonel Dyer! Colonel Dyer!* and at the same instant, from the opposite side, resounded the adverse shout of *Elderkin too! Elderkin too!* Owing to some peculiarity in the state of the atmosphere, the sounds seemed to be overhead, and the people of Windham were greatly frightened. The poet says:

> "This terrible night the parson did fright
> His people almost in despair;
> For poor Windham souls among the bean-poles
> He made a most wonderful prayer.
> Lawyer Lucifer called up his crew;
> Dyer and Elderkin, you must come, too:
> Old Colonel Dyer you know well enough,
> He had an old negro, his name was Cuff."

Dyer, MARY, one of the early Quaker martyrs in Massachusetts. She was the wife of a leading citizen of Rhode Island. Having embraced the doctrines and discipline of the sect called Friends, or Quakers (which see), she became an enthusiast, and went to Boston, whence some of her sect had been banished, to give her "testimony to the truth." In that colony the death penalty menaced those who should return after banishment. Mary was sent away and returned, and was released while going to the gallows with Marmaduke Stevenson with a rope around her neck. She unwillingly returned to her family in Rhode Island; but her zeal led her to Boston again for the purpose of offering up her life to the cause she advocated, and she was hanged. Mary had once been whipped on her bare back through the streets of Boston, tied behind a cart.

E.

Earle, PLINY, an American inventor, was born at Leicester, Mass., Dec. 17, 1762; died there, Nov. 19, 1832. He became connected with Edward Snow in 1785 in the manufacture of machine and hand cards for carding wool and cotton. Mr. Earle had first made them by hand, but afterwards by a machine of his own invention. Oliver Evans (which see) had already invented a machine for making card-teeth, which produced three hundred a minute. In 1784 Mr. Crittenden, of New Haven, Conn., invented a machine which produced eighty-six thousand card-teeth, cut and bent, in an hour. These card-teeth were put up in bags and distributed among families, in which the women and children stuck them in the leather. Leicester was the chief seat of this industry, and to that place Samuel Slater (which see), of Rhode Island, went for card clothing for the machines in his cotton-mill. Hearing that Pliny Earle was an expert card-maker, he went to him and told him what he wanted. Mr. Earl invented a machine for pricking the holes in the leather—a tedious process by hand—and it worked admirably. A few years afterwards Eleazer Smith (see *Whittemore, Amos*) made a great improvement by inventing a machine that not only pricked the holes, but set the teeth more expertly than human fingers could do. About 1843 William B. Earle, son of Pliny, improved Smith's invention, and the machine thus produced for making card clothing is now (1876) the best ever made, and is in exclusive use by T. K. Earle & Co., Worcester, Mass. By Mr. Earle's first invention the labor of a man for fifteen hours could be performed in fifteen minutes. Mr. Earle possessed extensive attainments in science and literature.

Early French Discoveries on the American Coast. In 1506 John Denys, of Honfleur, explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Two years later Thomas Aubert, a pilot of Dieppe, visited, it is believed, the island of Cape Breton, and gave it its name. He carried some of the natives with him to France. In 1518 the Baron de Leri, preparatory to the settlement of a colony on Sable Island, left some cattle there, whose progeny, fourscore years afterwards, gave food to unfortunate persons left on the island by the Marquis de la Roche (which see).

Early Jesuit Missions in Virginia. Menendez, who desolated the Huguenot settlement in Florida (see *Huguenots in America*), believing Chesapeake Bay to be an open passage to the Pacific Ocean, and wishing to have that gate guarded by the faithful of his church, sent a vessel carrying soldiers in 1556, with a number of Jesuit priests, to establish a post somewhere on its shores, or on one of its tributary rivers. This party was guided by an Indian convert, brother of the sachem of Axacan, as a particular portion of Virginia was called, whence he had been taken some years before to Mexico. The expedition was unsuccessful, but Menendez urged his project, and in 1570, the Indian convert, being in Spain, was sent, under the direction of the general of the order of Jesuits, with a priest and two *religiéux*, to plant a mission station near the Chesapeake. At Port Royal they were joined by the head of the Jesuit mission in Florida, another priest, and four Indian boys, novices from the mission-school in Havana. This party landed on the shores of the Potomac in September, 1570, and were left there in the wilderness with a few stores. They travelled across the country to the Rappahannock, and near its banks they constructed a log-cabin as a shelter and chapel, which they called the "Chapel of the Mother of God at Axacan." There they suffered in the ensuing winter, and were chiefly dependent upon the converted Indian for a time. He soon forgot that he was a Christian, and became the most dangerous enemy of the missionaries. The expostulations and the threats of the Jesuit priest sent to him were of no avail. The priest, and two Indian boys who went with him, were killed. Their companions left behind waited anxiously in the chapel for their return. On the fourth day of their vigils the Indian convert, dressed in the cassock of the murdered priest, and followed by painted savages, surrounded the chapel and slaughtered all the inmates but one of the Indian boys. The next spring Menendez sailed up the Potomac in a small vessel to punish the murderers. He captured a number of the Indians, and eight of them whom the saved boy pointed out as of the party of murderers were instantly hanged by Menendez to the yard-arm.

Early, JUBAL A., was born in Virginia about 1818, and graduated at West Point in 1837. He served in the Florida War, left the army in 1838 to study law, and became state attorney in 1843. He served as major in a Virginia regiment in the war with Mexico, and from 1848 to 1852 was again state attorney. He entered the Confederate service as colonel in 1861, commanded a brigade in the battle of Bull's Run, and a division at Gettysburg. He was active in the Shenandoah Valley in 1864.

JUBAL A. EARLY.

Early Martyrs in Virginia. (See *Berkeley, Sir William.*)

Early Military Operations in Missouri (1861). General Nathaniel Lyon, in command of the Department of Missouri, moved against Governor Jackson so soon as the latter had raised the standard of revolt at Jefferson City. He sent (July 12, 1861) a regiment of Missouri volunteers, under Colonel Franz Sigel, to occupy and protect the Pacific Railway from St. Louis to the Gasconade River, preparatory to a movement southward to oppose an invasion of Ben McCulloch, a Texan ranger, who had crossed the Arkansas frontier with about eight hundred men, and was marching on Springfield. Lyon left St. Louis (June 13) with two thousand men, on two steamboats, for Jefferson City, to drive Jackson and Price out of it. The Missouri troops were commanded by Colonels Blair and Boernstein, the regulars by Captain Lathrop, and the artillery by Captain J. Totten. The insurgents fled westward to a point near Booneville.

Leaving Boernstein to hold the capital, Lyon followed (June 16). He overtook the fugitives not far from Booneville. Lyon landed his men and attacked the camp of the insurgents, commanded by Colonel Marmaduke, of the state forces. Some of his troops had made a citadel of a brick house. The camp was on an eminence. Lyon ascended this, and opened a battle by firing into the midst of the insurgents. A sharp fight ensued. Two of Lyon's shells entered the brick house and drove out the inmates. Finally the insurgents fled. They lost a battery, twenty prisoners, several horses, and a considerable amount of military stores. Leaving a company to hold the deserted camp of the insurgents, Lyon pushed on to Booneville. The fugitives scattered, some going westward and some southward. With the latter went Governor Jackson. At Warsaw, on the Osage, he was joined (June 20) by four hundred men under Colonel O'Kane, who had just captured and dispersed about the same number of the loyal Missouri Home Guards. The governor and his followers continued their flight to the extreme southwestern corner of Missouri, where he was joined by General Price, when the whole insurgent force amounted to full three thousand men. At the same time, General J. G. Rains, a graduate of West Point, was hurrying forward to join Jackson with a considerable force of insurgents, closely pursued by Major Sturgis with a body of Kansas volunteers. Jackson was now satisfied that the whole of northern Missouri was lost to the cause of secession, and he endeavored to concentrate all the armed disloyal citizens, with McCulloch's men, in the southwestern part of the commonwealth, preparatory to "the speedy deliverance of the state from Federal rule." Assured by the aspect of affairs, and conciliatory and assuring proclamations from both General Lyon and Colonel Boernstein, the people became quieted, and the loyal state convention was called to assemble at Jefferson City on July 22, 1861. General Lyon remained at Booneville about a fortnight, preparing for a vigorous campaign against the insurgents in the southwest. He then held military control over the whole region northward of the Missouri River, and on July 1 there were at least ten thousand loyal troops in Missouri, and ten thousand more might have been there within forty-eight hours from camps in neighboring states. Sigel was pushing forward towards the borders of Kansas and Arkansas to open the campaign.

Early New England Laws. The magistrates and ministers, in the early days of the New England colonies, undertook to regulate by law the morals and manners of the people, and made statutes which to-day appear absurd, but were then regarded as essential to the well-being of society. The Puritans were not only rigid moralists, but inflexible bigots and absurd egotists. They must be judged by the age and the circumstances in which they lived. (See *Puritans*.) Among many excellent laws were scattered some of equivocal utility, like the following: They doomed to banishment, and, in case of return, to death, Jesuits, Romish priests, and Quakers. All persons were forbidden to run, or even to walk, "except reverently to and from church," on Sunday, or to profane the day by sweeping their houses, cooking their food, or shaving their beards. Mothers were commanded not to kiss their children on that holy day. Burglars and robbers suffered the extra punishment of having an ear cut off if their crime was committed on Sunday. Blasphemy and idolatry were punishable by death; so also were witchcraft and perjury directed against human life. All gaming was prohibited. The importation of cards and dice was forbidden. Assemblies for dancing were proscribed. A Massachusetts law, passed in 1646, made kissing a woman in the street, even in the way of honest salutation, punishable by flogging. No one was allowed to keep a tavern unless possessed of a good character and competent estate. Persons wearing apparel which a grand jury should account disproportionate to their positions were to be first admonished, and, if contumacious, fined. Every woman who should cut her hair like a man's, or suffer it to hang loosely upon her face, was fined. Idleness, swearing, and drunkenness were visited with restraining penalties. In the earlier records of Massachusetts it is revealed that John Wedgewood, for being in the company of drunkards, was to be set in the stocks. Catharine, wife of Richard Cornish, was suspected of incontinence, and seriously admonished to take heed. Thomas Petit, on suspicion of slander, idleness, and stubbornness, was sentenced to be severely whipped. Captain Lovell was admonished to take heed of light carriage. Josias Plaistowe, for stealing four baskets of corn from the Indians, was ordered to "return them eight baskets, to be fined five pounds, and thereafter to be called by the name of Josias, and not Mr., as formerly he used to be."

Early Non-importation Acts. In 1687 an excise duty on tobacco was laid in England, which alarmed the Virginia planters, and they attempted to retaliate by procuring acts of the Assembly for the encouragement of domestic manufactures, that they might import less from the mother country. King James disallowed these acts as hostile to English interests. A similar attempt failed in Maryland.

Earthquakes in North America. On the 1st day of June, 1638, between the hours of three and four P.M., the weather clear and warm, and the wind westerly, all New England was violently shaken by some internal convulsion of the earth. It came on with a noise like continued thunder, and the shock lasted about four minutes. The earth shook with such violence that in some places the people could not stand upright without difficulty, and many movable articles in the houses were thrown down. The earth was unquiet for twenty days afterwards. On Jan. 26, 1663, a heavy shock of earthquake was felt in New England and in New York, and was particularly severe in Canada, where it was recorded that "the doors opened and shut of themselves with a fearful clattering. The bells rang without being touched. The walls were split asunder. The floors separated and fell down. The fields put on the appearance of precipices, and the mountains seemed to be moving out of their places." Small rivers were dried up; some mountains appeared to be much broken and moved, and half-way between Quebec and Tadousac two mountains were shaken down, and formed a point of land extending some distance into the St. Lawrence. On Oct. 29, 1727, there was a severe earthquake in New England, lasting about two minutes. Its course seemed to be from the River Delaware, in the southwest, to the Kennebec, in the northeast, a distance of about seven hundred miles. It occurred at about twenty minutes before eleven o'clock in the morning, and the sky was serene. Pewter and china were cast from their shelves, and stone walls and chimney-tops were shaken down. In some places doors were burst open, and people could hardly keep their feet. There had been an interval of fifty-seven years since the last earthquake in New England. On the same day the island of Martinique, in the West Indies, was threatened with total destruction by an earthquake which lasted eleven hours. On the 18th of November a severe earthquake shock was felt from Chesapeake Bay along the coast to Halifax, Nova Scotia, about eight hundred miles; and in the interior it seems to have extended, from northwest to southeast, more than one thousand miles. In Boston one hundred chimneys were levelled with the roofs of the houses, and fifteen hundred more or less shattered. The ends of several brick buildings were thrown down with the chimneys. The vane on the public market was thrown to the earth. At New Haven, Conn., the ground moved like waves of the sea; the houses shook and cracked, and many chimneys were thrown down. It occurred at four o'clock in the morning, and lasted four and a half minutes. At the same time there was a great tidal-wave in the West Indies. In April, the same year, Quito, in South America, was destroyed by an earthquake; and eighteen days before the earthquake in North America there was an awful one (Nov. 1, 1755) in Southern Europe that extended into Africa. The earth was violently shaken for five thousand miles—even to Scotland. In eight minutes the city of Lisbon, with fifty thousand inhabitants, was swallowed up. Other cities in Portugal and Spain were partially destroyed. One half of Fez, in northern Africa, was destroyed, and more than twelve thousand Arabs perished. In the island of Mitylene, in the Grecian Archipelago, two thousand houses were overthrown; and half of the island of Madeira, six hundred and sixty miles southwest from Portugal, became a waste.

East and West Jersey. Disputes had arisen between the purchasers of a portion of New Jersey. Among these purchasers were John Fenwick and Edward Billinge, both of the Society of Friends. These men quarrelled with regard to their respective rights. The tenets of their sect would not allow them to go to law, so they referred the matter to William Penn, whose decision satisfied both parties. Fenwick sailed for America to found a colony, but Billinge was too much in debt to come, and made an assignment for the benefit of his creditors. The greater part of his right and title in New Jersey fell into the hands of Penn, Gawen Lawrie, and Nicholas Lucas. The matter was now complicated. Berkeley had disposed of his undivided half of the colony. Finally, on the 1st of July, 1676 (O. S.), after much preliminary negotiation, a deed was completed and signed by Carteret on the one side, and Penn, Lawrie, Lucas, and Billinge on the other, which divided the province of New Jersey into two great portions—East Jersey, including all that part lying northeast of a line drawn from Little Egg Harbor to a point on the most northerly branch of the Delaware River, in north latitude 41° 40′; and West Jersey, comprehending all the rest of the province originally granted by the Duke of York. East Jersey was the property of Sir George Carteret; West Jersey passed into the hands of the associates of the Society of Friends. West Jersey was now divided into one hundred parts, setting aside ten for Fenwick, who had made the first settlement, at Salem, on the Delaware, and arranged to dispose of the other ninety parts for the benefit of Billinge's creditors. (See *New Jersey, Colony of.*)

East Florida, LEE'S EXPEDITION AGAINST. A citizen of Georgia visited General Charles Lee at Charleston and persuaded him that St. Augustine could be easily taken. The man was a stranger, but, without further inquiry, Lee announced to the Continental troops under his command that he had planned for them a safe, sure, and remunerative expedition, of which the very large booty would be all their own. Calling it a secret, he let everybody know its destination. Without adequate preparation—without a field-piece or a medicine-chest—he hastily marched off the Virginia and North Carolina troops, in the second week in August (1776), to the malarious regions of Georgia. By his order, Howe, of North Carolina, and Moultrie, of South Carolina, soon followed. About four hundred and sixty men from South Carolina were sent to Savannah by water, with two field-pieces; and on the 18th, Lee, after reviewing the collected troops, sent the Virginians and a portion of the South Carolinians to Sunbury. The fever made sad havoc among them, and fourteen or fifteen men were buried daily. Then Lee sought to shift from himself to Moultrie the further conduct of the expedition, for he saw it must be disastrous. Moultrie warned him that no available resources which would render success possible had been provided, and the wretched expedition was abandoned. Fortunately for his reputation, Lee was ordered North early in September and joined Washington on Harlem Heights, receiving his $30,000 from Congress as he passed through Philadelphia. (See *Lee, Charles.*)

East Florida, SEIZURE OF (1812). Florida was divided into two provinces, East and West. The boundary-line was the Perdido River, east of Mobile Bay. The Georgians coveted East Florida, and in the spring of 1812 Brigadier-general George Mathews, of the Georgia militia, who had been appointed a commissioner, under an act of a secret session of Congress in 1810–11, to secure that province should it be offered to the United States, stirred up an insurrection there. Amelia Island, lying a little below the dividing line between Georgia and Florida, was chosen for a base of operations. The fine harbor of its capital, Fernandina, was a place of great resort for smugglers during the days of the embargo, and, as neutral ground, might be made a dangerous place. The possession of the island and harbor was therefore important to the Americans, and a sought-for pretext for seizing it was soon found. The Florida insurgents planted the standard of revolt (March, 1812) on the bluff opposite the town of St. Mary, on the border line. Some United States gunboats under Commodore Campbell were in the St. Mary's River, and Mathews had some United States troops at his command near. The insurgents, two hundred and twenty in number, sent a flag of truce (March 17) to Fernandina, demanding the surrender of the town and island. About the same time the American gunboats appeared there. The authorities bowed in submission, and General Mathews, assuming the character of a protector, took possession of the place in the name of the United States. At the same time the commodore assured the Spanish governor that the gunboats were there only for aid and protection to a large portion of the population, who thought proper to declare themselves independent. On the 19th the town was formally given up to the United States authorities; a custom-house was established; the floating property in the harbor was considered under the protection of the United States flag, and smuggling ceased. The insurgent band, swelled to eight hundred by reinforcements from Georgia, and accompanied by troops furnished by General Mathews, besieged the Spanish garrison at St. Augustine, for it was feared the British might help the Spaniards in recovering what they had lost in the territory. The United States government would not countenance this kind of filibustering, and Mathews was superseded as commissioner (April 10, 1812) by Governor Mitchell, of Georgia. Mitchell, professing to believe Congress would sanction Mathews's proceedings, made no change in policy. The House of Representatives did actually pass a bill, in secret session (June 21), authorizing the President to take possession of East Florida. The Senate rejected it, for it would have been unwise to quarrel with Spain at the moment when war was about to be declared against Great Britain. Not many years afterwards Florida was ceded to the United States by Spain.

East India Company (English). At the close of the year 1600, Queen Elizabeth granted a charter to a company of London merchants for the monopoly of the trade over a vast expanse of land and sea in the region of the East Indies, for fifteen years. The charter was renewed from time to time. The first squadron of the company (five vessels) sailed from Torbay (Feb. 15, 1601) and began to make footholds, speedily, on the islands and continental shores of the East, establishing factories in many places, and at length obtaining a grant (1698) from a native prince of Calcutta and two adjoining villages, with the privilege of erecting fortifications. This was the first step towards the acquirement by the company, under the auspices of the British government, of vast territorial possessions, with a population of two hundred millions, over which, in 1877, Queen Victoria was proclaimed empress. The company had ruled supreme in India, with some restrictions, until 1858, when the government of that Oriental empire was vested in the Queen of England. Though the company was not abolished, it was shorn of all its political power, as it had been of its trade monopoly. The East India Company first introduced tea into England, in the reign of Charles II.

East India Company and a Compromise. Resolved to retain a duty on tea exported to America, the British government proposed to allow the East India Company to send tea, in their ships, free of export duty, so as to enable the colonists to get the tea at a cheaper rate than before, while paying a small duty. The *cost of the tea* was not a question with the Americans. It was the *principle involved* in the act of taxing them without their consent that made them oppose the measure, which they did most effectually in all seaports where the East India Company sent their ships. (See *Tea-ships, Reception of.*)

East Tennessee, BURNSIDE IN (1863). General Burnside was assigned to the command of the Army of the Ohio, and was ordered to take active co-operation with the Army of the Cumberland in August, 1863. He had gathered twenty thousand men near Richmond, Ky., well disciplined and equipped. They left camp August 21, climbed over the Cumberland Mountains, and entered the magnificent Valley of East Tennessee, their baggage and stores carried, in many places, by pack-mules. On his entering the valley twenty thousand Confederates, commanded by General Simon B. Buckner (see *Fort Donelson*), fled to Georgia and joined Bragg. General Burnside had been joined by General Hartsuff and his command. Their numbers were swelled by junction with other troops. At the mouth of the Clinch River they first had communication with Colonel Minty's cavalry, on Rosecrans's extreme left. At Loudon bridge General Shackelford had a skirmish with Confederates, and drove them across the stream, they burning the magnificent structure, two thousand feet long. Early in September a force of Confederates, under General Frazer, holding Cumberland Gap, surrendered to the Nationals, and the great valley between the Cumberland and Alleghany Mountains (of which Knoxville was the metropolis), extending from Cleveland to Bristol, seemed to be permanently rid of armed Confederates. The loyal inhabitants of that region received the National troops with open arms. Burnside made his headquarters at Knoxville.

East Tennessee waiting for Deliverance. East Tennessee, where loyalty to the Union was strongly predominant, was kept in submission to the Confederacy by the strong arm of military power. The people longed for deliverance, which seemed near at hand when, in January, 1862, the energetic General Mitchel made an effort to seize Chattanooga. His force was too small to effect it, for E. Kirby Smith was watching that region with a strong Confederate force. Mitchel asked Buell for reinforcements, but was denied. Finally General Negley, after a successful attack upon Confederates near Jasper, having made his way over the rugged ranges of the Cumberland Mountains, suddenly appeared opposite Chattanooga (June 7). Towards evening he had heavy guns in position, and for two hours he cannonaded the town and the Confederate works near. The inhabitants and Confederates fled from the town. With a few more regiments Negley might have captured and held the place, and Mitchel could have marched into East Tennessee. But Buell would not allow it. The insurgents had already evacuated Cumberland Gap voluntarily, and the inhabitants of East Tennessee were jubilant with hope of deliverance. But they were again disappointed and compelled to wait. The cautious Buell and the fiery Mitchel did not work well together, and the latter was soon assigned to the command of the Department of the South.

Eastern Boundary of the United States. Jay's treaty provided for a commission for determining the eastern boundary of the United States. In the treaty of peace (1783) it had been defined as at the St. Croix River. A question arose as to which stream was the true St. Croix. Massachusetts had claimed the Maquadavie as the true St. Croix; the British claimed the Passamaquoddy as the true St. Croix, and insisted that the western branch of it—the Schoodic—was the boundary. The commissioners (appointed Oct. 25, 1798) decided that the Passamaquoddy and its eastern branch was the true St. Croix, by which the disputed territory was divided about equally between the two nations. The ownership of the numerous islands in Passamaquoddy Bay was not determined.

Eastern Indians, War with. In conformity with the treaty of Utrecht, the French had withdrawn from the peninsula of Nova Scotia, and on Cape Breton began the erection of the formidable fortress of Louisburg, which would overlook the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the coasts of Nova Scotia and New England. The French still claimed, if not for themselves, for the independent Indian tribes in the East, the territory as far west as the Kennebec. In behalf of this claim the French missions on the Penobscot and at Norridgewock were kept up, and the natives were observed to be in bad humor. The people of Massachusetts suspected the Jesuit missionary at the latter place of stimulating the Indians to war, and a secret expedition was sent (August, 1722) against it from Massachusetts. (See *Norridgewock.*) Hostilities continued, and the Indians attacked points all along the New England frontier to the Connecticut River. To cover the towns in that valley Fort Dummer was built (1724) on the site of Brattleborough, the oldest English settlement in the State of Vermont. The Indians had captured seventeen vessels belonging to Massachusetts in the Gut of Canso in 1722; now (1724) armed schooners which they had seized prowled along the New England coast and captured seven vessels. It was deemed necessary to strike some decisive blow. The mission station at Norridgewock was destroyed, and the premium on scalps was raised to $500 each. Captain John Lovewell, a noted partisan, surprised a party of sleeping Indians at Salmon Falls (February, 1725), killed them all, and marched to Dover in triumph with their scalps elevated on poles. In a second expedition he fell into an ambush on the margin of a pond, near the head of the Saco, and was slain at the first fire, with eight of his men. The remainder repulsed the Indians and retreated. The war was soon ended by treaties or agreements with the Indians. As the war had been kindled chiefly through the rascality of private traders, measures were adopted by the Massachusetts Legislature to protect the Indians from the extortion of these people.

Eastman, Harvey Gridley, commercial teacher, was born at Marshall, Oneida Co., N. Y., Oct. 16, 1832; died at Denver, Col., July 13, 1878. After attending the common schools of his neighborhood, he completed his education at the State Normal School at Albany; and at the age of twenty-three opened a commercial school at Oswego, N. Y., having been a teacher in a similar school kept by his uncle in Rochester. In that school he first conceived the plan of a commercial or business college. On the 3d of November, 1859, Mr. Eastman opened a business college in the city of Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson, and the first pupil was Andrew Houston, who, on Nov. 3, 1879, placed his son in the college. The institution began with three pupils, and the number rapidly increased. In 1865 there were more than seventeen hundred students in the college. It was the first institution in which actual business was taught. Mr. Eastman was a very liberal and enterprising citizen, foremost in every judicious measure which promised to benefit the community in which he lived. He was twice elected mayor of the city, and held that office at the time of his death. On the day of his funeral the city was draped in mourning and nearly all places of business were closed, for he was eminently respected as a citizen and as a public officer.

Easton, James, was born at Hartford, Conn., and died at Pittsfield, Mass. Mr. Easton was a builder, and settled in Pittsfield, Mass., in 1763. Active in business and strong in intellect, he became a leader in public affairs there, and was chosen to a seat in the Massachusetts Assembly in 1774. He was also colonel in the militia, and held the position of leader of the minute-men of that town. When the expedition to assail Ticonderoga was organized in western Massachusetts, Colonel Easton joined Allen and Arnold in accomplishing the undertaking, and it was he who bore the first tidings of success to the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts.

Easton, TREATIES AT. Easton, on the Delaware, was a favorite place for holding councils with the Indian chiefs between the years 1754 and 1761. On these occasions 200 to 500 Indians were frequently seen. Teedyuscung, an eminent Delaware chief, who represented several tribes, was chief speaker and manager among the barbarians. In 1756 the relations between the English and the Six Nations, the Delawares, Shawnoese, and Mohegans were critical, for the barbarians, especially the Delawares, had become greatly incensed against the white people of Pennsylvania. The Quakers of that state had espoused the cause of the pagans and formed an association for securing justice for the Indians and friendship between them and the white people. (See *Friendly Association.*) They held two conferences at Easton with the Indians, and Sir William Johnson complained that the Quakers had intruded upon his office. Finally, in July, 1756, a conference was held between the Delawares, Shawnoese, Mohegans, the Six Nations, and Governor Denny and his council, and George Croghan, an intriguing Indian trader. At the suggestion of the Quakers Teedyuscung invited Charles Thomson, master of the Quaker Academy in Philadelphia, and afterwards permanent secretary of the Continental Congress, to act as his secretary. Denny and Croghan opposed it; Teedyuscung persisted in having Thomson make minutes of the proceedings, so that garbled and false reports of interested men might not be given as truth. By this arrangement the Indians received fair play. The conference was thinly attended; but at another, begun on the 8th of November, the same year, the Indian tribes were well represented. In reply to questions by Governor Denny of what he complained, Teedyuscung charged the proprietaries of Pennsylvania with obtaining large territories by fraud, and specified well-known instances like that known as the "Indian Walk." (See *Indian Walk.*) At that conference there were many citizens from Philadelphia, chiefly Quakers, and the result was, after deliberations kept up for nine days, a satisfactory treaty of peace was made between the Indians and the English, the governor offering to indemnify the Delawares for any lands which had been fraudulently taken from them. That matter was deferred until a council was held at Easton in July, 1757, when Teedyuscung was well plied with liquor. The Quakers, with much exertion, enabled the old chief to resist the intrigues of Croghan to weaken his influence among the Indians. Another council was held there in the autumn of 1758. The object was to adjust all differences between the English and the Six Nations, as well as other tribes farther westward and southward. The governors of Pennsylvania and New Jersey, Sir William Johnson, Colonel Croghan, and a large number of the Friendly Association were present. Teedyuscung acted as chief speaker, which offended the Six Nations, who regarded the Delawares as their vassals; but he conducted himself admirably, maintained his position finely, and resisted the wiles of Colonel Croghan and the governor. This great council continued eighteen days. The land question was thoroughly discussed. All causes for misunderstanding between the English and the Indians were removed, and a treaty for a general peace was concluded Oct. 26, 1758. There was another council held at Easton in 1761, concerning settlements at Wyoming, in which Teedyuscung took an active and eloquent part. A war party of the Six Nations descended the Susquehanna in the autumn of 1763, murdered Teedyuscung and burned his dwelling, and charged the crime upon the white settlers in the Wyoming Valley. (See *Susquehanna Company.*)

Eastport (Me.), CAPTURE OF (1814). Early in July, 1814, Sir Thomas M. Hardy sailed secretly from Halifax with a squadron, consisting of the *Ramillies* (the flag-ship), sloop *Martin*, brig *Borer*, the *Bream*, the bomb-ship *Terror*, and several transports with troops under Colonel Thomas Pilkington. The squadron entered Passamaquoddy Bay on the 11th, and anchored off Fort Sullivan, at Eastport (Moose Island), then in command of Major Perley Putnam with a garrison of fifty men, having six pieces of artillery. Hardy demanded an instant surrender, giving Putnam only five minutes to consider. The latter promptly refused, but at the vehement importunities of the alarmed inhabitants, who were indisposed to resist, he surrendered the post on condition that, while the British should take possession of all public property, private property should be respected. This was agreed to, and one thousand armed men, with women and children, a battalion of artillery, and fifty or sixty pieces of cannon were landed on the main, when formal possession was taken of the fort, the town of Eastport, and all the islands and villages in and around Passamaquoddy Bay. Several vessels laden with goods valued at three hundred thousand dollars, ready to be smuggled into the United States, were seized. Sixty cannons were mounted, and civil rule was established under British officials. The British held quiet possession of that region until the close of the war.

Eaton, THEOPHILUS, first governor of the New Haven colony, was born at Stony Stratford, England, in 1591; died at New Haven, Jan. 7, 1657. He was bred a merchant, and was for some years the English representative at the court of Denmark. Afterwards he was a distinguished London merchant, and accompanied Mr. Davenport to New England in 1637. With him, he assisted in founding the New Haven colony, and was chosen its first chief magistrate. Mr. Eaton filled the chair of that office continuously until his death.

Eaton, WILLIAM, was born at Woodstock, Conn., Feb. 23, 1764; died at Brimfield, Mass., Jan. 1, 1811. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1790. He entered the Continental army at the age of sixteen, and was discharged in

1783. In 1797 he was appointed American consul at Tunis, and arrived there in 1799. He acted with so much boldness and tact that he secured for his country the freedom of its commerce from attacks by Tunisian cruisers. He returned to the United States in 1803; was appointed naval agent of the United States for the Barbary States (which see); and accompanied the American fleet to the Mediterranean in 1804. He assisted Hamet Caramelli, the rightful ruler of Tripoli, in an attempt to recover his throne, usurped by his brother. (See *Tripoli, War with.*) Soon afterwards Eaton returned to the United States, and passed the remainder of his life at Brimfield. For his services to American commerce the State of Massachusetts gave him ten thousand acres of land. The King of Denmark gave him a gold box in acknowledgment of his services to commerce in general and for the release of Danish captives at Tunis. Burr tried to enlist General Eaton in his conspiracy, and the latter testified against him on his trial. (See *Burr's Conspiracy.*)

Eckford, HENRY, naval constructor, was born at Irvine, Scotland, March 12, 1775; died in Constantinople, Nov. 12, 1832. He learned his art with an uncle at Quebec, when he began business for himself in New York in 1796, and soon took the lead in his profession. During the War of 1812–15 he constructed ships-of-war on the Lakes with great expedition and skill; and soon after the war he built the steamship *Robert Fulton*, in which, in 1822, he made the first successful trip in a craft of that kind to New Orleans and Havana. Made naval constructor at Brooklyn in 1820, six ships-of-the-line were built after his models. Interference of the Board of Naval Commissioners caused him to leave the service of the government, but he afterwards made ships-of-war for European powers and for the independent states of South America. In 1831 he built a war-vessel for the Sultan of Turkey, and going to Constantinople, organized a navy-yard there, and there he died.

Econochaca, or Holy Ground, BATTLE AT. Marching from Fort Deposit, in Butler County, Ala. (December, 1813), General Claiborne, pushing through the wilderness nearly thirty miles with horse and foot and friendly Choctaw Indians, arrived near Econochaca, or Holy Ground, a village built by Weathersford (see *Fort Mims*) upon a bluff on the left bank of the Alabama, just below Powell's Ferry, Lowndes County, in an obscure place, as a "city of refuge" for the wounded and dispersed in battle, fugitives from their homes, and women and children. No path or trail led to it. It had been dedicated to this humane purpose by Tecumtha and the Prophet (which see) a few months before, and the Cherokees had been assured by them that, like Auttose, no white man could tread upon the ground and live. There the barbarian priests performed horrid incantations, and in the square in the centre of the town the most dreadful cruelties had already been perpetrated. White prisoners and Creeks friendly to them had been there tortured and roasted. On the morning of Dec. 23 Claiborne appeared before the town. At that moment a number of friendly half-bloods of both sexes were in the square, surrounded by pine-wood, ready to be lighted to consume them, and the prophets were busy in their mummery. The troops advanced in three columns. The town was almost surrounded by swamps and deep ravines, and the Indians, regarding the place as holy, and having property there of great value, though partially surprised, prepared to fight desperately. They had conveyed their women and children to a place of safety deep in the forest. By a simultaneous movement, Claiborne's three columns closed upon the town at the same moment. So unexpected was the attack that the dismayed Indians broke and fled before the whole of the troops could get into action. Weathersford was there. The Indians fled in droves along the bank of the river, and by swimming and the use of canoes they escaped to the other side and joined their families in the forest. Weathersford, when he found himself deserted by his warriors, fled swiftly on a fine gray horse to a bluff on the river between two ravines, hotly pursued, when his horse made a mighty bound from it, and horse and rider disappeared under the water for a moment, when both arose, Weathersford grasping the mane of his charger with one hand and his rifle with the other. He escaped in safety. Econochaca was plundered by the Choctaws and laid in ashes. Full two hundred houses were destroyed, and thirty Indians killed. The Tennesseeans lost one killed and six wounded.

Eden, SIR ROBERT, the last royal governor of Maryland, was born at Durham, Eng.; died at Annapolis, Md., Sept. 2, 1786. Succeeding Governor Sharpe in 1768, he was more moderate in his administration than his predecessors. He complied with the orders of Congress to abdicate the government. He went to England, and at the close of the war returned to recover his estate in Maryland. He had married a sister of Lord Baltimore, and was created a baronet Oct. 19, 1776.

Edes, BENJAMIN, was an eminent patriotic journalist in Boston during the Revolution. He was born at Charlestown, Mass., Oct. 14, 1732; died in Boston, Dec. 11, 1803. He was captain of the "Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company" (which see) in 1760, and was one of the Boston "Sons of Liberty." In his printing-office many of the tea-party disguised themselves, and were there regaled with punch after the exploit at the wharf was performed. (See *Boston Tea-party.*) He began, with Mr. Gill, in 1755, the publication of the *Boston Gazette and Country Journal*, which became a very popular newspaper, and did eminent service in the cause of popular liberty. Adams, Hancock, Otis, Quincy, Warren, and other leading spirits were constant contributors to its columns, while Mr. Edes himself wielded a caustic pen. He was in Watertown during the siege of Boston, from which place he issued the *Gazette*, the "mouth-piece of the Whigs." It was discontinued in 1798, after a life, sustained by Edes, of forty years.

Edge-tool Manufactures. Probably the first American establishment for the exclusive manufacture of edge-tools was founded by Samuel W. Collins, at Collinsville, Conn., which is now one of the largest establishments of the kind in the world. It was begun about 1826, when the product of a day's labor there was the forging and tempering of eight broadaxes. In 1876 there were one hundred edge-tool manufactories in the United States, employing about four thousand hands. The capital invested in the business in 1870 was $5,000,000, and the annual product was valued at $6,000,000. Oliver Hunt, a blacksmith in the south part of Worcester County, Mass., began the business of axe-making, in connection with general blacksmithing, about sixty years ago, or in 1816. Out of this small beginning grew the present extensive "Douglass Axe Company," for the manufacture of axes.

Edict of Nantes, THE, promulgated by Henry IV. of France, gave toleration to the Protestants in feuds, civil and religious. It was published April 13, 1598, and was confirmed by Louis XIII. in 1610, after the murder of his father; also by Louis XIV. in 1652; but it was revoked by him Oct. 22, 1685. It was a great state blunder, for it deprived France of five hundred thousand of her best citizens, who fled into Germany, England, and America, and gave those countries the riches that flow from industry, skill, and sobriety. They took with them to England the art of silk-weaving, and so gave France an important rival in that branch of industry. (See *Huguenots in America.*)

Education in Mexico. In 1551 a royal and pontifical university was established in Mexico by the Emperor Charles V., with the same privileges as that at Salamanca. There were in its cloisters two hundred and twenty-five doctors and masters, with twenty-two professors of all the sciences then known, and a good library. Other institutions of learning were founded in Mexico about that time, called colleges; some for the Spanish children, others for the Indian youths. There were also free schools and academies; also charitable institutions, and thirteen hospitals. In the city of Mexico the first printing on the American continent was done.

Education in the United States. Popular education has made rapid progress in our country within the present century, and especially since the first quarter thereof. In 1776 there were seven colleges in the English-American colonies; in 1876 there were three hundred and forty-nine colleges proper and about fifty so called. In 1776 the common schools were few and very inferior; in 1876 they were numerous and efficient. The school population in 1876 was thirteen million, and of this number six million were enrolled in the records of public schools. Sabbath-schools are doing much for the moral and intellectual education of the people. The first one in the country was opened by the Methodists, in Virginia, in 1786; in 1876 they numbered seventy thousand, with over seven hundred and fifty-three thousand teachers and six million pupils.

Edwards, JONATHAN, a remarkable metaphysician and theologian, was born at East Windsor, Conn., Oct. 5, 1703; died at Princeton, N. J., March 22, 1788. He graduated at Yale College in 1720, having begun to study Latin when he was six years of age. He is said to have reasoned out for himself his doctrine of free-will before he left college, at the age of seventeen. He began preaching to a Presbyterian congregation before he was twenty years old, and became assistant to his grandfather, Rev. Mr. Stoddard, minister at Northampton, Mass., whom he succeeded as pastor. He was dismissed in 1750, because he insisted upon a purer and higher standard of admission to the communion-table. Then he began his missionary work (1751–57) among the Stockbridge Indians, and prepared his greatest work, on *The Freedom of the Will*, which was published in 1754. He was inaugurated President of the College of New Jersey, at Princeton, Feb. 16, 1758, and died of small-pox a little more than a month afterwards. He married Sarah Pierrepont, of New Haven, in 1727, and they became the grandparents of Aaron Burr.

JONATHAN EDWARDS.

Edwards, NINIAN, was born in Montgomery County, Md., in March, 1775; died of cholera at Belleville, Ill., July 20, 1833. William Wirt directed his early education, which was finished at Dickinson College, Pennsylvania, and in 1819 he settled in the Green River district of Kentucky. Before he was twenty-one he became a member of the Kentucky Legislature; was admitted to the bar in 1798 in Kentucky, and to that of Tennessee the next year, and rose very rapidly in his profession. He went through the offices of circuit judge and of appeals to the bench of chief-justice of Kentucky in 1808. The next year he was appointed the first governor of the Territory of Illinois, and retained that office until its organization as a state in 1818. From 1818 till 1824 he was United States Senator, and from 1826 to 1830 he was governor of the state. He did much, by promptness and activity, to restrain Indian hostilities in the Illinois region during the War of 1812.

Edwards, PIERREPONT, son of the metaphysician, was born at Northampton, Mass., April 8, 1750; died at Bridgeport, Conn., April 14, 1826. He graduated at the College of New Jersey, at Princeton, in 1768. His youth was spent among the Stockbridge Indians, where his father was missionary, and he acquired the language perfectly. Mr. Edwards became an eminent lawyer; espoused the cause of the patriots, and fought for liberty in the army of the Revolution. He was a member of the Congress of the Confederation in 1787–88, and in the Connecticut Convention warmly advocated the adoption of the National Constitution. He was Judge of the United States District Court in Connecticut at the time of his father's death. Mr. Edwards was the founder of the "Toleration Party" in Connecticut, which made him exceedingly unpopular with the Calvinists.

Election for President and Vice-President. Under the Constitution as originally adopted, the candidates for President and Vice-President were voted for in the electoral college of each state, without designating which the elector intended for the first and which for the second office. Lists of these were transmitted to the seat of government, and the candidate having the greatest number (if a majority of the whole) became President, and the one having the next greatest number Vice-President. If the two highest candidates received an equal number of votes, the House of Representatives (as now) was to proceed immediately to choose by ballot one of them for President, voting by states, each state having one vote, and a majority of all the states being necessary to a choice. In case of a tie on the Vice-President, the Senate was to choose between the equal candidates. The Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution (which see) changed the mode of voting for the two officers, the electors being required to vote separately for President and Vice-President. They were to name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; distinct lists of all persons voted for as President and Vice-President, signed and certified, were sent to the seat of government, directed to "the President of the Senate," whose duty it was, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, to open all the certificates, and count the votes, the person having the greatest number of votes for the respective offices (if a majority of the whole) to be declared elected. Such continues to be the mode.

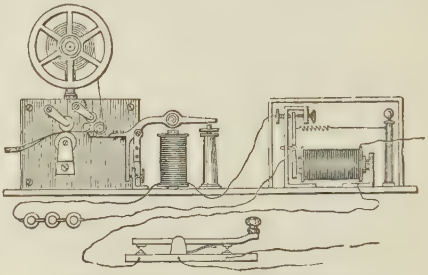
Electoral Colleges, THE. The people do not vote directly for President and Vice-President, but they choose, in each congressional district in the respective states, a representative in what is called an electoral college, which consists of as many members as there are congressional districts in each state in the Union. The theory of the framers of the Constitution was, that by this means the best men of the country would be chosen in the several districts, and they would better express the wishes of the people concerning a choice of President and Vice-President than a vote directly by the people for these officers. The several electors chosen in the different states meet at their respective state capitals at a specified time, and name in their ballots the persons for President and Vice-President. Then each electoral college makes a list of the names voted for these officers, and the number of votes for each, which lists the members of the college sign and certify, and the list of each state electoral college is transmitted to the President of the Senate of the United States. (See *Election for President and Vice-President.*)

Electoral Commission, THE. The Forty-fourth Congress met in its last session early in December, 1876. There was a Democratic majority in the House of Representatives. On the 4th a resolution was adopted, providing for the investigation of the action of returning boards in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana. (See *Presidential Election,* 1876.) There was much excitement in Congress and anxiety among the people. Thoughtful men saw much trouble at the final counting of the votes of the electoral colleges by the President of the Senate, according to the prescription of the Constitution, for already his absolute power in the matter was questioned. Proctor Knott, of Kentucky, offered a resolution for the appointment of a committee of seven members by the speaker, to act in conjunction with a similar committee that might be appointed by the Senate, to prepare and report a plan for the creation of a tribunal to count the electoral votes, whose authority no one could question, and whose decision all could accept as final. The resolution was adopted. The Senate appointed a committee; and on Jan. 18, 1877, the joint committee, consisting of fourteen members, reported a bill that provided for the meeting of both Houses in the hall of the House of Representatives on Feb. 1, 1877, to there count the votes in accordance with a plan which the committee proposed. In case of more than one return from a state, all such returns, having been made by appointed tellers, should be, upon objections being made, submitted to the judgment and decision, as to which was the lawful and true electoral vote of the state, of a commission of fifteen, to be composed of five members from each House, to be appointed *viva voce,* Jan. 30, with five associate-justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, who should, on Jan. 30, select another of the justices of the Supreme Court, the entire commission to be presided over by the associate-justice longest in commission. After much debate, the bill passed both Houses. It became a law, by the signature of the President, Jan. 29, 1877. The next day the two Houses each selected five of its members to serve on the Electoral Commission. Judges Clifford, Miller, Field, and Strong, of the Supreme Court, were named in the bill, and these chose as the fifth member of associate-justices Joseph P. Bradley. The Electoral Commission assembled in the hall of the House of Representatives Feb. 1, 1877. The legality of returns from several states was questioned, and was passed upon and decided by the commission. The counting was completed on March 2d, and the commission made the final decision in all cases. The President of the Senate then announced that Hayes and Wheeler were elected. The Forty-fourth Congress finally adjourned on Saturday, March 3. The 4th of March, prescribed as the day for the taking of the oath of office by the President, falling on Sunday, Mr. Hayes, to prevent any technical objections that might be raised, privately took the oath of office on that day, and on Monday, the 5th, he was publicly inaugurated, in the presence of a vast multitude of his fellow-citizens.

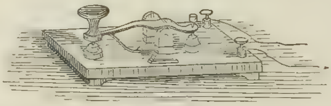
Electric Lamps. In July, 1859, Professor Moses G. Farmer lighted a parlor, at No. 16 Pearl Street, Salem, Mass., with electric light, subdivided for different lamps. It was used throughout the whole month of July, and was only abandoned because the generation of the electricity for use as an illuminator was four times as expensive as an equivalent amount of gaslight. The apparatus consisted of a galvanic battery of about three dozen six-gallon jars placed in the cellar of the house, from which the electric current was conveyed by suitable conducting-wires to the mantle-piece of the parlor, where were located two electric lamps, either of which could be lighted at pleasure, or both at once.

Electric Light, EARLY HISTORY OF. (See *Electric Lamps.*) In 1845 John W. Starr, of Cincinnati, filed a caveat in the United States Patent Office for a divisible electric light. He went to England to complete and prove his experiment, and was accompanied by his agent, Mr. King. He carried letters of introduction to distinguished men there, and George Peabody, American banker in London, agreed to furnish him with all the money necessary, provided his invention should be sanctioned by scientific men. He completed his experiments at Manchester, and there the invention proved highly successful in the presence of many scientific men, among them Professor Faraday, who pronounced it perfect. The excitement and overwork of the brain by this triumph caused the death of Starr the same night, who was found dead in his bed the next day. Nothing was ever done with the invention afterwards. In his caveat, Starr said: "I claim the method of heating conductors so as to apply them to illumination, the current being regulated so as to obtain the highest degree of heat without fusing the conductor. I claim the method of obtaining an intermitting light for the use of light-houses, in the manner set forth, and for signals. I claim the mode of submarine lighting by enclosing the apparatus in a suitable glass vessel, hermetically sealed; and also the mode of lighting places containing combustible or explosive compounds or materials, as set forth."

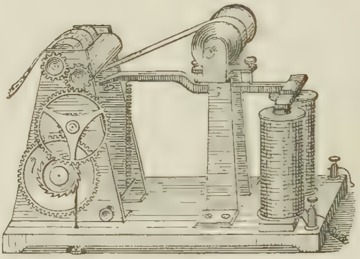
Electro-magnetic Telegraph. This invention, conceived more than a century ago, was first brought to perfection as an intelligent medium of communication between points distant from each other by Professor Samuel Finley Breese Morse, of New York, and was first presented to public notice in the year 1838. In the autumn of 1837 he filed a caveat at the Patent Office; and he gave a private exhibition of its marvellous power in the New York University in January, 1838, when intelligence was instantly transmitted by an alphabet composed of dots and lines, invented by Morse, through a circuit of ten miles of wire, and plainly recorded. Morse applied to Congress for pecuniary aid to enable him to construct an experimental line between Washington and Baltimore. For four years he waited, for the action of the government was tardy, in consequence of doubt and positive opposition. At the beginning of March, 1842, Congress appropriated $30,000 for his use; and in May, 1844, he transmitted from Washington to Baltimore, a distance of forty miles, the first message, furnished him by a young lady—"What hath God wrought!" The first public message was the announcement of the nomination by the Democratic National Convention in Baltimore (May, 1844) of James K. Polk for President of the United States. Professor Morse also originated submarine telegraphy. He publicly suggested its feasibility in a letter to the Secretary of the Treasury in 1843. So early as 1842 he laid a submarine cable, or insulated wire, in the harbor of New York, for which achievement the American Institute awarded him a small gold medal. In 1858 he participated in the labors and honors of laying a cable under the sea between Europe and America. (See *Atlantic Telegraph.*) Monarchs gave him medals and orders, Yale College conferred upon him the honorary



MORSE APPARATUS, CIRCUIT AND BATTERY.



MORSE KEY.



MORSE REGISTER.

degree of LL.D., and in 1858, at the instance of the emperor of the French, several European governments combined in the act of giving Professor Morse the sum of $80,000 in gold as a token of their appreciation. Improvements have been made in the transmission of messages. For more than a quarter of a century the messages were each sent over a single wire, only one way at a time. Early in 1871, through the inventions of Edison and others, messages were sent both ways over the same wire at the same instant of time. Very soon four messages were sent the same way. This number may possibly be increased until multiplex transmission shall become common.

Eliot, Jared, was born Nov. 7, 1685; died at Killingworth, Conn., April 28, 1763. He graduated at Yale College in 1706, and from 1709 until his death he was minister of the first church at Killingworth. He was a most practical and useful man, and did much for the advancement of agriculture and manufactures in New England. He strongly urged in essays the introduction into the colonies of a better breed of sheep. In 1747 he wrote: "A better breed of sheep is what we want. The English breed of Cotswold sheep cannot be obtained, or at least not without great difficulty; for wool and live sheep are contraband goods, which all strangers are prohibited from carrying out on pain of having the right hand cut off." (See *Navigation Laws.*) In 1761 the London "Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce" honored him with its medal, and he was made a member of the Royal Society of London. He was the first to introduce the white mulberry into Connecticut, and with it silk-worms, and published a treatise on silk-culture. Mr. Eliot was also an able physician, and was particularly successful in the treatment of insanity and chronic complaints.

Eliot, John, commonly known as the Apostle to the Indians, was born at Nasing, Essex, England, in 1603; died May 20, 1690. Educated at Cambridge, he came to Boston in 1631, and the next year was appointed minister at Roxbury. Seized with a passionate longing for the conversion of the Indians and for improving their condition, he commenced his labors among the twenty tribes within the English domain in Massachusetts in October, 1646. He acquired their language through an Indian servant in his family, made a grammar of it, and translated the Bible into the Indian tongue. It is claimed that Eliot was the first Protestant minister who preached to the Indians in their native tongue. An Indian town called Natick was erected on the Charles River for the "praying Indians" in 1657, and the first Indian church was established there in 1660. During King Philip's War Eliot's efforts in behalf of the praying Indians saved them from destruction by the white people. He travelled extensively, visited many tribes, planted several churches, and once preached before King Philip, who treated him with disdain. He persuaded many to adopt the customs of civilized life, and lived to see twenty-four of them become preachers of the Gospel to their own tribes. His influence among the barbarians was unbounded, and his generosity in helping the sick and afflicted among them was unsparing. Cotton Mather affirmed, "We had a tradition that the country could never perish as long as Eliot was alive." He published many small works on religious subjects, several of which were in the Indian language. His greatest work was the translation of the Bible into the Indian language (1661–66), and was the first Bible ever printed in America. It is much sought after by collectors. A copy was sold in New York in 1868 for $1130. The language in which it was written has perished.

Elizabeth, Queen of England, daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn, was born at Greenwich Sept. 7, 1533; died March 24, 1603. Under the tuition of Roger Ascham she acquired much proficiency in classical learning, and before she was seventeen years of age she was mistress of the Latin, French, and Italian languages, and had read several works in Greek. By education she was attached to the Protestant Church, and was persecuted by her half-sister Mary, who was a Roman Catholic. Elizabeth never married. When quite young her father negotiated for her nuptials with the son of Francis I. of France, but it failed. She flirted awhile with the ambitious Lord Seymour. In 1558 she declined an offer of marriage from Eric, King of Sweden, and also from Philip of Spain. Her sister Mary died Nov. 17, 1558, when Elizabeth was proclaimed queen of England. With caution she proceeded to restore the Protestant religion to ascendency in her kingdom. Her reform began by ordering a large part of the church service to be read in English, and forbade the elevation of the host in her presence. Of the Roman Catholic bishops, only one consented to officiate at her coronation. In 1559 Parliament passed a bill which vested in the crown the supremacy claimed by the pope; the mass was abolished, and the liturgy of Edward VI. restored. In one session the whole system of religion in England was altered by the will of a single young woman. When Francis II. of France assumed the arms and title of King of England in right of his wife, Mary Stuart, Elizabeth sent an army to Scotland which drove the French out of the kingdom. She supported the French Huguenots with money and troops in their struggle with the Roman Catholics in 1562. In 1563 the Parliament, in an address to the queen, entreated her to choose a husband, so as to secure a Protestant succession to the crown. She returned an evasive answer. She gave encouragement to several suitors, after she rejected Philip, among them Archduke Charles of Austria, the Duke of Anjou, and Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester. The latter remained her favorite until his death in 1588. During the greater part of Elizabeth's reign, Cecil, Lord Burleigh, was her prime-minister. For more than twenty years from 1564 England was at peace with foreign nations, and enjoyed great prosperity. Because of the opposite interests in religion, and possibly because of matrimonial affairs, Elizabeth and Philip of

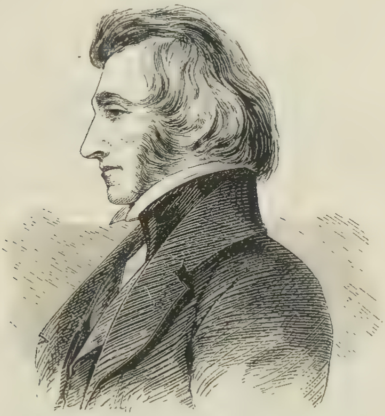
Spain were mutually hostile, and in 1588 the latter sent the "Invincible Armada" for the invasion of England. It consisted of over one hundred and thirty vessels and thirty thousand men. It was defeated and dispersed (Aug. 8), and in a gale more than fifty of the Spanish ships were wrecked. On the death of Leicester the queen showed decided partiality for the Earl of Essex. Her treatment, and final consent to the execution by beheading, of Mary, Queen of Scots, has left a stain on the memory of Elizabeth. She assisted the Protestant Henry IV. of France in his struggles with the French Roman Catholics, whom Philip of Spain subsidized. Her reign was vigorous, and is regarded as exceedingly beneficial to the British nation. Literature was fostered, and it was illustrated during her reign by such men as Spenser, Shakespeare, Sidney, Bacon, and Raleigh. Elizabeth was possessed of eminent ability and courage, but her personal character was deformed by selfishness, inconstancy, deceit, heartlessness, and other unwomanly faults. She signified her will on her deathbed that James VI. of Scotland, son of the beheaded Mary, should be her successor, and he was accordingly crowned as such.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.

Elizabethtown Claimants. For more than a century the dispute between the first settlers at Elizabethtown, N. J. (who came from Long Island and New England), and, first, the proprietors of New Jersey, and, next, the crown, arose and continued concerning the title to the lands on which these settlers were seated. The dispute occurred in consequence of conflicting claims to eminent domain, caused by a dispute about the original title to the soil. The Elizabethtown settlers obtained their land from the Indians, with the consent of Governor Nicolls; but already the Duke of York, without the knowledge of Nicolls or the settlers, had sold the domain of New Jersey to Berkeley and Carteret. (See *New Jersey.*) The new proprietors ignored the title of the settlers, and made demands as absolute proprietors of the soil, which the latter continually resisted themselves, and so did their heirs. Frequent unsuccessful attempts at ejectment were made; the settlers resisted by force. The Assembly, called upon to interfere, usually declined, for that body rather favored the Elizabethan claimants. Finally, in 1757, Governor Belcher procured an act of Assembly, by which all past differences should be buried. It was not acceptable; and in 1751 the British government ordered a commission of inquiry to determine the law and equity in the case. The proprietors also began chancery suits against the heirs of the Elizabethtown settlers, and these were pending when the Revolution broke out (1775) and settled the whole matter.

Ellery, William, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Newport, R. I., Dec. 22, 1727; died there, Feb. 15, 1820. He graduated at Harvard in 1747, became a merchant in Newport, and was naval officer of Rhode Island in 1770. He afterwards studied and practised law at Newport, and gained a high reputation. An active patriot, he was a member of Congress from 1776 to 1785, excepting two years, and was very useful in matters pertaining to finance and diplomacy. He was especially serviceable as a member of the Marine Committee and of the Board of Admiralty. During the occupancy of Rhode Island by the British he suffered great loss of property, but bore it with quiet cheerfulness as a sacrifice for the public good. He was chief-justice of the Superior Court of Rhode Island, and in 1790 was collector of the revenue at Newport. Mr. Ellery was a strenuous advocate of the abolition of slavery.

Ellet, CHARLES L., engineer, was born in Pennsylvania, Jan. 1, 1810; died in Cairo, Ill., June 21, 1862. Mr. Ellet planned and built the first wire suspension bridge in the United States across the Schuylkill at Fairmount. He also planned and constructed the suspension bridge over the Niagara River below the Falls, and other notable bridges. When the Civil War broke out he turned his attention to the construction of steam "rams" for the Western rivers, and a plan proposed by him to the Secretary of War (Mr. Stanton) was adopted, and he soon converted ten or twelve powerful steamers on the Mississippi into "rams," with which he rendered great assistance in the capture of Memphis (which see). In the battle there he was struck by a musket-ball on the knee, from the effects of which he died. Mr. Ellet proposed to General McClellan a plan for cutting off the Confederate army at Manassas, which the latter rejected, and the engineer wrote and published severe strictures on McClellan's mode of conducting the war.



CHARLES ELLET.

Ellicott, ANDREW, civil engineer, was born in Bucks County, Penn., Jan. 24, 1754; died at West Point, N. Y., Aug. 29, 1820. His father and uncle founded the town of Ellicott's Mills, on the Patapsco, Md., in 1790. Andrew was much engaged in public surveying for many years after settling in Baltimore in 1785. In 1789 he made the first accurate measurement of Niagara River from lake to lake, and in 1790 he was employed by the United States government in laying out the city of Washington. In 1792 he was made Surveyor-general of the United States, and in 1796 he was a commissioner to determine the southern boundary between the territory of the United States and Spain, in accordance with a treaty. From Sept. 1, 1813, until his death, Mr. Ellicott was professor of mathematics and civil engineering at West Point.

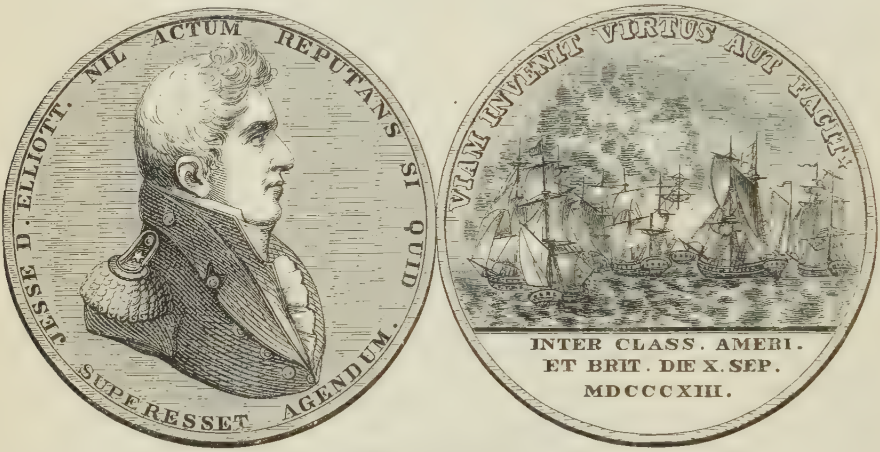
Elliot, Mrs., and Colonel Balfour. After the martyrdom of Colonel Hayne (which see), the hatred and contempt felt for the British officers in Charleston was intense. The women boldly showed their indignation. Mrs. Charles Elliot, sister of Rebecca Motte (see *Fort Motte*), had treated Colonel Balfour with much politeness, and he was fond of her society, for she was a brilliant woman. One day, not long after the execution of Hayne, Balfour was walking in the garden with Mrs. Elliot, when he pointed to a chamomile-flower and asked its name. "The rebel-flower," answered Mrs. Elliot. "And why is it called the rebel-flower?" Balfour inquired. "Because," replied the patriotic woman, "it always flourishes most when trampled upon."

Elliott, CHARLES LORING, portrait-painter, was born at Scipio, N. Y., in December, 1812; died at Albany, Aug. 25, 1868. His father was an architect, and he prepared him for that profession. He became a pupil of Trumbull, in New York, and afterwards of Quidor, a painter of fancy-pieces. Having acquired the technicalities of the art, his chief employment for a time was copying engravings in oil, and afterwards he attempted portraits. He practised portrait-painting in the interior of New York for about ten years, when he went to the city (1845), where he soon rose to the head of his profession as a portrait-painter. It is said that he painted seven hundred portraits, many of them of distinguished men. His likenesses were always remarkable for fidelity, and beauty and vigor of coloring.

Elliott, JESSE DUNCAN, was born in Maryland, July 14, 1782; died in Philadelphia, Dec. 10, 1845. He entered the United States Navy as midshipman in April, 1804, and rose to master July 24, 1813. He was with Barron in the Tripolitan War, and served on the Lakes with Chauncey and Perry in the War of 1812–15. He captured two British vessels (*Detroit* and *Caledonia*) at Fort Erie, for which exploit he was pre-

JESSE DUNCAN ELLIOTT.

sented by Congress with a sword. He was in command of the *Niagara* in Perry's famous combat on Lake Erie, to which the commodore went from the *Lawrence* during the action. (See *Lake Erie, Battle on.*) He succeeded Perry in command on Lake Erie in October, 1813. Elliott was with Decatur in the Mediterranean in 1815, and was promoted to captain in March, 1818. He commanded the West India squadron (1829–32); took charge of the navy-yard at Charleston in 1833; and afterwards cruised several years in the Mediterranean. On his return he was court-martialled, and suspended from command for four years. A part of the sentence was remitted, and in 1844 he was appointed to the command of the navy-yard at Philadelphia. For the part which Elliott took in the battle of Lake Erie Congress awarded him the thanks of the nation and a gold medal.


JESSE D. ELLIOTT. NIL ACTUM REPUTANS SI QUID SUPERESSET AGENDUM.
VIAM INVENIT VIRTUS AUT FACIT.
INTER CLASS. AMERI.
ET BRIT. DIE X. SEP.
MDCCCXIII.

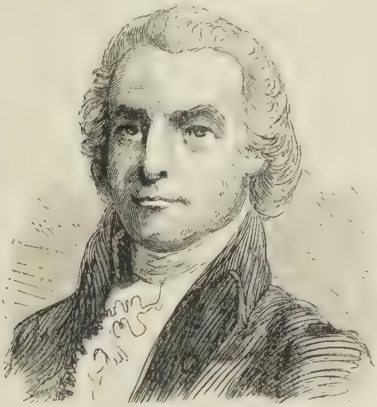
THE ELLIOTT MEDAL.

Elliott's Exploit at Fort Erie. Black Rock, two miles below Buffalo, was selected as a place for a dock-yard for fitting out naval vessels for Lake Erie. Lieutenant Jesse D. Elliott, then only twenty-seven years of age, while on duty there, was informed of the arrival at Fort Erie, opposite, of two vessels from Detroit, both well manned and well armed and laden with valuable cargoes of peltry. They were the *Caledonia,* a vessel belonging to the Northwestern Fur Company, and the *John Adams,* taken at the surrender of Hull, with the name changed to *Detroit.* They arrived on the morning of Oct. 8 (1812), and Elliott at once conceived a plan for their capture. Timely aid offered. The same day a detachment of unarmed seamen arrived from New York. Elliott turned to the military for assistance. Lieutenant-colonel Scott was then at Black Rock, and entered warmly into Elliott's plans. General Smyth, the commanding officer, favored them. Captain Towson, of the artillery, was detailed, with fifty men, for the service; and sailors under General Winder, at Buffalo, were ordered out, well armed. Several citizens joined the expedition, and the whole number, rank and file, was about one hundred and twenty-four men. Two large boats were taken to the mouth of Buffalo Creek, and in these the expedition embarked at midnight. At one o'clock in the morning (Oct. 9) they left the creek, while scores of people watched anxiously on the shore for the result. The sharp crack of a pistol, the roll of musketry, followed by silence, and the moving of two dark objects down the river proclaimed that the enterprise had been successful. Joy was manifested on the shores by shouts and the waving of lanterns. The vessels and their men had been made captives in less than ten minutes. The guns at Fort Erie were brought to bear upon the vessels. A struggle for their possession ensued. The *Detroit* was finally burned, but the *Caledonia* was saved, and afterwards did good service in Perry's fleet on Lake Erie. In this brilliant affair the Americans lost one killed and five wounded. The loss of the British is not known. A shot from Fort Erie crossed the river and instantly killed Major William Howe Cuyler, aid to General Hull, of Watertown, N.Y. The *Caledonia* was a rich prize; her cargo was valued at $200,000.

Ellsworth, Ephraim Elmer, was born at Mechanicsville, N. Y., April 23, 1837; killed at Alexandria, Va., May 24, 1861. He was first engaged in mercantile business in Troy, N. Y., and as a patent solicitor in Chicago he acquired a good income. While studying law he joined a Zouave corps at Chicago, and in July, 1860, visited some of the Eastern cities of the Union with them, and attracted great attention. On his return he organized a Zouave regiment in Chicago; and in April, 1861, he organized another from the New York Fire Department. These were among the earlier troops that hastened to Washington. Leading his Zouaves to Alexandria, Ellsworth was shot by the proprietor of the Marshall House, while he was descending the stairs with a Secession flag which he had pulled down. (See *Virginia, Invasion of.*) His body was taken to Washington, and lay in state in the East Room of the White House. It was then taken to New York, where it lay in state in the City Hall, and, after being carried in procession through the streets of the city, it was conveyed to his birthplace for burial. He was young and handsome, and his death, being the first of note that had occurred in the opening war, produced a profound sensation throughout the country.

EPHRAIM ELMER ELLSWORTH.

Ellsworth, Oliver, LL.D., was born at Windsor, Conn., April 29, 1745; died Nov. 26, 1807. He graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1766; was admitted to the bar in 1771; practised in Hartford, Conn.; and was made state attorney. When the war for independence was kindling he took the side of the patriots in the Legislature of Connecticut, and was a delegate in Congress from 1777 to 1780. He became a member of the State Council, and in 1784 was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court. Judge Ellsworth was one of the framers of the National Constitution, but, being called away before the adjournment of the convention, his name was not attached to that instrument. He was the first United States Senator from Connecticut (1789–95), and drew up the bill for organizing the Judiciary Department. In 1796 he was made Chief-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States, and at the close of 1799 he was one of the envoys to France (which see).



OLIVER ELLSWORTH.

El Molino del Rey and Casa de Mata, Capture of (1847). Almost within cannon-shot distance of the city of Mexico is Chapultepec, a hill composed of porphyritic rock, and known in the Aztec language as "Grasshoppers' Hill." It rises from the ancient shore of Lake Tezcuco, and was the favorite resort of the Aztec princes. It was also the site of the palace and gardens of Montezuma. That hill was crowned with a strong castle and Military College, supported by numerous outworks, which, with the steepness of the ascent to it, seemed to make it impregnable. Only the slope towards the city was easily ascended, and that was covered with a thick forest. At the foot of the hill was a stone building, with thick high walls, and towers at the end, known as El Molino del Rey—"The King's Mill." About four hundred yards from this was another massive stone building, known as Casa de Mata. The former was used (1847) as a cannon-foundery by the Mexicans, and the latter was a depository of gunpowder. Both were armed and strongly garrisoned. General Scott, at Tacubaya, ascertained that Santa Aña, while negotiations for peace were going on, had sent church bells out of the city to be cast into cannons, and he determined to seize both of these strong buildings and deprive the Mexicans of those sources of strength. He proposed to first attack El Molino del Rey, which was commanded by General Leon. The Mexican force at these defences was about fourteen thousand strong, their left wing resting on El Molino del Rey, their centre forming a connecting line with Casa de Mata and supported by a field-battery, and their right wing resting on the latter. To the division of General Worth was intrusted the task of assailing the works before them. At three o'clock on the morning of Sept. 8 (1847) the assaulting columns moved to the attack, Garland's brigade forming the right wing. The battle began at dawn by Huger's 24-pounder opening on El Molino del Rey, when Major Wright, of the Eighth Infantry, fell upon the centre with five hundred picked men. On the left was the second brigade, commanded by Colonel McIntosh, supported by Duncan's battery. The assault of Major Wright on the centre drove back infantry and artillery, and the Mexican field-battery was captured. The Mexicans soon rallied and regained their position, and a terrible struggle ensued. El Molino del Rey was soon assailed and carried by Garland's brigade, and at the same time the battle around Casa de Mata was raging fiercely. For a moment the Americans reeled, but soon recovered, when a large column of Mexicans was seen filing around the right of their intrenchments to fall upon the Americans who had been driven back, when Duncan's battery opened upon them so destructively that the Mexican column was scattered in confusion. Then Sumner's dragoons charged upon them, and their rout was complete. The slaughter had been dreadful. Nearly one fourth of Worth's corps were either killed or wounded. The Mexicans had left one thousand dead on the field. Their best leaders had been slain, and eight hundred men had been made prisoners. The strong buildings were blown up, and none of the defences of Mexico outside its gates now remained to them, excepting the Castle of Chapultepec and its supports. (See *Chapultepec.*)

Emancipation of Slaves. By the President's Emancipation Proclamation (which see), the number of slaves set free was as follows:

Arkansas	111,104	South Carolina	402,541
Alabama	435,132	Texas	180,682
Florida	61,753	Virginia (part)	450,437
Georgia	462,232	Louisiana (part)	247,734
Mississippi	436,696		
North Carolina	275,081	Total	3,063,392

The institution was not disturbed by the proclamation in eight states, which contained 831,780 slaves, distributed as follows:

Delaware	1,798	Tennessee	275,784
Kentucky	225,490	Louisiana (part)	85,281
Maryland	87,188	West Virginia	12,761
Missouri	114,465	Virginia (part)	29,013

The remainder were emancipated by the Thirteenth Amendment to the National Constitution, making the whole number set free 3,895,172.

Emancipation of Slaves, PROCLAMATION OF (1863). On July 16, 1862, Congress passed an act for the suppression of slavery, one provision of which declared the absolute "freedom of the slaves of rebels" under certain operations of war therein defined. This gave the President a wide field for the exercise of executive power, but he used it with great prudence. The patient Lincoln hoped the wise men among the insurgents might heed the threat contained in the act. Finally, in September, he issued a warning proclamation, declaring that in case the enemies of the government did not lay down their arms before the 1st of January, 1863, he would then issue a proclamation of the freedom of the slaves. This warning was unheeded, and on the day mentioned the President issued the following proclamation:

"PROCLAMATION.

"*Whereas*, On the 22d day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-two, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things, the following, to wit:

"'That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.

"'That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof, respectively, shall then be in rebellion against the United States; and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State, and the people thereof, are not then in rebellion against the United States.'

"Now, therefore, I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against the authority and Government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaimed for the full period of one hundred days from the day first above mentioned, order and designate, as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof, respectively, are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, to wit:

"Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana (except the parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James, Ascension, Assumption, Terre Bonne, Lafourche, Ste. Marie, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the city of New Orleans), Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia (except the forty-eight counties designated as West Virginia and also the counties of Berkley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Anne, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk and Portsmouth), and which excepted parts are, for the present, left precisely as if this proclamation were not issued.

"And by virtue of the power and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States and parts of States are, and henceforward shall be, free; and that the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.

"And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence; and I recommend to them that, in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

"And I further declare and make known that such persons, of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States, to garrison forts, positions, stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

"And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

"In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my name, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

[L. S.] "Done at the City of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, and of the Independence of the United States the eighty-seventh.

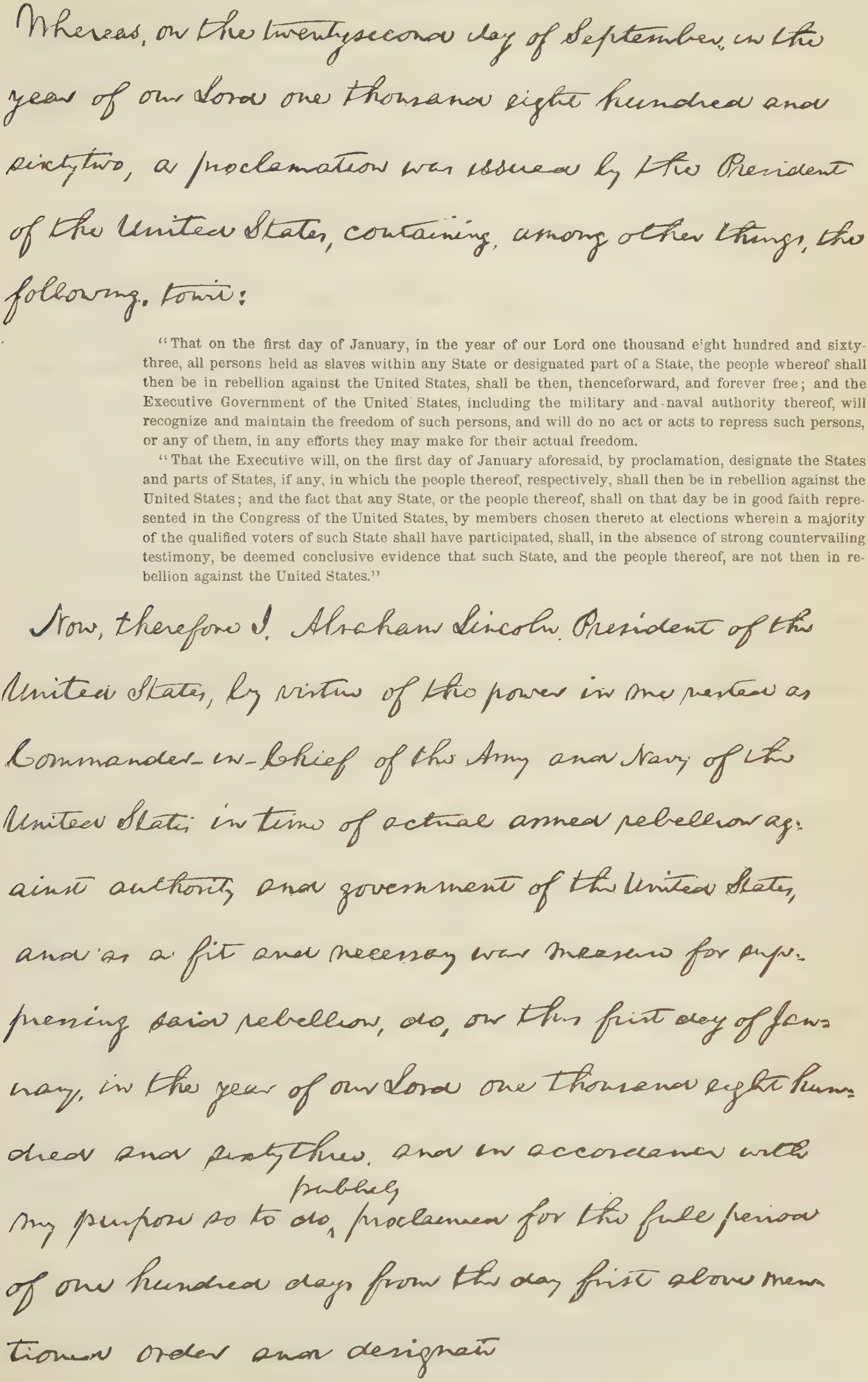
"ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

"By the President:
"WILLIAM H. SEWARD, *Secretary of State.*

(See fac-simile on pages 433 to 436 inclusive.)

Emancipation of the Slaves (1863). The second session of the Thirty-seventh Congress commenced Dec. 2, 1861. A civil war of unparalleled magnitude was then raging. The people and their representatives were satisfied that slavery was the cause of the fratricidal strife, and it was not long before they perceived the necessity for destroying the system in order to save the life of the Republic. They perceived that it nurtured, by the labor of slaves, the men who were making war on the Republic, and that very few of the white people need be kept from the Confederate armies to carry on agricultural operations at home. The President and the loyal people therefore resolved to destroy the system by some method of abolition. The former kindly proposed to give pecuniary aid to any state government which might provide for the abolition of slavery. The kind proposition tested the temper of the slaveholders. They refused to listen, and a conference of Congressmen of the border slave-labor states, which Mr. Lincoln called, and to whom he submitted a plan for compensating the holders of slaves, told him plainly that it was his "duty to avoid all interference, direct or indirect, with slavery in the Southern States;" and their constituents generally scouted the proposition with scorn. Any further offer of compromise with the enemies of the Republic was seen to be useless, and Congress proceeded to deal vigorously with slavery, the strong right arm of the warriors against the national government. They proceeded to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia, over which Congress had exclusive control. A bill became a law (March 13, 1862), providing for the confiscation of the property of rebels against the government, which included the emancipation of their slaves. It prohibited all

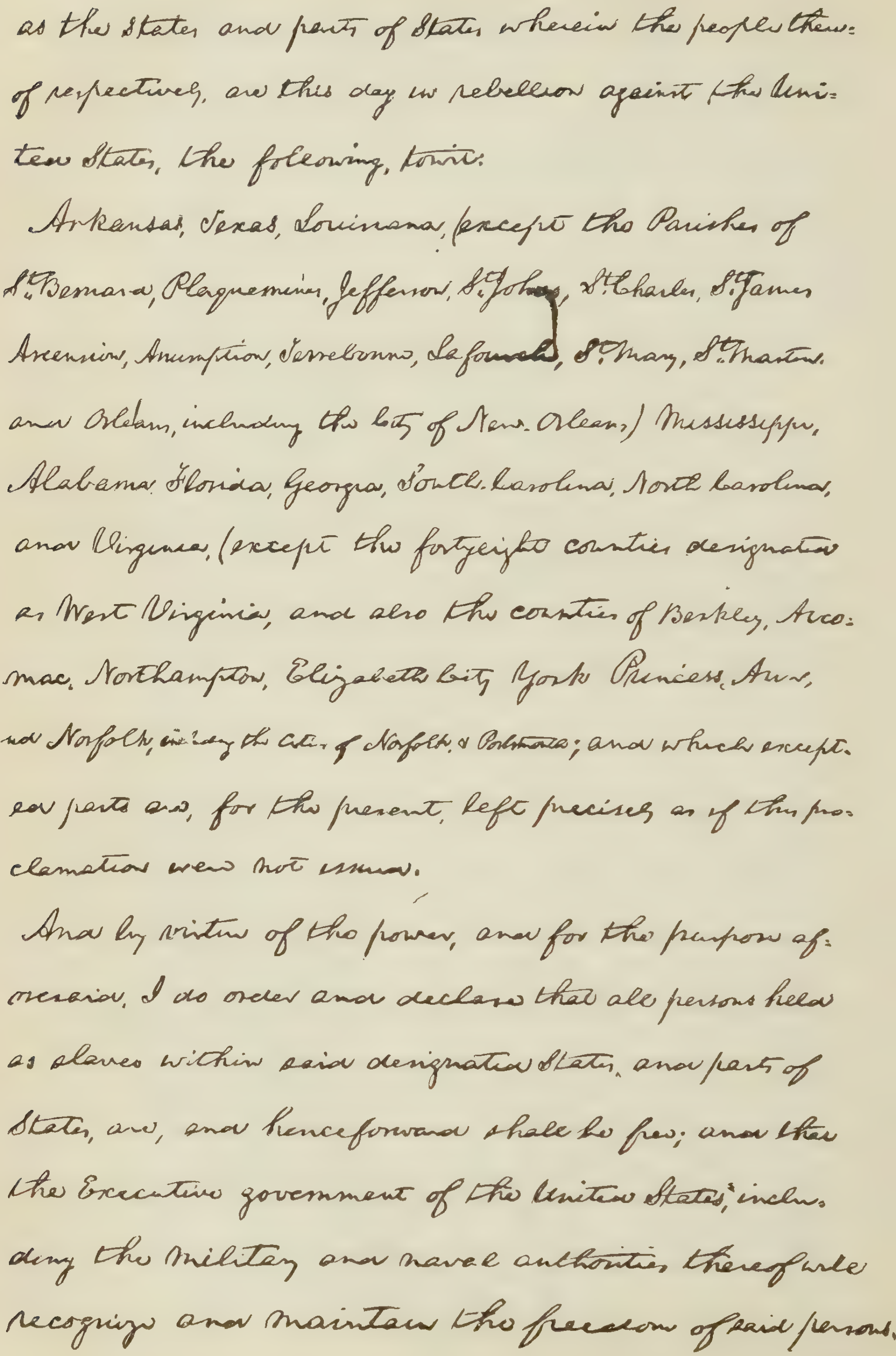
FAC-SIMILE OF THE PROCLAMATION OF EMANCIPATION.



Whereas, on the twentysecond day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixtytwo, a proclamation was issued by the President of the United States, containing, among other things, the following, towit:

> "That on the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-three, all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State, the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States, shall be then, thenceforward, and forever free; and the Executive Government of the United States, including the military and naval authority thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of such persons, and will do no act or acts to repress such persons, or any of them, in any efforts they may make for their actual freedom.
>
> "That the Executive will, on the first day of January aforesaid, by proclamation, designate the States and parts of States, if any, in which the people thereof, respectively, shall then be in rebellion against the United States; and the fact that any State, or the people thereof, shall on that day be in good faith represented in the Congress of the United States, by members chosen thereto at elections wherein a majority of the qualified voters of such State shall have participated, shall, in the absence of strong countervailing testimony, be deemed conclusive evidence that such State, and the people thereof, are not then in rebellion against the United States."

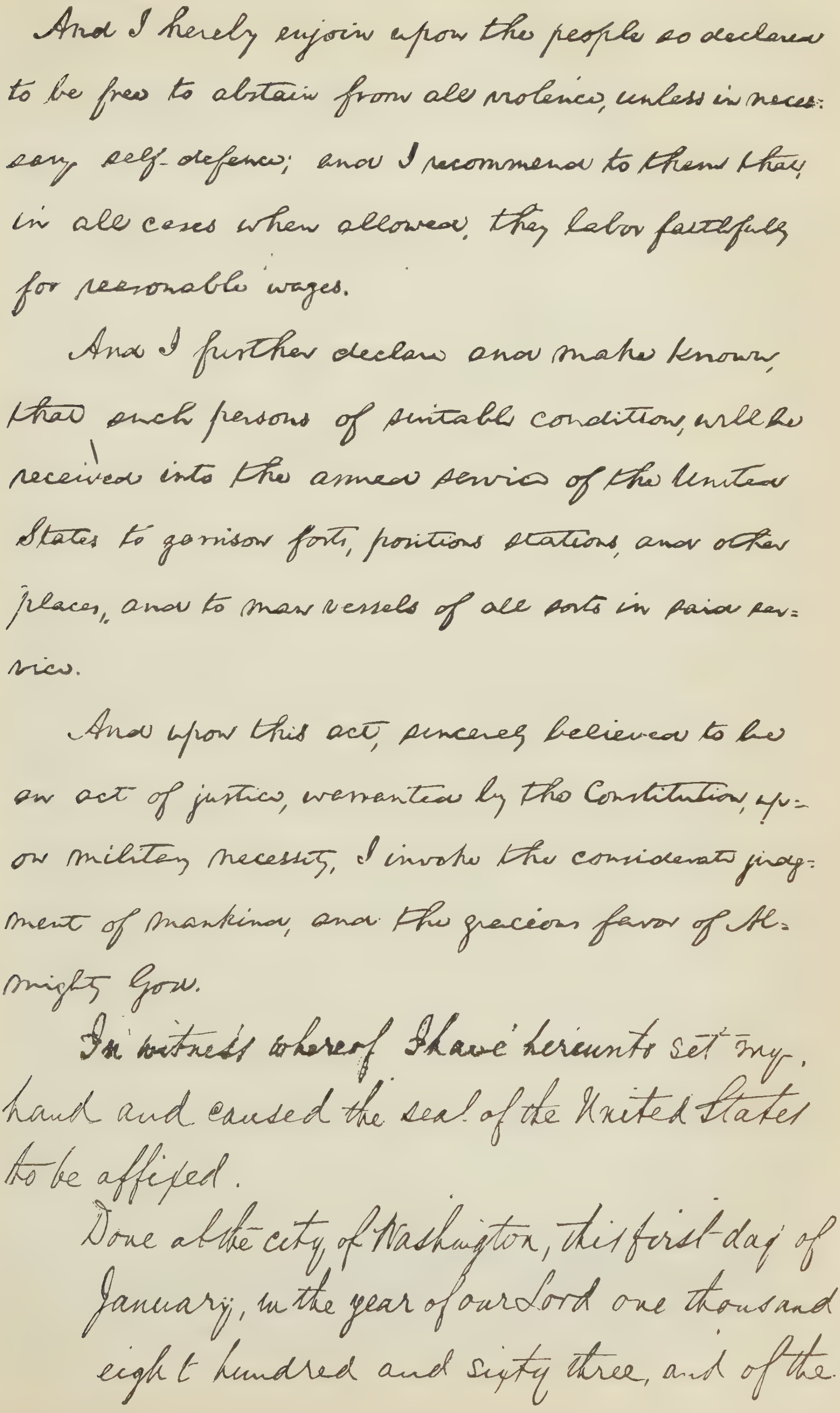
Now, therefore I, Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, by virtue of the power in me vested as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States in time of actual armed rebellion against authority and government of the United States, and as a fit and necessary war measure for suppressing said rebellion, do, on this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixtythree, and in accordance with my purpose so to do, publicly proclaimed for the full period of one hundred days from the day first above mentioned, order and designate



as the States and parts of States wherein the people thereof respectively, are this day in rebellion against the United States, the following, towit:

Arkansas, Texas, Louisiana, (except the Parishes of St. Bernard, Plaquemines, Jefferson, St. John, St. Charles, St. James Ascension, Assumption, Terrebonne, Lafourche, St. Mary, St. Martin, and Orleans, including the City of New-Orleans) Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, South-Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia, (except the fortyeight counties designated as West Virginia, and also the counties of Berkley, Accomac, Northampton, Elizabeth City, York, Princess Ann, and Norfolk, including the cities of Norfolk & Portsmouth; and which excepted parts are, for the present, left precisely as if this proclamation were not issued.

And by virtue of the power, and for the purpose aforesaid, I do order and declare that all persons held as slaves within said designated States, and parts of States, are, and henceforward shall be free; and that the Executive government of the United States, including the military and naval authorities thereof, will recognize and maintain the freedom of said persons.



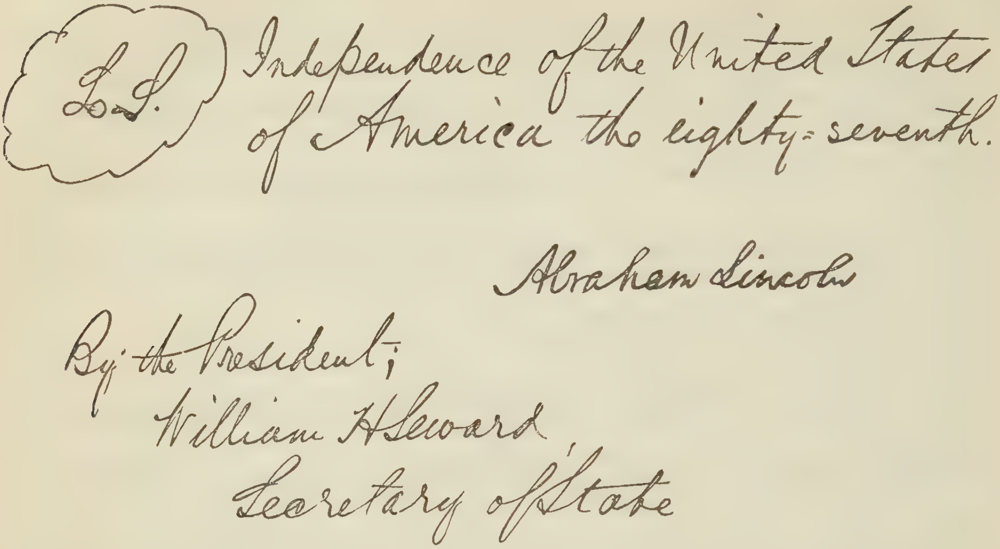
And I hereby enjoin upon the people so declared to be free to abstain from all violence, unless in necessary self-defence; and I recommend to them that, in all cases when allowed, they labor faithfully for reasonable wages.

And I further declare and make known, that such persons of suitable condition, will be received into the armed service of the United States to garrison forts, positions stations, and other places, and to man vessels of all sorts in said service.

And upon this act, sincerely believed to be an act of justice, warranted by the Constitution, upon military necessity, I invoke the considerate judgment of mankind, and the gracious favor of Almighty God.

In witness whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty three, and of the



(L.S.) Independence of the United States of America the eighty-seventh.

Abraham Lincoln

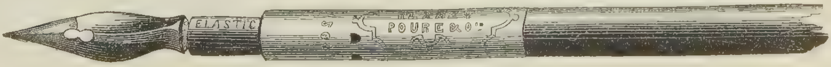
By the President;
William H Seward,
Secretary of State

officers in the military or naval service of the Republic returning alleged fugitive slaves to their masters. On July 15, 1862, another law was perfected, which declared the absolute freedom of the slaves of public enemies under certain operations of war therein defined. The President, hoping the wiser and cooler men of the Confederacy might heed the warning, hesitated to act. The loyal people became impatient, and he was hard pressed by remonstrances and petitions. Finally a deputation from a convention in Chicago of Christians of all denominations waited upon him (Sept. 13, 1862) with a memorial requesting him at once to issue a proclamation of universal emancipation. The President, believing the time had not yet come for an act so radical, and especially at that critical juncture, when the National armies seemed everywhere to be weak, said, "I do not wish to issue a document that the whole world would see must necessarily be inoperative, like the Pope's bull against the comet." He said he was in sympathy with them; and when the committee left he said, "Whatever shall appear to be God's will, I will do." On the 22d he issued a preliminary proclamation of emancipation, in which he declared it to be his purpose, at the next meeting of Congress, to again recommend pecuniary compensation in aid of emancipation in states in which insurrection did not exist. He then declared that on the 1st of January next ensuing "the slaves within every state or designated part of a state, the people whereof should then be in rebellion," should be declared "thenceforward and forever free;" such freedom to be maintained by the whole force of the government, which should not, at the same time, repress any efforts the slaves might make for their actual freedom. This warning was treated with scorn, and was used to "fire the Southern heart" as evidence that the war was waged for the liberation of the slaves, and not for the restoration of the Union. When the hundred days fixed for the determining of this momentous movement had expired it was found that the enemies of the Republic were more rebellious than ever. Accordingly, on the first day of January, 1863, President Lincoln issued his famous "Proclamation of Emancipation," which speedily led to a radical revolution in the social and labor systems among a large portion of the inhabitants of the Republic. (See *Emancipation of Slaves, Proclamation of.*) This proclamation, considered in all its relations, was one of the most important public documents ever issued by the hand of man. As the centuries roll on, mankind, more and more completely emancipated from the thraldom of injustice at the hands of the stronger, will regard it with ever-deepening reverence as the consummation of the hopes and labors of the founders of the Republic, who declared that "*all* men are created equal." Unlike the preliminary proclamation, it was wonderfully potential. The loyal portion of the nation, educated by the teachings of events to an habitual and profound sense of justice as well as expediency involved in such an act, were waiting with impatience for the proclamation. While the friends of the govment hailed its appearance with joy, the conspirators against the life of the Republic were struck with dismay. The charming vision of a magnificent empire whose fundamental policy was avowed to be human slavery was suddenly changed; and they clearly saw that the whole fabric of their hopes and ambitious schemes was only a dissolving view—a baseless structure of a dream. The Golden Circle (which see) suddenly narrowed to a mere speck in the imagination of its inventors, and the whole gorgeous group of dignitaries who were to administer the public affairs of the grand slave empire of the West, stretching from Mason and Dixon's Line (which see) to the tropics, became transformed by the touch of this spear of Ithureal. The proclamation—so calm, so clear, so decided, and withal so evidently fraught with irresistible power—carried joy and hope to the hearts of suffering millions in the Eastern Hemisphere. It touched with a mighty power a chord of sympathy in the bosom of every genuine aspirant for freedom in Europe to whom it was revealed, and elicited a quick response. From the hour when that proclamation was promulgated the prayers of true men in all lands ascended to the throne of Heaven in supplications for the success of the armies of the Republic in their struggle with its enemies. From the moment when that act of justice was proclaimed by the chief magistrate of the nation the power of the foes of the government began to grow more and more feeble. Already thousands of freedmen—made so by the decision that they were "contrabands" (which see)—had entered the public service in various ways, and a large number of them were enrolled as soldiers in the National army. From that moment until the close of the Civil War victory followed victory for the Union troops in quick succession. The proclamation was signed by Abraham Lincoln, President of the United States, and by William H. Seward, Secretary of State. The first tidings by the mouth of man given of it to the freedmen was uttered to a regiment of them in arms, beneath a magnificent live-oak tree, near Beaufort, S. C., within bugle-sound of the place where the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession (which see) for the perpetuation of slavery was framed. It was announced by Dr. Brisbane, a native of South Carolina. By the adoption afterwards of the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, slavery was abolished from the domain of the Republic. It will be observed that the signature of President Lincoln to the proclamation is in a slightly tremulous hand. He signed it on New-year's morning, after shaking hands with numerous callers.*

Emancipation of Ireland. Ireland had suffered even more than the United States from the restrictive legislation and colonial monopoly of Great Britain. Its volunteer army (see *Ireland*), commanded by officers of their own choice, amounted to about fifty thousand at the close of the war with America (1782). They were united under one general-in-chief. Feeling strong in the right and in its material and moral vitality at the moment, and encouraged by the success of the Americans, Ireland demanded reforms for herself. The viceroy reported that unless it was determined that the knot which bound the two countries should be severed forever, the points required by the Irish Parliament must be conceded. It was a critical moment. Eden, who was secretary for Ireland, proposed the repeal of the act of George I. which asserted the right of the Parliament of Great Britain to make laws to bind the people and the kingdom of Ireland—the right claimed for Parliament which drove the Americans to war—and the Rockingham ministry adopted and carried the important measure. Appeals from the courts of Ireland to the British House of Peers were abolished; the restraints on independent legislation were done away with, and Ireland, still owing allegiance to Great Britain, obtained the independence of its Parliament. This was the fruit of the war for independence in America. The people of Ireland owed the vindication of their rights to the patriots of the United States; but their gratitude took the direction of their complained-of oppressor, and their legislature voted $500,000 for the levy of twenty thousand seamen to strengthen the royal navy, whose ships had not yet been withdrawn from American waters, and which, with an army, were still menacing the liberties of the Americans.

Embargo Act, FIRST (1794). The British Orders in Council (Nov. 6, 1793) and a reported speech of Lord Dorchester (Guy Carleton) to a deputation of the Western Indians, produced much indignation against the British government. Under the stimulus of this excitement Congress passed (March 26, 1794) a joint resolution laying an embargo on commerce for thirty days. The measure seemed to have chiefly in view the obstructing the supply of provisions for the British fleet and army in the West Indies. It operated quite as much against the French. Subsequently (April 7) a resolution was introduced to discontinue all commercial intercourse with Great Britain and her subjects, as far as respected all articles of the growth or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, until the surrender of the Western posts (see *Jay's Treaty*), and ample compensation should be given for all losses and damages growing out of British aggression on the neutral rights of the Americans. It was evident from the course of the debate and the temper of the House that the resolution would be adopted. This measure would have led directly to war. To avert this calamity Washington was inclined to send a special minister to England. The appointment of Jay followed. (See *Jay's Treaty*.)

Embargo Act (1807). On the receipt of despatches from Minister Armstrong, at Paris, containing information about the new interpretation of the Berlin Decree and also of the British Orders in Council, President Jefferson, who had called Congress together earlier than usual (Oct. 25, 1807), sent a message to that body communicating facts in his possession and recommending the passage of an embargo act—"an inhibition of the departure of our vessels from the ports of the United States." The Senate, after a session of four hours, passed a bill—

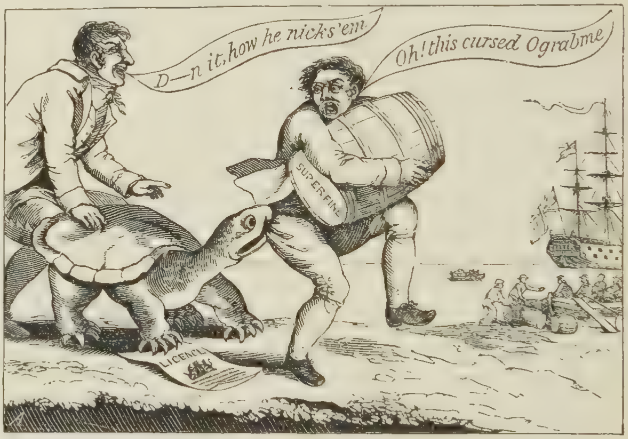


* The pen with which President Lincoln wrote his Proclamation of Emancipation was given to Senator Sumner by the President, at the request of the former, and by him presented to the late George Livermore, of Boston. It is a steel pen, of the kind called "The Washington," in a common cedar holder—all as plain and unostentatious as was the President himself.

twenty-two to six—laying an embargo on all shipping, foreign and domestic, in the ports of the United States, with specified exceptions, and ordering all vessels abroad to return home forthwith. This was done in secret session. The House, also with closed doors, debated the bill three days and nights, and it was passed by a vote of eighty-two to forty-four, and became a law Dec. 22, 1807. Unlimited in its duration and universal in its application, the embargo was an experiment never before tried by any nation—an attempt to compel two belligerent powers to respect the rights of neutrals by withholding intercourse with all the world. It accomplished nothing, or worse than nothing. It aroused against the United States whatever spirit of honor and pride existed in both nations. Opposition to the measure, in and out of Congress, was violent and incessant, and on March 1, 1809, it was repealed. At the same time Congress passed a law forbidding all commercial intercourse with France and England until the Orders in Council and the decrees should be repealed.

Embargo Act (preliminary to war, 1812). The continued aggressions of the British upon American commerce created a powerful war party in the United States in 1811, and a stirring report of the Committee on Foreign Relations, submitted to Congress in November, intensified that feeling. Bills were speedily passed for augmenting the army, and other preparations for war were made soon after the opening of the year 1812. The President was averse to war, but his party urged and threatened him so pertinaciously that he consented to declare war against Great Britain. As a preliminary measure he sent a confidential message to Congress (April 1, 1812) recommending the passage of an act laying an embargo for sixty days. A bill was introduced to that effect by Mr. Calhoun, of South Carolina, which prohibited the sailing of any vessel for any foreign port, except foreign ships with such cargoes as they might have on board when notified of the act. The bill was passed (April 6), and was speedily followed by a supplementary act (April 14) prohibiting exportations by land, whether of goods or specie. The latter measure was called the land embargo. It was vehemently denounced, for it suddenly suppressed an active and lucrative trade between the United States and Canada.

Embargo Act (1813). It was ascertained that the British blockading squadron in American waters was constantly supplied with provisions from American ports by unpatriotic men; also that British manufactures were being introduced on professedly neutral vessels. Such traffic was extensively carried on, especially in New England ports, where magistrates were often leniently disposed towards such violators of law. In a confidential message (Dec. 9, 1813) the President recommended the passage of an embargo act to suppress the traffic, and one passed both Houses on the 17th, to remain in force until Jan. 1, 1815, unless the war should sooner cease. It prohibited, under severe penalties, the exportation, or attempt at exportation, by land or water, of any goods, produce, specie, or live stock; and to guard against evasions even the coast trade was entirely prohibited. This bore heavily on the business of some of the New England sea-coast towns. No transportation was allowed, even on inland waters, without special permission from the President. While the act bore so heavily on honest traders, it pretty effectually stopped the illicit business of "speculators, knaves, and traders, who enriched themselves at the expense of the community." This act, like all similar ones, was called a "terrapin policy;" and illustrative of it was a caricature representing a British vessel in the offing, some men embarking goods in a boat on the shore, and a stout man carrying a barrel of flour towards the boat, impeded by being seized by the seat of his pantaloons by an enormous terrapin, urged on by a man who cries out, "D—n it, how he nicks 'em." The victim exclaims, "Oh! this cursed Ograbme!"—the letters of the last word, transposed, spell *embargo*. This act was repealed in April, 1814.



EMBARGO.

Embargo, Propositions to Great Britain concerning the. Feeling the pressure of the opposition to the embargo at home, Pinckney was authorized to propose to the British ministry a repeal of the Embargo Act, as to Great Britain, on condition of the recall of her Orders in Council. Not wishing to encounter a refusal, Pinckney sounded Canning, the Secretary for Foreign Affairs, who gradually led the American minister into making a formal proposition. To this Canning made a reply (Sept. 28, 1808) in writing, unsurpassed in diplomatic cunning and partially concealed sarcasm. It also contained sound views on the whole subject of the orders and decrees. Canning insisted that as France was the original aggressor, by the issuing of the Berlin

Decree, retaliation (the claimed cause of the embargo) ought, in the first instance, to have been directed against that power alone; and England could not consent to buy off a hostile procedure, of which she ought never to have been made the object, at the expense of a concession made, not to the United States, upon whom the operation of the British orders was merely incidental, but to France, against which country, in a spirit of just retaliation, they had been originally aimed. The Berlin Decree had been the beginning of an attempt to overthrow the political power of Great Britain by destroying her commerce, and almost all Europe had been compelled to join in that attempt; and the American embargo had, in fact, come in aid of Napoleon's continental system. This attempt, Canning said, was not likely to succeed, yet it was important to the reputation of Great Britain not to show the least sign of yielding while the slightest doubt existed of its unequivocal failure, or the smallest link in the confederacy against her remained undissolved. The disconcerted American ambassador, evidently piqued at the result of his proposition, advised his government to persevere in the embargo. The embargo was far less effectual abroad than it was supposed it would be, and the difficulty of maintaining it strictly at home caused its repeal in March, 1809.

Embargo, Public Reception of the. The decided support of the embargo (which see) given by both Houses of Congress was supplemented by resolutions of the Legislatures of Georgia, the Carolinas, Virginia, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New Hampshire. An Enforcement Act was passed (January, 1809), and, to make it efficient, the employment of twelve additional revenue cutters was authorized; also the fitting out for service of all the ships of war and gunboats. This Enforcement Act was despotic, and would not have been tolerated except as a temporary expedient, for the Orders in Council were mild in their effects upon American trade and commerce compared with that of this Embargo Act. It pretty effectually suppressed extensive smuggling, which was carried on between the United States and Canada, and at many sea-ports, especially in New England. But the opposition clamored for its repeal. At the opening of the year 1814 there were expectations, speedily realized, of peace near; also of a general pacification of Europe. These signs were pointed to by the opposition as cogent reasons for the repeal. These considerations had weight, added to which was the necessity for increasing the revenue. Finally, on the 19th of January (1814), the President recommended the repeal of the Embargo Act, and it was done by Congress on the 14th of April. There were great rejoicings throughout the country, and the demise of the Terrapin was hailed as a good omen of commercial prosperity. The "Death of the Embargo" was celebrated in verses published in the *Federal Republican* newspaper of Georgetown, in the District of Columbia. These were reproduced in the New York *Evening Post*, with an illustration designed by John Wesley Jarvis, the painter, and drawn and engraved on wood by Dr. Alexander Anderson. The picture was redrawn and engraved by Dr. Anderson (which see), on a reduced scale, for the author in 1864, after a lapse of exactly fifty years. The lines which it illustrates are as follows:

TERRAPIN'S ADDRESS.

"Reflect, my friend, as you pass by,
As *you* are *now*, so once was I:
As *I* am *now*, so *you* may be—
Laid on your back to die like me!
I was, indeed, true sailor born;
To quit my friend in death I scorn.
Once Jemmy seemed to be my friend,
But basely brought me to my end!
Of head bereft, and light, and breath,
I hold *Fidelity* in death:
For 'Sailors' Rights' I still will tug;
And Madison to death I'll hug,
For his perfidious zeal displayed
For 'Sailors' Rights and for Free-trade.'
This small atonement I will have—
I'll lug down Jemmy to the grave.
Then trade and commerce shall be free,
And sailors have their liberty.
Of head bereft, and light, and breath,
The Terrapin, still true in death,
Will punish Jemmy's perfidy—
Leave trade and brother sailors free."

DEATH OF THE TERRAPIN, OR THE EMBARGO.

PASSENGER'S REPLY.

"Yes, Terrapin, bereft of breath,
We see thee faithful still in death.
Stick to't—'Free-trade and Sailors' Rights.'
Hug Jemmy—press him—hold him—bite.
Never mind thy head—thou'lt live without it;
Spunk will preserve thy life—don't doubt it.
Down to the grave, t' atone for sin,
Jemmy must go with Terrapin.
Bear *him* but off, and we shall see
Commerce restored and *sailors free!*
Hug, Terrapin, with all thy might—
Now for 'Free-trade and Sailors' Right.'
Stick to him, Terrapin! to thee the nation
Now eager looks—then die for her salvation.
"Florcat Respublica.

"Banks of Goose Creek, City of Washington,
15th April, 1814."

Emerson, Ralph Waldo, is the leader of the transcendental school of New England, and was born in Boston, May 25, 1803. He graduated at Harvard in 1821; taught school five years, and in 1826 was licensed to preach by the Middlesex (Unitarian) Association. In the winter of 1833–

34, after returning from Europe, he began the career of a lecturer and essayist. Marrying in 1835, he fixed his residence at Concord, Mass., and was a contributor to, and finally editor of, *The Dial*, a quarterly magazine, and organ of the New England transcendentalists. He has lived the quiet life of a literary man and philosopher, with the reputation, for full forty years, of a profound thinker and elegant writer. He has published essays, poems, biographies, and lectures. (See *Transcendentalism.*)

Emigration from Maryland proposed. In consequence of an annoying social ostracism to which the Roman Catholics in Maryland were subjected, an application (1751) was made to the French court in their behalf for a grant of land in Louisiana, to which they proposed to emigrate. This application was made by Charles Carroll (a wealthy landed proprietor and hereditary agent of the Baltimore family), one of whose family was afterwards a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and another the first Roman Catholic bishop in the United States. The application was not successful, probably because the French court did not think it prudent to introduce an English colony into Louisiana.

Emigration to America regulated. In April, 1637, King Charles I. issued a proclamation to restrain what was called the "disorderly transportation of his subjects to the American colonies." It commanded that no license be given them without a certificate that they had taken the oaths of supremacy and allegiance, and conformed to the discipline of the Church of England. On complaint of several disorders in New England, especially in ecclesiastical matters, the king, in July (1637), appointed Sir Ferdinando Gorges governor-general of that domain; but Archbishop Laud, the enemy of religious liberty, and other lords of council, having lost their authority, this last-named arrangement was never carried out. In May, 1638, the Privy Council of England issued an order for the Lord Treasurer to take immediate and effective measures for procuring the stay of eight ships then lying in the Thames, prepared to sail for New England. It is said that in these Oliver Cromwell, Sir Arthur Hazlering, John Hampden, and others of republican proclivities, were about to sail for America. These were the men who were largely influential in bringing the king to the scaffold in less than a dozen years afterwards.

Emigration to New England in 1630. A fleet of fourteen sail, filled with men, women, and children, with provisions, sailed from England for America early in 1630, twelve of them arriving at Charlestown (which see) early in July. These ships contained eight hundred and forty passengers, among them John Winthrop, the appointed governor of the colony. There were, also, Deputy-governor Dudley and several gentlemen of wealth and distinction. The expense of the whole equipment and transportation was more than $100,000. Some of them went up the Charles River until it became shallow and narrow, and landed at a well-watered place which was afterwards called Watertown. It became a great hive of population, out of which swarmed many people to settle wild districts of country. After the arrival of this fleet, a day of thanksgiving was observed in all the plantations in New England.

Emigration to South Carolina (1764). After the conclusion of the treaty of peace at Paris, and when there seemed to be a promise of a long cessation of war in America, emigration from Europe began to flow in copiously. The Assembly of South Carolina, to encourage emigration, appropriated (1764) a large fund for bounties to foreign Protestants and such industrious poor people of Great Britain and Ireland as should resort to the province within three years and settle in the inland regions. Two townships, each containing forty-eight thousand acres, were laid out — one on the Savannah River, called Mecklenburg, and the other on the Santee, called Londonderry—for the use of emigrants. Soon afterwards five or six hundred poor Germans, who had been enticed into England under deceitful promises, were assisted by the citizens of London and by the government in making their way to Carolina. Ships for their conveyance and provisions for the voyage were furnished. The king gave them one hundred and fifty stand of arms out of the Tower; and on their arrival at Charleston (April, 1764) the assembly of the province voted $2500 to be distributed among them, and one of the two townships was allotted to them. At about the same time two hundred and twelve French Protestants settled in South Carolina, and were given vacant lands; and multitudes of individuals came to that province from Ireland, England, and Scotland. In the course of that year about one thousand families went to South Carolina from the northern colonies.

Emigration to the United States. The number of emigrants who came to our shores in 1873 was greater than ever before or since. It reached in that year 473,000. These added vastly to the material wealth of the Republic; for it has been computed that the average value of each emigrant who comes here as a producer is $800, not counting the money the emigrant brings with him, which it is calculated is spent by him in preparing to become a producer. The Chinese, about whom so much has been said, have never formed more than four per cent. of our total emigration. The "panic," or great revulsion in the business of the country, which began in 1873, caused a great reflux tide of emigration. In 1874 the number of emigrants who returned to Europe was over seventy-two thousand, and the next year nearly ninety-three thousand.

Emmett, THOMAS ADDIS, an Irish adopted American citizen, was born at Cork, Ireland, April 24, 1763; died in New York, Nov. 14, 1827. He graduated at Trinity College, Dublin; first studied medicine, and then law, and was admitted to the Dublin bar in 1791. He became a leader of the Association of United Irishmen, and was one of a general committee whose ultimate object was to secure the freedom of Ireland from British rule. With many of his associates, he was arrested in 1798, and for more than two years was confined in Fort George, Scotland. His brother Robert, afterwards engaged in the same cause, was hanged in Dublin in 1803. Thomas was liberated and banished to France after the treaty of Amiens, the severest penalties being pronounced against him if he should return to Great Britain. His wife was permitted to join him, on condition that she should never again set foot on British soil. He came to America in 1804, and became very eminent in his profession in the city of New York. He was made attorney-general of the state in 1812. A monument—an obelisk—was erected to his memory in a portion of St. Paul's church-yard, New York, near Broadway.

Emory, William Helmsley, United States Army, was born in Queen Anne's County, Md., about 1812, and graduated at West Point in 1831. He was appointed lieutenant of the topographical engineers July 7, 1833; was aid to General Kearney in California in 1846–47, and was made lieutenant-colonel Sept. 30, 1847. He was astronomer to the commission to determine the boundary between the United States and Mexico (which see). He was serving as captain of cavalry in Mexico when the Civil War broke out, and brought his command into Kansas in good order. In May, 1861, he was made lieutenant-colonel of the Sixth Cavalry; served in the campaign of 1862 in the Army of the Potomac, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers in March of that year. He did good service under Banks in Louisiana, and under Sheridan in the Shenandoah Valley. He was made colonel of the Fifth Cavalry in the fall of 1863, and in March, 1865, was breveted brigadier- and major-general of the United States Army.

Emott, James, LL.D., was born at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., March 14, 1771; died there, April 10, 1850. He graduated at Union College in 1800, and began the practice of law at Ballston Centre, but soon removed to Albany. He represented that district in the Legislature in 1804. He practised law awhile in New York city, and then returned to Poughkeepsie. He was in Congress from 1809 to 1813, and was a leader of the Federal party therein. He was again in the Legislature (1814–17), and was speaker of that body. From 1817 to 1823 he was first judge of Duchess County, and was judge of the second circuit from 1827 to 1831, when, in compliance with the then absurd law of the state, that prohibited the holding of a judicial office by a citizen over sixty years of age, he retired from public life with his intellect in full vigor.

Empire State, a popular name given to the State of New York because it is the most populous, wealthy, and politically powerful state in the Union. It is sometimes called the "Excelsior State," from the motto Excelsior—"higher"—on its seal and coat of arms. The city of New York, its commercial metropolis and the largest city in the Union, is sometimes called the "Empire City."

Emucfau, Battle of. On a bend in the Tallapoosa River, Alabama, was a Creek village called Emucfau. Jackson, with a considerable force, approaching the place (Jan. 21, 1814), saw a well-beaten trail and some prowling Indians, and prepared his camp that night for an attack. At six o'clock the next morning a party of Creek warriors fell upon him with great fury. At dawn a vigorous cavalry charge was made upon the foe by General Coffee, and they were dispersed. Coffee pursued the barbarians for two miles with much slaughter. Then a party was despatched to destroy the Indian encampment at Emucfau, but it was found to be too strongly fortified to be taken without artillery. When Coffee fell back to guard approaching cannon, the Indians, thinking it was a retreat, again fell upon Jackson, but, after a severe struggle, were repulsed. Jackson made no further attempt to destroy the encampment at Emucfau. He was astonished at the prowess of the Creek warriors. In their retrograde movement (Jan. 24), the Tennesseeans were again threatened by the Indians near Enotochopco Creek. A severe engagement soon ensued; but the Tennesseeans, having planted a six-pound cannon on an eminence, poured a storm of grape-shot on the Indians, which sent them yelling in all directions. The slaughter among the Indians was heavy, while that among the white troops was comparatively light. In the two engagements (Emucfau and Enotochopco), Jackson lost twenty killed and seventy-five wounded.

End of Indian Wars in the East. New-Englanders greatly rejoiced because of the conquest of Canada, as it promised a deliverance of their northern and eastern frontiers from the scourge of Indian forays with which they had been afflicted six times within eighty-five years. By these successive conflicts, the Indians themselves had been almost annihilated. Most of the hostile remnants had emigrated to Canada. Only a small body of Penobscots remained on a reservation in Maine which is still possessed by their descendants.

End of Quaker Political Rule in Pennsylvania. (See *Quaker Rule in Pennsylvania.*)

End of the Colonial System. On April 6, 1776, the Continental Congress, by resolution, threw open their ports to the commerce of the world "not subject to the King of Great Britain." This resolution was the broom that swept away the colonial system within the present bounds of the Republic, and the flag of every nation save one was invited to our harbors. Absolute free-trade was established. The act was a virtual declaration of independence.

Endicott, John, born at Dorchester, Eng., in 1589; died in Boston, Mass., March 15, 1665. Sent by the "Massachusetts Company" to superintend the plantation at Naumkeag, he arrived there Sept. 6 (N. S.), and in April next year was appointed governor of the colony, but was succeeded by John Winthrop. In 1636 he was sent with Captain Underhill, with about ninety men, on an expedition against Indians on Block Island and the Pequods. (See *Pequod War.*) Mr.

Endicott was deputy-governor of Massachusetts several years, and also governor, in which office he died. Bold, energetic, sincere, and bigoted, he was the strongest of the Puritans, and was severe in the execution of laws against those who differed from the prevailing theology of the colony. He was one of the most persistent persecutors of the Quakers, and stood by unmoved, as governor, when they were hanged in Boston; and so violent were his feelings against the Roman Catholics, and anything that savored of "popery," that he caused the red cross of St. George to be cut out of the military standard. He opposed long hair on men, and insisted that the women should use veils in public assemblies. During his several administrations many were punished for the slightest offences, and four Quakers were hanged in Boston.

Enforcing the "American Association." Immediately after the adjournment of the Continental Congress (1774), measures were taken in various colonies for enforcing the observance of the American Association, by the appointment of committees of inspection. Philadelphia set the example (Nov. 22). New York followed, by appointing (Nov. 23) a Committee of Sixty, with full powers. Other provinces took measures to the same effect, and there was a general observance of the requirements of the association for a while. (See *American Association.*)

England at the Beginning of the Seventeenth Century. At about the time when the English colonists began to make permanent settlements in America, there had been great improvements in the agricultural industry of England. The methods of agriculture had been improved, and its boundaries enlarged. Implements were better, and tillage was more productive. The farmers generally had an abundance of food; lived in better houses; pewter dishes had taken the place of wooden ones; feather-beds those of straw and coarse wool; clover had been introduced from the Netherlands, and increased the food for sheep and cattle, and gardens began to be more generally cultivated. From the Netherlands had come the hop; also the cabbage, lettuce, apricot, gooseberry, muskmelon, and apple. Cherries had come from France, currants from Greece, and plums from Italy. From Flanders the Flemings had brought the rose and other fragrant plants, natives of the East. Of these improvements in the rural economy of the kingdom the early English settlers in America availed themselves.

England seeks Indian Allies to enslave her Colonies. During the war for independence the British were in constant alliance with the barbarians of the forest in the effort to crush freedom in America. Such an alliance was authorized before the war broke out. So united were the people in Massachusetts in resistance to the Regulation Act (which see), that Gates called for more troops. He had then (August, 1774) at Boston five regiments, one at Castle William, one at Salem, and hastily summoned two more from Quebec. He also sent transports to bring another regiment from New York, and asked for reinforcements from England. He also resolved to raise "irregulars of one sort or another in America." He wrote to Carleton at Quebec: "I ask your opinion what measures would be most efficacious to raise a body of Canadians and Indians, and for them to form a junction with the king's forces in this province." Carleton's commission authorized him to employ Indians in the military service if thought necessary, to be drawn from "the Indian tribes from the coast of Labrador to the Ohio; and to march them against rebels into any of the plantations in America." This willingness of the British king to employ barbarians against his American subjects justified the charge in the Declaration of Independence—"He has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages." Chatham and Burke uttered indignant protests in Parliament against such an alliance, and it smothered the last spark of loyalty in the bosom of every patriotic American.

English Ambassador at Moscow. Mr. Gunning, England's diplomatic agent at the court of Catharine II. of Russia, deceived by the Russian minister, assured the British ministry that the empress would favorably receive a proposition to loan troops for crushing rebellion in America. (See *Russian Troops for America.*) Then the king wrote an autograph letter to Catharine soliciting her good offices in the matter, and Gunning was ordered to ask for twenty thousand men. The project of a treaty for taking a body of Russian troops into the British pay and service, to continue for two years, was sent to Gunning, with the assurance that the force was so necessary that "expense was not so much an object as in ordinary cases." Gunning was politely but coolly received by the empress. When second instructions were received from England the empress was in religious seclusion, and he applied to her chief minister, who graciously promised to forward Gunning's request to her. On her return the English agent sought an audience of Catharine, but was refused. He asked, through the minister, for fifteen thousand troops, and finally for ten thousand. Deluded by the cordial manner with which he was always treated by the Russian minister, Gunning persisted. Catharine answered the letter of the king, and by her rebuke of the nefarious proposition to employ foreign troops to enslave his subjects she offended the British monarch. The proposition was condemned by every court in Europe which was aware of Gunning's efforts at negotiation. "I cannot reconcile Catharine's elevation of soul with the dishonorable idea of trafficking in the blood of her subjects," wrote Vergennes to the French envoy at Moscow. Finally, the Russian court determined to get rid of Gunning's persistent importunities. The minister declined any further discussion of the subject; and when asked by the French envoy whether such a proposition had ever been seriously entertained by Russia, the minister replied, "People have said so, but it is physically impossible; besides, it is not consistent with the dignity of England to employ foreign troops against its own subjects." (See *Russian Troops for America.*) Some of the opposition in Parliament strongly protested against the employment of German troops. "We conceive," they said, "the calling in foreign forces to decide domestic quarrels to be a measure both disgraceful and dangerous."

English and French American Colonists, FIRST HOSTILITIES BETWEEN. Madame de Guercheville, a pious lady in France, zealous for the conversion of the American Indians, persuaded De Monts (which see) to surrender his patent, and then obtained a charter for "all the lands of New France." She sent out missionaries in 1613. They sailed from Honfleur March 12, and arrived in Acadia, where the arms of Madame Guercheville were set up in token of possession. Her agent proceeded to Port Royal (now Annapolis), where he found only five persons, two of whom were Jesuit missionaries previously sent over. The Jesuits went with other persons to Mount Desert Island. Just as they had begun to provide themselves with comforts, they were attacked by Samuel Argall, of Virginia. The French made some resistance, but were compelled to surrender to superior numbers. One of the Jesuits was killed, several were wounded, and the remainder made prisoners. Argall took fifteen of the Frenchmen, besides the Jesuits, to Virginia; the remainder sailed for France. This success induced the governor of Virginia to send an expedition to crush the power of the French in Acadia, under the pretext that they were encroaching upon the rights of the English. Argall sailed with three ships for the purpose. On his arrival he broke in pieces, at St. Saviour, a cross which the Jesuits had set up, and raised another, on which he inscribed the name of King James. He sailed to St. Croix and destroyed the remains of De Mont's settlement there; and then he went to Port Royal and laid that deserted town in ashes. The English government did not approve the act, nor did the French government resent it.

English Colonial Governments in North America. *Royal Governments:* Nova Scotia, St. Johns, Newfoundland, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, the Carolinas, Georgia, and the Floridas. *Charter Governments:* Rhode Island, Connecticut, and partly Massachusetts and the Carolinas. *Proprietary Governments:* Pennsylvania and Maryland.

English Colonies in the West proposed. When, by the Treaty of Paris (which see), the British obtained possession of the French domain in America, Colonel Croghan, a deputy Indian agent, who knew the value of lands in the Northwest from personal observation, urged their immediate colonization. Several distinguished men — Sir William Johnson, Governor Franklin, of New Jersey, and General Gage — with some fur-traders of Philadelphia, engaged in a project for founding settlements there which promised them a return of great wealth. Dr. Franklin favored the enterprise, for it promised some new security for the existing colonies. The domain designed for this colonization embraced the whole territory bounded by the Ohio and the Mississippi rivers, a line along the Wabash and Maumee to Lake Erie, and thence across Michigan, the lake, Green Bay, and Fox River to the mouth of the Wisconsin. It was estimated that the tract contained about sixty-three million acres. Lord Shelburne favored the project, but the narrow Hillsborough, at the head of the Board of Trade and Plantations, opposed the scheme, because "emigrants to so remote regions would establish manufactures for themselves, and in the very heart of America might form a power which distance must emancipate." The project was abandoned, and the Alleghanies continued to be the frontier of British settlements for several years longer.

English Constitution, THE, is not a permanent instrument embodying the foundation of all laws, like that of the United States, but comprehends the whole body of English laws enacted by Parliament, and by which the British people are governed. The Constitution of the United States is superior to the Congress or National Legislature; the Parliament or National Legislature of England is superior to the Constitution. What Parliament declares to be the Constitution of England is the Constitution of England; what the Parliament enacts the monarch must be governed by, and the courts cannot adjudge to be unconstitutional and void. Sheridan comprehensively said: "The king of England is not seated on a solitary eminence of power; on the contrary, he sees his equals in the coexisting branches of the Legislature, and he recognizes his superior in the LAW."

English Expedition against New Netherland. Believing a story that the Dutch and Indians were conspiring against the New England colonists, some men of the latter induced Cromwell to furnish two ships and a small body of troops to join New-Englanders, under Robert Sedgwick and John Leverett, in an expedition against New Netherland. The latter was then major-general of the Massachusetts forces. Through the influence of Roger Williams, then in England, Cromwell's vessels were delayed. When the armament arrived in New England the war with the Dutch was over, and news of peace soon reached Boston. Then the expedition proceeded against Acadia, Cromwell alleging that a sum of money promised by France on the cession of that country had never been paid. Acadia was taken possession of by Sedgwick and Leverett, and two years afterwards Cromwell made a new grant of Nova Scotia to La Tour and others. (See *La Tour.*)

English Revolution, THE. When James II. attempted to establish despotism in England by destroying the constitution in Church and State, he arrayed against himself the united Church, the aristocracy, and the intelligent people of the realm. He also resolved to make the Roman Catholic the religious system of the kingdom, and sought to destroy all forms of Protestantism. He prorogued Parliament, and ruled despotically as an autocrat without it. So universal were the alarm and indignation caused by his conduct that there was a general longing for relief; and the fires of revolution burned intensely in the hearts of the people before they burst into a flame. The king's daughter Mary, who had married her cousin William, Prince of Orange, was heir to the throne of England in the absence of a male heir. When the people were ripe for revolution it was announced that James's second wife had given birth to a son (June 10, 1688). The hopes of the nation, which were centred on Mary, were grievously disappointed. The opinion was general that the alleged heir just born was a supposititious one, and not the child of the queen. The volcano was instantly uncapped, and on the 30th of June (1688) leading men of the kingdom sent an invitation to William of Orange to invade England and place his wife on its throne. He came, landed at Torbay (Nov. 5) with fifteen thousand men, and penetrated the country. The people flocked to his standard, King James fled to France, and all England was speedily in the hands of the welcome invader. On the 13th of February the Convention Parliament conferred the crown of England on William and Mary as joint sovereigns. Bancroft says of the political theory of the revolution: "The old idea of a Christian monarchy resting on the law of God was exploded, and political power sought its origin in compact. Absolute monarchy was denied to be a form of civil government. Nothing, it was held, can bind freemen to obey any government save their own agreement. Political power is a trust, and a breach of the trust dissolves the obligation to allegiance. The supreme power is the legislature, to whose guardianship it has been sacredly and unalterably delegated. By the fundamental law of property no taxes may be levied on the people but by its own consent or that of its authorized agents. These were the doctrines of the revolution, dangerous to European institutions and dear to the colonies; menacing the Old World with convulsive struggles and reforms, and establishing for America the sanctity of its own legislative bodies. Throughout the English world the right to representation could never again be separated from the power of taxation. The theory gave to vested rights in England a bulwark against the monarch; it encouraged the colonists to assert their privileges, as possessing a sanctity which tyranny only could disregard, and which could perish only by destroying allegiance itself."

English Settlement in Louisiana projected. In October, 1698, King William sent three ships to take possession of the Mississippi River, and prepare for planting a colony of French Protestants on its borders. Nothing came of it. In the same month Iberville (which see) and others sailed for the same river, and planted the seeds of French dominion there.

English Settlement on Long Island. Some of the inhabitants of Lynn, Mass., finding themselves straitened for land, went to Long Island in search of a plantation. They bargained for a tract near the west end with Lord Stirling's agent and with the natives. The jealous Dutch sent a force to take possession of the land, and set up the arms of the Prince of Orange. Soon afterwards a dozen of the English company began to erect buildings there, and took down the Dutch arms and placed the effigy of an ugly Indian in its place. The Dutch, provoked, sent some soldiers, who brought off the Englishmen and imprisoned them; but they were released after a few days, having taken an oath of allegiance to the stadtholder. The adventurers now moved to the east end of the island, and, to the number of forty families, settled the town of Southampton. Rev. Mr. Pierson, with several of the company at Lynn, formed a church, and all went to Southampton, where he became their pastor. There they formed a civil government in 1640. The same year a large tract of land on Long Island was purchased of the Indians for the Connecticut colony, and settlements were begun there. The tract was on the north part of the island, in the vicinity of Oyster Bay. Connecticut colonists began to settle there, but were driven back by Kieft, the Dutch governor, because they appeared within sight of his residence. The inhabitants of Connecticut immediately seized the fort just below Hartford, and obliged the Dutch to recede within ten miles of the Hudson River.

English Turn, IN THE MISSISSIPPI. A London physician named Coxe purchased the old patent for Carolina granted to Sir Robert Heath (see *North Carolina*) in 1630, and put forward pretensions to the mouth of the Mississippi, which two armed English vessels were sent to explore. Bienville (which see), exploring the Mississippi at a reach some fifty miles from its mouth, unexpectedly encountered one of Coxe's vessels coming up. Assured that this was not the Mississippi, but a dependency of Canada, already occupied by the French, the English commander turned about and left the river; and that reach has ever since been known as "the English Turn."

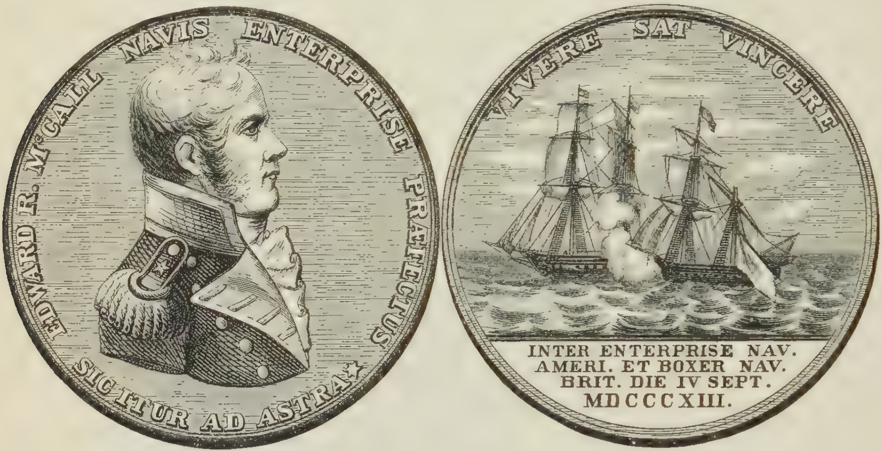
Enlargement of the Capitol. The extinguishment of Indian titles to vast tracts of land in the northwest during Fillmore's administration had induced a vast influx of population into those regions beyond the Mississippi. Many million acres were purchased from the Upper and Lower Sioux tribes, who removed to other reservations. Emigration in large volumes was also flowing into the Republic from Europe, and there was unwonted activity everywhere. States and territories were increasing rapidly in numbers and population, and additional representatives were crowding the halls of legislation. These were becoming too narrow, and Congress made provision for enlarging them. That enlargement was begun in 1851, when (July 4) the corner-stone of the addition was laid, with imposing ceremonies, by President Fillmore. (See *National Capitol.*) An oration was delivered by Daniel Webster on that occasion, in the course of which he said, "If, therefore, it shall hereafter be the will of God that this structure shall fall from its base, that its foundations be upturned and the deposit beneath this stone brought to the eyes of men, be it then known that on this day the Union of the United States of America stands firm; that their Constitution still exists unimpaired, and with all its usefulness and glory growing every day stronger in the affections of the great body of the American people, and attracting more and more the admiration of the world." All through the Civil War (1861–65) the work on the extension went on, with perfect faith on the part of the government that the insurrection would be suppressed, the Union saved, and that the increase of states and territories would go steadily on, demanding the use of enlarged halls of legislation. The extension was completed in 1867.

Entails abolished in Virginia. A committee of the Virginia Legislature, the active members of which were Jefferson, Wythe, and Pendleton, were charged (1776) with a revision of the common law, the British statutes (valid in that state), and the criminal statutes. Mr. Jefferson framed the new law of descent, which abolished primogeniture, and directed property "into the channels which the head and heart of every sane man would be prone to choose." By this law the lands of an intestate might be equally divided among his representatives.

Enterprise and Boxer. The *Enterprise*, 14 guns, was an American brig that acquired the reputation of being "lucky." She cruised for a long time off the New England coast, the terror of British provincial privateers, under Captain Johnston Blakeley, until he was promoted to the command of the new sloop-of-war *Wasp*, when Lieutenant William Burrows became her commander. On the morning of Sept. 1, 1813, she sailed from Portsmouth, N. H., in quest of British cruisers. On the morning of the 5th she discovered a British brig in a bay near Pemaquid Point, which, observing the *Enterprise*, bore down upon her in menacing attitude. Burrows accepted the challenge, cleared his ship for action, and, after getting a proper distance from land to have ample sea-room for conflict, he edged towards the stranger, which proved to be the British brig *Boxer*, 14 guns, Captain Samuel Blyth. At twenty minutes past three o'clock in the afternoon the brigs closed within half pistol-shot of each other, and both vessels opened fire at the same time. The wind was light, with very little sea, and the cannonading was destructive. Ten minutes later the *Enterprise* ranged ahead of the *Boxer*, and, taking advantage of her position, she steered across the bows of her antagonist, and delivered her fire with such precision and destructive energy that, at four o'clock, the British officer in command shouted through his trumpet that he had surrendered; but his flag being nailed to the mast, it could not be lowered until the Americans should cease firing. It was found that Captain Blyth had been cut nearly in two by an 18-pound cannon-ball. Almost at the same moment when Blyth fell on the *Boxer*, Burrows, of the *Enterprise*, was mortally wounded. So also was Midshipman Kervin Waters. Blyth was killed instantly; Burrows lived eight hours. The latter refused to be carried below until the sword of the commander of the *Boxer* was delivered to him, when he grasped it and said, "Now I am satisfied; I die contented." The command of the *Enterprise* devolved upon Lieutenant E. R. McCall, of South Carolina, who conducted his part of the engagement to its close with skill. He took both vessels into Portland Harbor on the morning of the 7th. The two young commanders were buried side by side in a cemetery at Portland. Congress presented a gold medal to the nearest masculine representative of Lieutenant Burrows; and another was presented to Lieutenant McCall.

GRAVES OF BURROWS, BLYTH, AND WATERS.

Envoys to France. Monroe was recalled from France in 1796, and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, of South Carolina, was appointed to fill his place. On his arrival in France, late in the year, with the letter of recall and his own credentials, the Directory refused to receive him. Not only so, but, after treating him with great discourtesy, the Directory peremptorily ordered him to leave France. He withdrew to Holland (February, 1797), and there awaited further orders from home. When Mr. Adams took the chair of State, the United States had no diplomatic agent in France. The "French party," or Republicans, having failed to elect Jefferson President, the insolent Directory (which see) determined to punish a people who dared to thwart their plans. In May, 1797, they issued a decree which was tantamount to a declaration of war against the United States. At about the same time President Adams, observing the perilous relations between the United States and France, called an extraordinary session of Congress to consider the matter. There had been a reaction among the people, and many leading Democrats favored war with France. A majority of the cabinet advised further negotiations, and John Marshall, a Federalist, and Elbridge Gerry, a Democrat, were appointed envoys extraordinary to join Pinckney and attempt to settle all matters in dispute. They reached France in October (1797), and sought an audience with the Directory. Their request was met by a haughty refusal, unless the envoys would first agree to pay into the exhausted French treasury a large sum of money, in the form of a loan, by the purchase of Dutch bonds wrung from that nation by the French, and a bribe to the amount of $240,000 for the private use of the five members of the Directory. The proposition came semi-officially from Talleyrand, one of the most unscrupulous political trimmers of the age. It was accompanied by a covert threat that if the proposition was not complied with the envoys might be ordered to leave France in twenty-four hours, and the coasts of the United States be ravaged by French cruisers from St. Domingo. They peremptorily refused, and Pinckney uttered, in substance, the noble words, "Millions for defence, but not one cent for tribute!" The envoys asked for their passports. They were given to the two Federalists under circumstances that amounted to their virtual expulsion, but Gerry, the Democrat, was induced to remain. He, too, was soon treated with contempt by Talleyrand and his associates, and he returned home in disgust.


EDWARD R. McCALL NAVIS ENTERPRISE PRAEFECTUS
SIC ITUR AD ASTRA
VIVERE SAT VINCERE
INTER ENTERPRISE NAV. AMERI. ET BOXER NAV. BRIT. DIE IV SEPT. MDCCCXIII.

THE M'CALL MEDAL.

Episcopacy in America. The Church and State in England worked in concert in forging fetters for the English-American colonists. The Church of England was early made a State establishment in the colony of Virginia, but elsewhere the free spirit of the people kept episcopacy at bay, for they remembered how much they had suffered at the hands of the Church of England. On the accession of George III. and the administration of the Earl of Bute, among the *reforms* in the colonies contemplated and proposed by the ministry was the curtailment or destruction of the Puritan and Dissenting influence in the provinces, which seemed inimical to monarchy, and to make the ritual of the Anglican Church the State mode of worship. So early as 1748 Dr. Secker, Archbishop of Canterbury, had proposed the establishment of episcopacy in America, and overtures were made to several eminent Puritan divines to accept the mitre, but they all declined it. A royalist churchman in Connecticut, in 1760, in a letter to Dr. Secker, and to the Earl of Halifax, then at the head of the Board of Trade and Plantations, urged the necessity of providing two or three bishops for the colonies, the support of the Church, and a method for repressing the rampant republicanism of the people. "The rights of the clergy and the authority of the king," said the Bishop of London, "must stand or fall together." The Anglican Church now had many adherents in all the colonies, who naturally desired its ascendency; but the great mass of the people looked upon that Church as an ally of the State in acts of oppression, and earnestly opposed it. They well knew that if Parliament could create dioceses and appoint bishops, they would establish tithes and crush out dissent as heresy. For years controversy in our country on this topic was warm, and sometimes acrimonious. Essays for and against episcopacy appeared in abundance. The Bishop of Llandaff, in a sermon preached before the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts (which see), in which he advocated the necessity of establishing episcopacy in America, heaped abuse without stint upon the colonists. "Upon the adventurers themselves," he said, "what reproach could he cast heavier than they deserve? who, with their native soil, abandoned their native manners and religion, and ere long were found, in many parts, living without remembrance or knowledge of God, without any divine worship, in dissolute wickedness and the most brutal profligacy of manners." He charged them with having become "infidels and barbarians;" and the prelate concluded that the only remedy for the great evil was to be found in a Church establishment. His recommendations were urged with zeal by churchmen in the colonies. The Dissenters were aroused. They observed in the bishop's sermon the old persecuting spirit of the Church, and visions of Laud and the Star-chamber disturbed them. Eminent writers in America entered the lists in opposition to him. Among others, William Livingston, whose famous letter to the bishop, issued in pamphlet form, refuted the charges of that dignitary so completely that they were not repeated. The theological controversy ceased when the vital question of resistance to the oppressive power of both Church and State was brought to a final issue. The first English bishop within the domains of our Republic was Samuel Seabury, of Connecticut, who was consecrated by three bishops of the Scottish Episcopal Church, Nov. 14, 1784. (See *Seabury, Samuel.*)

Episcopacy in Massachusetts. (See *Higginson and the Brownes.*)

Episcopacy in New England, GROWTH OF. Puritan austerity had extended to a large class of intelligent free-thinkers and doubters in New England, and they felt inclined to turn towards the freer, more orderly, and dignified Church of England. The rich and polite preferred a mode of worship which seemed to bring them into sympathy with the English aristocracy, and there were many who delighted in the modest ceremonies of the church. Nor were these influences confined to laymen. There were studious and aspiring men among the ministers to whom the idea of apostolic succession had charms; and they yearned for freedom from the obstinate turbulence of stiff-necked church members who, in theory, were the spiritual equals of the pastors, whom, to manage, it was necessary to humor and to suit. These ideas found expression in an unexpected quarter. Timothy Cutler, a minister of learning and great ability, was rector of Yale College in 1719. To the surprise and alarm of the people of New England, Mr. Cutler, with the tutor of the college and two ministers in the neighborhood, took occasion, on commencement day, 1722, to avow their conversion to episcopacy. Cutler was at once "excused" from all further service in the college, and provision was made for all future rectors to give satisfactory evidence of "the soundness of their faith in opposition to Arminian and prelatical corruptions." Weaker ones engaged in the revolt halted, but others persisted. Cutler became rector of a new Episcopal Church in Boston, and the dismissed ministers were maintained as missionaries by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts (which see). This secession from the Church resting on the Saybrook Platform (which see), made the ministers of Massachusetts keen-eyed in the detection of signs of defection. John Checkly (afterwards ordained an Episcopal missionary) published Leslie's *Short and Easy Method with Deists*, with an appendix by himself, in which Episcopal ordination was insisted upon as necessary to constitute a Christian minister. The authorities in Boston were offended. Checkly was tried on a charge that the publication tended "to bring into contempt and infamy the ministers of the holy Gospel established by law within his majesty's province of Massachusetts." For this offence Checkly was found guilty and fined £50. (See *Higginson and the Brownes.*)

Episcopal Churches, FIRST, IN THE COLONIES. The Episcopal Church service was first established in New York. Governor Fletcher proposed, in 1693, levying a tax for building churches and supporting Episcopal ministers in that province. The Provincial Assembly passed an act accordingly. It was nearly four years after the passage of the act before anything was done in pursuance of it. The Episcopalians built a church, and by the Legislature in 1697 a royal grant and confirmation was made of the church and parcel of land adjoining. (See *Trinity Church.*) The first Episcopal Church formed in New Jersey was organized in 1702, and at the same time one was formed in Rhode Island. The latter built their first place of worship at Providence in 1722. In 1752 Bishop Compton sent the Rev. Mr. Evans from England to Philadelphia to perform the services of the church there. A numerous congregation soon attended the public worship in accordance with the ritual of the Church of England. It was largely composed of persons who had separated from the Friends or Quakers, and who now became permanently attached to the Episcopal Church. (See *Episcopacy in America* and *Episcopacy in New England.*)

Equal Rights Party. In the city of New York, in 1835, there arose in the ranks of the Democratic party a combination of men opposed to all banking institutions and monopolies of every sort. A "Workingmen's party" had been formed in 1829, but had become defunct, and the "Equal Rights party" was its successor. They acted with much caution and secrecy in their opposition to the powerful Democratic party, but never rose above the dignity of a faction. They made their first decided demonstration at Tammany Hall at the close of October, 1835, when an event occurred which caused them afterwards to be known as Loco-focos (which see), a name applied by the Whigs to the whole Democratic party. The faction soon became formidable, and the regulars endeavored to reconcile the irregulars by nominating their favorite for the Presidency (Richard M. Johnson) for Vice-President with Mr. Van Buren.

Eric the Red (see *Northmen*) was a Scandinavian navigator, who emigrated to Ireland about the year 982, after which he discovered Greenland, where he planted a colony. He sent out an exploring party under his son Lief, about the year 1000, who seems to have discovered the continent of America, and landed somewhere on the shores of Massachusetts or the southern portion of New England.

Ericsson, JOHN, LL.D., was born in Vermeland, Sweden, in 1803. He became an eminent engineer in his own country, and attained the rank of captain in the Swedish army. In 1826 he visited England with a view to the introduction of his invention of a flame engine. He engaged actively in mechanical pursuits, and made numerous inventions, notably that of artificial draft, which is still used in locomotive engines. He won the prize offered by the Manchester and Liverpool Railway for the best locomotive, making one that attained the then astonishing speed of fifty miles an hour. He invented the screw propeller for navigation, but the British admiralty being unwilling to believe in its capacity and success, Ericsson came to America in 1839, and has resided in the city of New York or its immediate vicinity ever since. In 1841 he was engaged in the construction of the United States ship-of-war *Princeton*, to which he applied his propeller. She was the first steamship ever built with the propelling machinery under the water-line and out of reach of shot. In 1840 he received the gold medal of the Mechanics' Institute of New York for the best model of a steam fire-engine, and constructed the first one seen in America. King Oscar of Sweden made him Knight of the Order of Vasa in 1852. He has accomplished many things in mechanical science since he came to this country. He invented and constructed the *Monitor*, which fought the *Merrimac* (see *Monitor and Merrimac*), and in that brought Theodore R. Timby's invention of the revolving turret into thoroughly practical use.

Erie Canal, THE. The greatest work of internal improvement (which see) constructed in the United States previous to the Pacific Railway was the Erie Canal, which connects the waters of the great lakes with the Atlantic Ocean by way of the Hudson River. It was contemplated by General Schuyler and Elkanah Watson, but was first definitely proposed by Gouverneur Morris, at about the beginning of this century. Various writers put forth essays upon the subject, among them De Witt Clinton, who became its most notable champion. The project took such shape that, in 1810, canal commissioners were appointed, with Gouverneur Morris at their head. In 1812 Clinton, with others, was appointed to lay the project before the national Congress, and solicit the aid of the national government. Fortunately, the latter declined to extend its patronage to the great undertaking. The War of 1812–15 put the matter at rest for a while. That war made the transportation of merchandise along our sea-coasts perilous, and the commercial intercourse between seaboard cities was carried on in a large degree by wheeled vehicles. For this purpose Conestoga wagons were used between New York and Philadelphia, and when one of these made the journey of ninety miles in three days, with passengers, it was called "the flying-machine." It has been estimated that the amount of increased expense by this method of transportation of merchandise for the coast region alone would have paid the cost of a system of internal navigation from Maine to Georgia. The want of such a system was made clear to the public mind, especially to the population then gathering in the Western States. Then Mr. Clinton, more vigorously than ever, pressed upon the public attention the importance of constructing the projected canal. He devoted his wonderful energies to the subject, and in a memorial of the citizens of New York, prepared by him, he produced such a powerful argument in its favor that not only the people of his native state, but of other states, approved it. The national government would do nothing in the matter, and the State of New York resolved to construct the canal. Clinton was made governor in 1816, and used all his official and private influence in favor of the Erie Canal. He saw it begun during his first administration. The first excavation was made July 4, 1817, and it was completed and formally opened by him, as chief magistrate of the state, in 1825, when a grand aquatic procession from Albany proceeded to the sea, and the governor poured a keg of the water of Lake Erie into the Atlantic Ocean. It was a nuptial ceremony far more beneficent and grand in its idea than the ancient wedding of the Doge of Venice with the Adriatic. The canal was constructed at a cost of $7,602,000. Untold wealth has been won for the state and the city of New York by its operations, directly and indirectly. Over its bosom have floated the products of the Northwestern states and territories, valued at billions of dollars. In the year 1872 the value of property transported on that canal (notwithstanding a three-track railway runs parallel with it) was about $168,000,000. The value of all freight that had passed over it from 1837 to 1872—a period of thirty-five years—was $4,795,215,078. Other canals were afterwards constructed by the State of New York, at a total cost, to the year 1872 inclusive, for their construction and maintenance, of a little more than $89,000,000, and the total receipts for tolls were $97,625,000.

Erskine, NEGOTIATIONS WITH. David Montague Erskine was the British minister in the United States at the time of Madison's accession to the presidency. He found the new President so exceedingly anxious for peace and good feeling between the two countries that he had written to Canning, the British minister, such letters on the subject that he was instructed to propose to the Americans a reciprocal repeal of all the prohibitory laws upon certain conditions. Those conditions were so partial towards Great Britain—requiring the Americans to submit to the Rule of 1756 (which see)—that they were rejected. Very soon, however, arrangements were made by which, upon the Orders of Council being repealed, the President should issue a proclamation declaring a restoration of commercial intercourse with Great Britain, but leaving all restrictive laws as against France in full force. Mr. Erskine also offered reparation for the insult and injury in the case of the *Chesapeake* (see *Chesapeake and Leopard*), and also assured the government of the United States that Great Britain would immediately send over an envoy extraordinary, vested with power to conclude a treaty that should settle all points of dispute between the two governments. This arrangement was completed April 18, 1809. The next day the Secretary of State received a note from Erskine, saying he was authorized to declare that his majesty's Orders in Council of January and November, 1807, would be withdrawn on the 10th of June next ensuing. On the same day (April 19) the President issued a proclamation declaring that trade with Great Britain might be resumed after June 10th. This proclamation gave great joy in the United States. Partisan strife was hushed, and the President was toasted and feasted by leading Federalists, as a Washingtonian worthy of all confidence. In the House of Representatives, John Randolph, who lauded England for her magnanimity, offered (May 3, 1809) a resolution which declared "that the promptitude and frankness with which the President of the United States has met the overtures of the government of Great Britain towards a restoration of harmony and freer commercial intercourse between the two nations meet the approval of this House." The joy was of brief duration. Mr. Erskine was soon afterwards compelled to communicate to the President (July 31) that his government had refused to sanction his arrangement, ostensibly because the minister had exceeded his instructions, and was not authorized to make any such arrangement. Mr. Erskine was recalled. The true reason for the rejection by the British authorities of the arrangement made by Erskine probably was, that, counting upon the fatal effects of sectional strife in the Union, already so rampant in some places, the British government was encouraged to believe that the bond of union would be so weakened that a scheme then perfecting by the British ministry for destroying that union would be successful. (See *Henry, John, Mission of.*) England having spurned the olive-branch so confidingly offered, the President of the United States issued another proclamation (Aug. 9, 1809), declaring the Non-intercourse Act to be again in full force in regard to Great Britain.

Esopus War, The. There had been a massacre by the Indians of Dutch settlers at Esopus (now Kingston) in 1655. The settlers had fled to Manhattan for security, but had been persuaded by Stuyvesant to return to their farms, where they built a compact village for mutual protection. Unfortunately, some Indians, who had been helping the Dutch in their harvests in the summer of 1658, became noisy in a drunken rout, and were fired upon by the villagers. This outrage caused fearful retaliation. The Indians desolated the farms, and murdered the people in isolated houses. The Dutch put forth their strength to oppose the barbarians, and the "Esopus War" continued until 1664 intermittingly. Some Indians, taken prisoners, were sent to Curaçoa and sold as slaves. The anger of the Esopus Indians was aroused, and, in 1663, the village of Wiltwyck, as the Esopus village was called, was almost totally destroyed. Stuyvesant was there at the time, holding a conference with the Indians in the open fields when the destructive blow fell. The houses were plundered and burned, and men, hurrying from the fields to protect their families and property, were either shot down or carried away captive. The struggle was desperate, but the white people were victorious. When the assailants were driven away, they carried off full forty women and children; and in the heap of ruins which they left behind them were found the charred remains of twenty-one murdered villagers. It was the final event of violence of that war.

Essex and Alert, The. Captain David Porter, commanding the *Essex*, thirty-two guns, displayed a flag at her mast-head, as he left Sandy Hook (June 26, 1812) on a cruise, bearing the significant words, "Free-trade and Sailors' Rights." He soon captured several English merchant vessels, making trophy bonfires of most of them on the ocean, and their crews his prisoners. After cruising southward several weeks in disguise, capturing a prize now and then, he turned northward, and chased a fleet of English transports bearing one thousand troops to Halifax, convoyed by a frigate and a bomb-vessel. He captured one of the transports, and a few days afterwards (Aug. 13) fell in with the British armed ship *Alert*, Captain T. L. P. Laugharne, mounting twenty 18-pound carronades and six smaller guns. The *Essex* was disguised as a merchantman. The *Alert* followed her for some time, and at length opened fire with three cheers from her people. Porter caused his ports to be knocked out in an instant, when his guns responded with terrible effect. It was a complete surprise. The *Alert* was so badly injured and her people were so panic-stricken that the conflict was short. In spite of the efforts of the officers, the men of the *Alert* ran below for safety. She was surrendered in a sinking condition. She was the first British national vessel captured in the war. Nobody was killed on either vessel.

Essex, Cruise of the. When Commodore Bainbridge was about to sail from Boston with the *Constitution* and *Hornet* (see *Constitution and Java*), orders were sent to Captain Porter, of the *Essex*, then lying in the Delaware, to cruise in the track of the West Indiamen, and at a specified time to rendezvous at certain ports, when, if he should not fall in with the flag-ship of the squadron, he would be at liberty to follow the dictates of his own judgment. Having failed to find the *Constitution* at any appointed rendezvous, and having provided himself with funds by taking $55,000 from a British packet, Porter made sail for the Pacific Ocean around Cape Horn. While in these waters, Porter seized twelve armed British whale-ships, with an aggregate of three hundred and two men and one hundred and seven guns. These were what he entered the Pacific Ocean for. He armed some of them, and at one time he had a fleet of nine vessels. He sent paroled prisoners to Rio de Janeiro, and cargoes of whale-oil to the United States. On the 15th of September, 1813, while among the Galapagos Islands, he fell in with a British whaling-vessel armed with twelve guns and manned by thirty-nine men. He captured her, and found her laden with beef, pork, bread, wood, and water, articles which Porter stood greatly in need of at that time. The exploits of the *Essex* in the Pacific produced great excitement in the British navy, and the government sent out the frigate *Phœbe*, with one or two consorts, to attempt her capture. Porter heard of this from an officer who was sent into the harbor of Valparaiso, Chili, with prizes. He also learned that the Chilian authorities were becoming more friendly to the English than to the Americans. In consequence of this information, Porter resolved to go to the Marquesas Islands, refit his vessel, and return to the United States. He had captured almost every English whale-ship known to be off the coasts of Peru and Chili, and had deprived the enemy of property to the amount of $2,500,000 and three hundred and sixty seamen. He had also released the American whalers from peril, and inspired the Peruvians and Chilians with the most profound respect for the American navy. Among the Marquesas Islands (at Nooaheevah) Porter became involved in hostilities with the warring natives. He had allowed his men great indulgence in port, and some of them formed strong attachments to the native women. They were so dissatisfied when he left, that they became almost mutinous. He had kept his men from going on shore for three days before he weighed anchor. "The girls," says Porter in his *Journal*, "lined the beach from morning until night, and every moment importuned me to take the taboos off the men, and laughingly expressed their grief by dipping their fingers into the sea and touching their eyes, so as to let the salt-water trickle down their cheeks." When the *Essex* was thoroughly fitted for her long voyage and for encountering enemies, she sailed (Dec. 12) with her prizes from Nooaheevah Island (which he had named Madison), and on Feb. 3, 1814, entered the harbor of Valparaiso. One of the captured vessels, which he had armed and named *Essex Junior*, cruised off the harbor as a scout, to give warning of the approach of any man-of-war. Very soon two English men-of-war were reported in the offing. They sailed into the harbor, and proved to be the *Phœbe*, thirty-six guns, Captain Hillyar, and her consort, the *Cherub*, twenty-two guns, Captain Tucker. The former mounted thirty long 18-pounders, sixteen 32-pound carronades, and one howitzer; also six 3-pounders in her tops. Her crew consisted of three hundred and twenty men and boys. The *Cherub* mounted eighteen 32-pound carronades below, with eight 24-pound carronades and two long nines above, making a total of twenty-eight guns. Her crew numbered one hundred and eighty. The *Essex* at that time could muster only two hundred and twenty-five, and the *Essex Junior* only sixty. The *Essex* had forty 32-pound carronades and six long 12-pounders; and the *Essex Junior* had only ten 18-pound carronades and ten short sixes. The British vessels blockaded Porter's ships. At length he determined to escape. The sails of his vessels were spread for the purpose (March 28, 1814), and both vessels started for the open sea, when a squall partially disabled the flag-ship, and both took shelter in a bay. There they were attacked by the *Phœbe* and *Cherub*, and one of the most desperate and sanguinary battles of the war ensued. When, at last, the *Essex* was a helpless wreck and on fire, and his magazine was threatened—when every officer but one was slain or disabled; when, of the two hundred and twenty-five brave men who went into the fight on board of her only seventy-five effective ones remained—Porter hauled down his flag. So ended the long and brilliant cruise of the *Essex*. Her gallant commander wrote to the Secretary

THE ESSEX AND HER PRIZES IN MASSACHUSETTS BAY, NOOAHEEVAH.

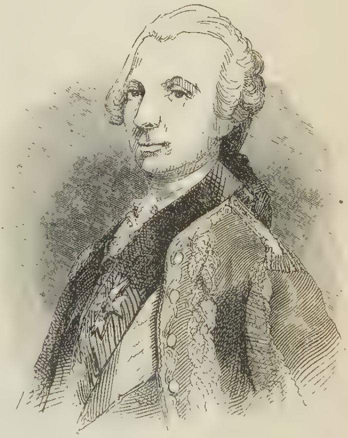
of War from Valparaiso, "We have been unfortunate, but not disgraced." He and his companions were sent home in the *Essex Junior*, which was made a cartel-ship, and Porter was honored as the Hero of the Pacific. Municipal honors were lavished upon him, and several state legislatures and the national Congress gave him thanks.

Essex Junta Plot. Early in 1809, John Quincy Adams, being in Washington attending the Supreme Court, in a confidential interview with President Jefferson, assured him that a continuation of the Embargo (which see) much longer would certainly be met by forcible resistance in Massachusetts, supported by the Legislature, and probably by the judiciary of the state; that if force should be resorted to to quell that resistance, it would produce a civil war, and in that event he had no doubt the leaders of the Federal party (referring to those of the old Essex Junta, which see) would secure the co-operation of Great Britain. He declared that the object was, and had been for several years, a dissolution of the Union and the establishment of a separate confederacy. He knew from unequivocal evidence, not provable in a court of law, that in case of a civil war the aid of Great Britain to effect that purpose would be as surely resorted to as it would be indispensably necessary to the design. A rumor of such a design was alluded to, at about the same time, by De Witt Clinton, in New York, and in the *Boston Patriot*, a new administration paper, to which the Adamses, father and son, were contributors. Such a plot, if it ever existed, was confined to a few Federal members of Congress, in consequence of the purchase of Louisiana. They had proposed to have a meeting in Boston, to which Hamilton was invited, though it was known that he was opposed to the scheme. The meeting was prevented by Hamilton's sudden and violent death. A series of articles signed "Falkland" had appeared in New England papers, in which it was argued that if Virginia, finding herself no longer able to control the national government, should secede and dissolve it, the Northern States, though thus deserted, might nevertheless be able to take care of themselves. There seem to have been no more treasonable designs among the members of the Essex Junta than in the Hartford Convention (which see), and the designs of that body were known to have been patriotic.

Essex Junta, THE. The injudicious course of President John Adams, who was anxious for a renomination and election, caused a fatal schism in the Federal party. He looked to the Southern States as his chief hope in the coming election; and believing McHenry and Pickering, of his cabinet, to be unpopular there, he abruptly called upon them to resign. McHenry instantly complied, but Pickering refused, when Adams dismissed him with little ceremony. This event produced much excitement. Bitter animosities were engendered, and criminations and recriminations ensued. The open war in the Federal party was waged by a few leaders, several of whom lived in the maritime county of Essex, Mass., the early home of Pickering, and on that account the irritated President called his assailants and opposers the "Essex Junta." He denounced them as slaves to British influence—some lured by monarchical proclivities and others by British gold. A pamphlet from the pen of Hamilton, whom Adams, in conversation, had denounced as a "British sympathizer," damaged the President's political prospects materially. The Republicans rejoiced at the charge of British influence, and said, in effect, "We thank thee, Jew, for that word." Adams's course caused a great diminution of the Federal vote, and Jefferson was elected. The opposition chanted:

"The *Federalists* are down at last,
The *Monarchists* completely cast!
The *Aristocrats* are stripped of power—
Storms o'er the *British faction* lower.
Soon we *Republicans* shall see
Columbia's sons from bondage free.
Lord, how the Federalists will stare—
A JEFFERSON in ADAMS' chair!"—*The Echo.*

Estaing, D', CHARLES HENRY THEODAT, was born at Auvergne, France, in 1729; guillotined in Paris, April 28, 1794. He was colonel of a French regiment in 1748, brigadier-general in 1756, and served in the French fleet after 1757, joining the East India squadron under Count Lally. Made lieutenant-general in 1763 and vice-admiral in 1778, he was sent to America with a strong naval force to assist the patriots, arriving in Delaware Bay in July, 1778. In a battle with the British fleet and in a storm off Rhode Island, in August, his vessels were so shattered that he withdrew to Boston for their repair. He made a cruise in the West Indies in 1779, and in the fall of that year he engaged jointly with the American army in the siege of Savannah, but abandoned the contest before a promised victory for the allies was won. He returned to France in 1780, and in 1783 he commanded the combined fleets of France and Spain, and was made a Spanish grandee. He favored the French Revolution, and commanded the National Guards at Ver-



CHARLES HENRY THEODAT D'ESTAING.

sailles, but falling under the suspicion of the Terrorists, he was beheaded.

Etchemins. This Algonquin family, occupying the eastern part of Maine, lived, at an early period, on the Penobscot River, between the Abenakes proper and the Micmacs. They are now represented by the remnants of the Penobscots and Passamaquoddies. Their number is now about one thousand. About one half of them (the Penobscots) live on islands in the Penobscot River, and the remainder (Passamaquoddies) on the western shore of Passamaquoddy Bay and on the Schoodic lakes. These remnants are mostly Roman Catholics, and have churches and schools. Their blood remains pure, for the laws of Maine will not allow them to intermarry with the white people, and they are declining in strength.

Eustis, WILLIAM, LL.D., was born at Cambridge, Mass., June 10, 1753; died in Boston, Feb. 6, 1825. He graduated at Harvard in 1772, and studied the healing art under Dr. Joseph Warren. As a surgeon he served throughout the war for independence, and was a member of the Massachusetts Legislature from 1788 to 1794. He was in the governor's council two years, and was in Congress from 1800 to 1805, and from 1820 to 1823. Secretary of War from 1809 until Hull's Surrender (which see) in 1812, he then resigned, for there was much fault found with his administration. In 1815 he was sent as minister to Holland, and was governor of Massachusetts in 1824, dying while in office.

EUTAW SPRING.

Eutaw Spring, BATTLE NEAR. This spring, near Nelson's Ferry, on the Santee, is a first and second apparition of a subterranean stream. It first bubbles up from a bed of rock marl, at the foot of a hill twenty or thirty feet in height, and, after flowing less than sixty yards, descends, rushing and foaming, into a cavern beneath a high ridge of marl, covered with alluvium and forest trees. After traversing its subterranean way some thirty rods, it reappears on the other side, where it is a broader stream, of sufficient volume to turn a mill-wheel. It flows over a smooth, rocky bed, shaded by cypress-trees, about two miles, when it enters the Santee. It was near this spring that a severe battle was fought, Sept. 8, 1781. Early in August, General Greene, on the High Hills of Santee (which see), was reinforced by North Carolina troops under General Sumner; and at the close of that month he crossed the Wateree and Congaree and marched against the British camp at Orangeburg, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Stuart. Rawdon had left these troops in Stuart's charge and returned to England. Stuart, who had been joined by the garrison of Fort Ninety-six, immediately retreated on the approach of Greene to Eutaw Spring, forty miles eastward, and there encamped. Greene pursued so stealthily that Stuart was not fully aware that the republicans were after him until they were close upon him, at dawn on the morning of Sept. 8, 1781. Greene moved in two columns, the centre of the first composed of North Carolina militia, with a battalion of South Carolina militia on each flank, commanded respectively by Marion and Pickens. The second consisted of North Carolina regulars, led by General Sumner, on the right; an equal number of Virginians, under Lieutenant-colonel Campbell, in the centre; and Marylanders, commanded by Colonel O. H. Williams, on the left. Lee's Legion covered the right flank, and Lieutenant-colonel Henderson's troops covered the left. Washington's cavalry and Kirkwood's Delaware troops formed a reserve, and each line had artillery in front. Skirmishing commenced at eight o'clock in the morning, and very soon the conflict became general and severe. The British were defeated and driven from the field with much loss. The victory was complete, and the winners spread over the British camp, eating, drinking, and plundering. Suddenly and unexpectedly the fugitives rallied and renewed the battle, and after a terrible conflict of about five hours the Americans, who had lost heavily, were compelled to give way. But Stuart, knowing that partisan legions were not far away, felt insecure, and that night, after breaking up one thousand muskets and destroying stores, he retreated towards Charleston, pursued early the next morning (Sept. 9) by parties who chased them far towards the sea. Although the battle-field remained with the Americans, neither party could fairly claim a victory. During the day and the pursuit the Americans lost in killed and wounded about five hundred and fifty men; the British loss, including prisoners, was full eight hundred. Lieutenant-colonel Washington was severely wounded in the second battle, and was made prisoner. For his good conduct on that occasion Congress presented to Greene their thanks, a gold medal, and a British standard taken in the flight. A few days after the battle, with a large number of sick soldiers, he retired with his troops to the Santee hills and encamped. There his militia left him. He remained until the middle of November, when he marched his army into the low country, where he might obtain an abundance of food. The necessities of Greene's army had compelled him to go to the Hills. The troops were too much exhausted to continue active operations. They were barefooted and half naked. He had no army hospital stores, very little salt, and his ammunition was very low.

NATHANIELI GREEN EGREGIO DUCI COMITIA AMERICANA
SALUS REGIONUM AUSTRALIUM.
HOSTIBUS AD EUTAW
DEBELLATIS DIE VIII SEPT.
MDCCLXXXI.

GOLD MEDAL AWARDED TO GREENE.

Evacuation of Boston (1776). When General Howe comprehended the real peril of his situation in Boston, after the fortification of Dorchester Heights by Washington, he began to devise means for securing the safety of his army. (See *Siege of Boston.*) Less than three thousand New England farmers—meanly clad, poorly fed, and inadequately disciplined—had created the peril by their vast labors in a single night. When the fortifying of Dorchester Heights was undertaken, a severe cannonade and bombardment from batteries along the American line, from Roxbury to the extreme left, were opened on the town to divert the attention of the British from the secret labors of the provincials. That was on March 2, and was repeated two other succeeding days. At seven o'clock on the evening of March 4, General Thomas, with two thousand men, provided with intrenching tools, proceeded to take possession of Dorchester Heights. A train of three hundred carts and wagons, filled with fascines and bundles of pressed hay, followed, all moving in perfect silence. Within an hour they were all on the heights, undiscovered by the enemy in the city, where every ear was filled with the noise of the cannonade and bombardment, which the Americans kept up from seven o'clock in the evening until dawn. A relief party appeared on the heights at three o'clock, and at daylight on March 5—the anniversary of the Boston massacre—the astonished Britons saw two redoubts on Dorchester Heights, armed with cannons that commanded the town of Boston, and manned by resolute men. On the summit of the steep hills were barrels filled with stones to be rolled down upon ascending assailants, and a

VIEW OF BOSTON FROM DORCHESTER HEIGHTS IN 1774.

strong *abatis*, formed of the trees of adjacent orchards, protected the foot of the heights. Howe was overwhelmed with astonishment, and exclaimed, "I know not what I shall do! The rebels have done more in one night than my whole army would have done in a month." Admiral Shuldham said: "If they retain possession of the heights, I cannot keep a ship in the harbor." It was determined to drive the Americans away by a direct assault, and two thousand four hundred picked soldiers—the flower of the army—were placed under the command of Lord Percy, with orders to drive the Americans from the heights. Percy embarked his men and awaited the darkness of night. A storm suddenly arose; at midnight it was a gale that drove several British ships ashore, and on the morning of the 6th the rain fell so copiously that the troops could not move. Howe, in dismay, called a council of war. The terrified loyalists demanded of the general the sure protection which he had promised them. Washington was preparing to bombard and attack Boston at two points, when the council determined to evacuate it. The resolution spread dismay among the loyalists, or Tories. They, too, determined to leave, and endure the perils and discomforts of a sea voyage, and privations in a strange land, rather than brave the resentment of the Whigs whom they had helped to oppress. Howe offered to leave Boston in the fleet if Washington would let him do so unmolested. A tacit consent was given, but the American commander did not relax his vigilance. He planted a new battery, and was ready to attack the British at any moment. The embarkation was delayed until Sunday morning, March 17, Howe hoping for the arrival of reinforcements. At four o'clock in the morning the troops and loyalists began their embarkation. The latter could not carry much of their goods with them, the war-ships and transports were so few. What they could not take with them they destroyed. The soldiers broke open and pillaged many of the stores, and a sycophantic New York Tory was authorized by Howe to seize dry-goods and clothing belonging to Whig merchants and place them in the vessels. The soldiers wantonly defaced handsome furniture, and valuable goods were cast into the sea. At sunset on that beautiful Sabbath day the great fleet had left Boston for Halifax, bearing away eleven hundred loyalists with the army to Nova Scotia. The nation, through Congress, thanked Washington for the great deliverance, and gave him a beautiful gold medal. (See *Gold Medal awarded to Washington.*)

Evacuation of Harper's Ferry (1861). Joseph E. Johnston, of the United States Topographical Engineers, had abandoned his flag and been commissioned a brigadier-general by the Confederate government, and was charged with the duty of holding Harper's Ferry, the key to the Shenandoah Valley in its relation to the free-labor states. General McClellan was throwing Ohio troops into Western Virginia, and General Robert Patterson, in command of the Department of Pennsylvania, was rapidly gathering a force at Chambersburg, Penn., under General W. H. Keim. A part of the insurgents at the ferry were on Maryland Heights, on the left bank of the Potomac, and against these Patterson marched from Chambersburg with about fifteen thousand men. Just at this moment commenced Wallace's dash on Romney (see *Romney*), which frightened Johnston, and he abandoned Harper's Ferry, and moved up the valley to Winchester. Before leaving he destroyed the great bridge of the Baltimore and Ohio Railway at the ferry with fire and gunpowder. It was one thousand feet long. Then he spiked the heavy guns that could not be taken away, and encamped a few miles up the valley. Patterson, who was at Hagerstown, Md., pushed on, and on June 16 and 17 about nine thousand of his troops crossed the Potomac by fording it at Williamsport. These were led by Brigadier-general George Cadwalader, at the head of five companies of cavalry. At that moment Patterson received orders by telegraph from General Scott, at Washington, to send to him all the regulars, horse and foot, under his (Patterson's) command, and a Rhode Island regiment. Patterson was embarrassed, and requested the general to leave the regulars with him, for he expected to hold the position and to keep open a free communication with the great West by the Baltimore and Ohio Railway. Scott refused, saying, "We are pressed here; send the troops without delay." The order was obeyed, and Patterson was left without a single piece of available artillery, with only one troop of raw cavalry, and a total force of not more than ten thousand men, mostly undisciplined, to confront Johnson with full fifteen thousand drilled troops. Patterson prudently recrossed the Potomac, and remained on the Maryland side until the beginning of July.

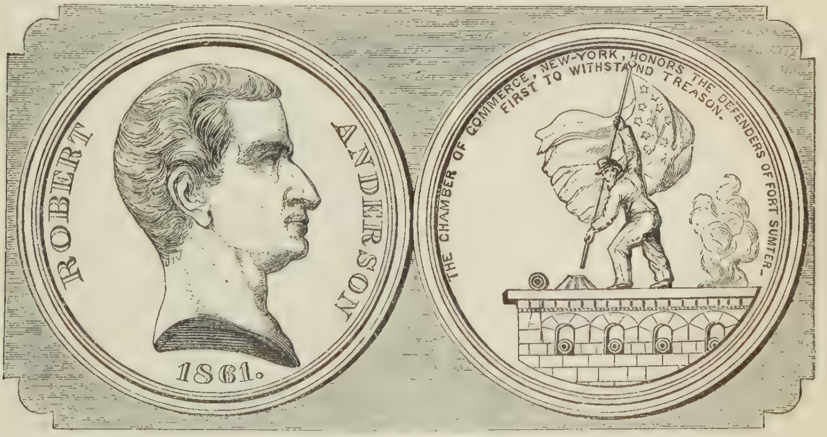
Evacuation of Manassas (1862). On receiving information of this evacuation by the Confederates, General McClellan ordered (March 9, 1862) the immediate advance of his whole army in that direction simply to give his troops some experience on the march and bivouac, preparatory to undertaking the spring campaign. General Stoneman pursued the retiring Confederates beyond the Rappahannock, but did not molest them, and the whole army returned to Alexandria on the 14th. In its retrograde movement, Stoneman's cavalry was followed by that of Stuart and Ewell, and even by artillery, for some distance. This movement one of the French aids of McClellan called a "promenade of the Army of the Potomac." It greatly disappointed the loyal people, for they supposed it was going "on to Richmond."

Evacuation of New York (1783). Washington, Governor Clinton, and Sir Guy Carleton held a conference at Dobbs's Ferry, and made arrangements for the British troops to evacuate the city of New York on Nov. 25, 1783. On that morning the American troops, under General Knox, who had come down from West Point and encamped at Harlem, marched to the "Bowery Lane," and halted at the present junction of the Third Avenue and the Bowery. There they remained until about one o'clock in the afternoon, the British claiming the right of possession until meridian. At that hour the British had embarked at Whitehall, and before three o'clock General Knox took formal possession of the city and of Fort George, amid the acclamations of thousands of citizens and the roar of artillery at the Battery. Washington repaired to his quarters at Fraunce's Tavern, and there, during the afternoon, Governor Clinton gave a public dinner to the officers of the army. In the evening the town was brilliantly illuminated, rockets shot up from many private dwellings, and bonfires blazed at every corner. The British, on leaving, had nailed their flag to the staff in Fort George and slushed the pole; but a boy soon took it down, and put the stripes and stars in its place. At sunset on that clear, frosty day the last vessel of the retiring British transports disappeared beyond the Narrows.

Evacuation of Philadelphia (1778). The danger of being blockaded by a French fleet in the Delaware caused the British fleet to leave those waters, and the British army to evacuate Philadelphia and flee towards New York. That movement was begun on June 18, 1778. The baggage and stores, and a considerable number of loyalists, were sent around to New York in the fleet. The British army, seventeen thousand strong, having crossed the Delaware, took up its march across New Jersey, and was pursued by Washington, who broke up his encampment at Valley Forge so soon as he heard of the evacuation of Philadelphia. (See *Battle of Monmouth.*)

Evacuation of Sumter (1861). After defending Fort Sumter until his supplies were exhausted, and the fortress was almost a ruin, Major Anderson consented to evacuate it on honorable terms. (See *Fall of Fort Sumter.*) The act was performed on Sunday, April 14, 1861. Lieutenant Snyder, of the garrison, and Lieutenant Hartstene, who had joined the insurgents, had been sent out to the relief-ship hovering off the bar to make arrangements for the departure of the inmates of Sumter. The military authorities at Charleston furnished a steamer to take the garrison to the *Baltic*, where Mr. Fox (see *Relief of Fort Sumter*) was waiting to receive them. After the flag of Sumter was saluted by the garrison, it was lowered, and the soldiers, in full dress, left the battered fortress, Major Anderson carrying with him the flag, and the band playing "Yankee Doodle." When Major Anderson and his staff left the sally-port, it struck up "Hail to the Chief." Soon after they left, Governor Pickens and suite, his executive council, General Beauregard, and others, went to the fort in a steamer, took formal possession, and raised over it the Confederate and South Carolina flags. The fort had been *evacuated*, not *surrendered.* The flag had been lowered, but not given up—dishonored, but not captured. The sovereignty of the Republic, symbolized in the flag, had not been yielded to the insurgents. So soon as the garrison were on board the *Baltic*, the flag of Sumter was raised to the mast-head and saluted with cheers and firing of great guns from the other vessels. The

GOLD BOX PRESENTED TO ANDERSON.


ROBERT ANDERSON
1861.
THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, NEW-YORK, HONORS THE DEFENDERS OF FORT SUMTER—
FIRST TO WITHSTAND TREASON.

FORT SUMTER MEDAL.

vessel (the *Isabel*) that conveyed the garrison to the *Baltic* did not leave Fort Sumter, on account of the tide, until Monday morning, April 15. The *Baltic* sailed for New York. The praises of Major Anderson and his little band were upon every lip, while the people of the country were deeply moved by the outrage in Charleston harbor. Honors were showered upon the defender of Fort Sumter. Before the evacuation, the citizens of Taunton, Mass., impressed with his prowess and patriotism, had voted him an elegant sword; the authorities of New York gave him the freedom of the city in an elegant gold box. The citizens also presented him with a gold medal, suitably inscribed. The citizens of Philadelphia gave him an elegant sword, and societies and legislative bodies presented him with tokens of the good-will of his countrymen. Finally, the Chamber of Commerce of New York ordered (June 6, 1861) the execution of a series of medals to be presented to Major Anderson and to each man of the garrison.

Evans, Oliver, inventor, was born at Newport, Del., in 1775; died in New York, April 21, 1819. He was of Welsh descent, and was grandson of Evan Evans, D.D., the first Episcopal minister in Philadelphia. Apprenticed to a wheelwright, he early displayed his inventive genius. At the age of twenty-two years he had invented a most useful machine for making card-teeth. In 1786–87 he obtained from the Legislatures of Maryland and Pennsylvania the exclusive right to use his improvements in flour-mills. He constructed a steam-carriage in 1799, which led to the invention of the locomotive engine. His steam-engine was the first constructed on the high-pressure principle. In 1803–4 he made the first steam dredging-machine used in America, to which he gave the name of "Oracter Amphibolis," arranged for propulsion either on land or water. This is believed to have been the first instance in America of the application of steam power to the propelling of a land carriage. Evans foresaw and prophesied the near era of railway communication and travel. He proposed the construction of a railway between Philadelphia and New York, but his limited means would not allow him to convince the sceptics by a successful experiment.

Evans, Sir de Lacy, was a distinguished British general. He was born in Ireland in 1787; died in London, Jan. 2, 1870. He entered the British army at the age of twenty years, served in the East Indies, and early in 1814 came to America with the rank of brevet-colonel. He was engaged in the Battle of Bladensburg (which see) in August, and led the troops that entered Washington city and destroyed the public buildings there. He was with General Ross in the expedition against Baltimore in September, and was near that general when he fell. Evans was also with Pakenham in the attempt to capture New Orleans. He was wounded in the battle that occurred below that city. Returning to Europe, he served under Wellington. Afterwards he was elected to Parliament, and was subsequently promoted to lieutenant-general. In the latter capacity he served in the war in the Crimea in 1854.

SIR DE LACY EVANS.

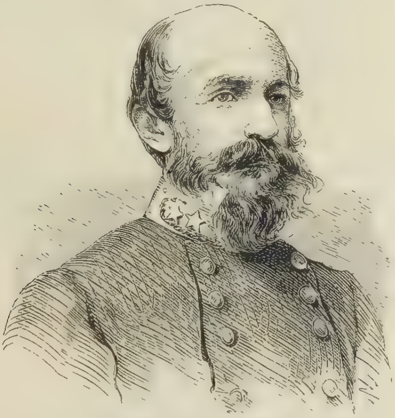
Everett, Alexander Hill, LL.D., was born in Boston, March 19, 1790; died in Canton, China, June 29, 1847. He graduated at Harvard in 1806, studied law with J. Q. Adams, and in 1809 accompanied him to St. Petersburg as *attaché* to his legation, to which he became secretary in 1815. He became *chargé d'affaires* at Brussels in 1818, in 1825–29 was minister to Spain, and from 1845 until his death was American commissioner in China.

Everett, Edward, LL.D., D.C.L., was born at Dorchester, Mass., April 11, 1794; died in Boston, Jan. 15, 1865. He graduated at Harvard in 1811, and was ordained pastor of the Brattle Street (Boston) Unitarian Church in February, 1814. He was chosen professor of Greek in Harvard University in 1815, and took the chair on his return from Europe in 1819. Mr. Everett was in Congress from 1825 to 1835; governor of Massachusetts from 1836 to 1840; minister to England from 1841 to 1845; President of Harvard from 1846 to 1849; and succeeded Daniel Webster as Secretary of State in November, 1852. Mr. Everett was in the United States Senate from March, 1853, until May, 1854, when he re-

EDWARD EVERETT.

tired to private life on account of feeble health. He took great interest in the efforts of the women of the United States to raise money to purchase Mount Vernon. He wrote and spoke much, and by his efforts procured a large amount of money, and the estate was purchased. He was nominated for the Presidency of the United States in 1860 by the "Constitutional Union Party." Mr. Everett was a rare scholar and finished orator. He was one of the early editors of the *North American Review.*

Ewell, RICHARD STODDARD, was born in the District of Columbia in 1820; died at Spring Hill, Tenn., Jan. 25, 1872. He graduated at West Point in 1840, served in the Mexican War, and received the brevet of captain. He joined the Confederates in their war against the Union in 1861; was promoted to major-general in 1862, and was conspicuous in the Shenandoah Valley, in the battles near Richmond, Malvern Hills, Cedar Mountain, Gettysburg, the Wilderness, Spottsylvania Court-house, and during the siege of Petersburg. In the Battle of Groveton (which see) he lost a leg, and was made lieutenant-general in May, 1863. He was engaged in stock-raising in Tennessee at the time of his death.



RICHARD STODDARD EWELL.

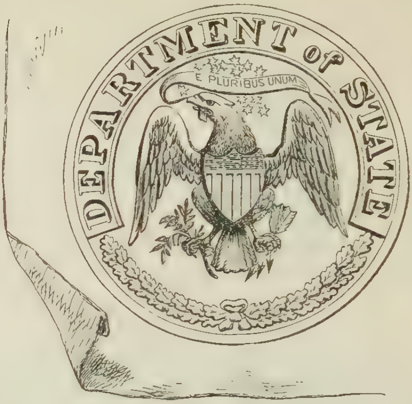
Exchange of Prisoners in the Revolution. For some time after the war for independence was begun the British authorities refused to exchange prisoners, because they would not "treat with rebels;" but after Howe's arrival in New York, when the British had five thousand prisoners and the Americans three thousand, negotiations for exchange were opened. Obstructions arose, at first, on account of the refusal of Congress to ratify the agreement made by Arnold concerning the prisoners taken at the Cedars. Six Hessian officers were offered in exchange for General Lee. Howe refused, for he held Lee as a deserter from the British army. (See *Lee, Treason of.*) Congress put the six officers and Lieutenant-colonel Campbell, a British officer, in close confinement, to suffer whatever extremities might be inflicted on Lee. The latter was exchanged in 1778. There was another difficulty. The Americans captured on Long Island and at Fort Washington, and confined in New York prisons and prison-ships, had suffered extremely; and those sent out for exchange in the spring of 1777 were generally very feeble and emaciated. On this account Washington refused to make an even exchange of healthy British and German soldiers for the mere wrecks of American soldiers. Besides, the term of enlistment of all the American prisoners had expired, and they were no longer soldiers, while every British prisoner sent in was a recruit to the army of the enemy. These disputes delayed exchanges. Humanity alone caused Congress to consent to any exchange. At length all things were adjusted, and Elias Boudinot, of New Jersey, a Huguenot by descent, was appointed American commissary of prisoners.

Excise Law, THE FIRST. The Secretary of the Treasury (Hamilton) recommended a tax on liquors. A bill to that effect was introduced into Congress at the beginning of 1791. As finally passed, it imposed upon all imported spirits a duty varying from twenty-five to forty cents per gallon, according to strength. The excise to be collected on domestic spirits varied with their strength from nine to twenty-five cents per gallon on those distilled from grain, and from eleven to thirty cents when the material was molasses or other imported product; thus allowing, especially when the duty on molasses was taken into account, a considerable discrimination in favor of the exclusively home product. There was much opposition to this law in and out of Congress. The details of the working of the law for securing a revenue from this source were very stringent, yet very just. It was opposition to this law in western Pennsylvania which produced the "Whiskey Insurrection" (which see).

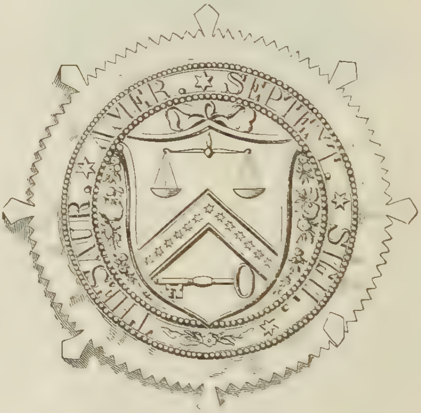
Excise Law, VIOLENT OPPOSITION TO THE, appeared in western Pennsylvania soon after its enactment, and when steps were taken for its enforcement. The law was disregarded, indictments were found against a number of distillers, and thirty warrants were issued, which the marshal of the district undertook to serve. He had served twenty-nine of them, when he and the inspector of the district were fired upon by some armed men and compelled to fly for their lives. They assailed the inspector's (Neville's) house, and an appeal to the militia was in vain. A small detachment of soldiers was obtained from the neighboring garrison of Fort Pitt (Pittsburgh). The next morning (July 17, 1794) five hundred assailants appeared. One man was killed, the buildings were burned, and the officers of the law were driven out of Pittsburgh and compelled to flee for their lives down the Ohio River. The mob were led by John Holcroft, who assumed the name of Tom the Tinker. Leading politicians took part in a public meeting at Mingo Creek Meeting-house (July 23), who were disposed to make common cause with the rioters. They finally agreed to call a convention of delegates from all the townships west of the mountains, and from the adjoining counties of Maryland and Virginia, to meet in three weeks at Parkinson's Ferry, on the Monongahela. A few days afterwards the mail from Pittsburgh to Philadelphia was intercepted and robbed. Two leading politicians—Bradford and Marshall—concerned in this robbery forthwith addressed a circular letter to the officers of the militia of the western counties, stating that letters in the rifled mail revealed important secrets, which made it necessary for the military to act, and called upon the militia to muster, on Aug. 1, at Braddock's Field, with arms and accoutrements and provisions for four days. Full seven thousand men appeared at the appointed rendezvous. The leaders in the insurrection were elated. The meeting at Parkinson's Ferry was an armed convention. Colonel Cook, one of the judges of Fayette County, presided, and Albert Gallatin (afterwards Secretary of the Navy) acted as secretary. Bradford assumed the office of major-general and reviewed the troops. It was his design to get possession of Fort Pitt and the arms and ammunition therein, but finding most of the militia officers unwilling to co-operate, he abandoned the project. The excise-officers were expelled from the district, and many outrages were committed. The insurrectionary spirit spread into the neighboring counties of Virginia. The reign of terror was extended and complete, when President Washington, acting with energy, sent an armed force and quelled the insurrection. (See *Whiskey Insurrection* and *Quelling of the Whiskey Insurrection.*)

Execution of Quakers in Philadelphia. While the British army was in Philadelphia in 1778, Joseph Galloway, an active Tory, and others employed John Roberts and Abraham Carlisle, members of the Society of Friends, as secret agents in detecting foes to the British government. Carlisle was a sort of inquisitor-general, watching at the entrances to the city, pointing out and causing the arrest of Whigs, who were first cast into prison and then granted permissions to pass the lines. Both Roberts and Carlisle acted as guides to British expeditions when they went out of Philadelphia to fall upon and massacre their countrymen. These facts being laid before Congress, that body caused the arrest of Roberts and Carlisle. They were tried, found guilty, and hanged.

Executive Departments. When the Congress under the National Constitution was first organized (April, 1789) the executive departments of the old Congress were still in operation. Having made provision for a revenue, the Congress directed their attention to the reorganization of these departments, as follows: The *State Department* is managed by the Secretary of State and two assistant secretaries. It was created in 1781, as the Department of Foreign Affairs. It has a diplomatic branch, a consular branch, a disbursing agent, a translator, a clerk of appointments and commissions, a clerk of the rolls and archives, of territorial business, and of pardons and passports, and a superintendent of statistics. The *Treasury Department* is in charge of the Secretary of the Treasury and two assistant secretaries, and is composed of the following bureaus: Of the Secretary, first, second, and third comptroller; of Commissioner of Customs, first, second, third, fourth, fifth, and sixth auditors; of the Treasurer, of the Register, of the Solicitor, of the Light-house Board, of the United States Coast Survey, of Internal Revenue, of the Comptroller of the Currency, and of the Bureau of Construction. It also has the control of the United States Mint; and also of a Special Commission of Internal Revenue, a Director of Statistics, and a Supervising Architect. The *War Department* is in charge of the Secretary of War and one regular assistant. The following bureaus are attached to this department: Of the Commanding-general, Adjutant-general, Quartermaster-general, Paymaster-general, Commissary-general, Surgeon-general, of Engineers, Topographical and Ordnance, and, at one time, of Refugees and Freedmen. (For seal of this department, see *Board of War.*) The *Navy Department* is in charge of the Secretary of the Navy, and its functions are discharged by the Secretary and one assistant secretary and eight bureaus, as follows: Of Yards and Docks, Navigation, Ordnance, Construction and Repairs, Equipment and Recruiting, Provisions

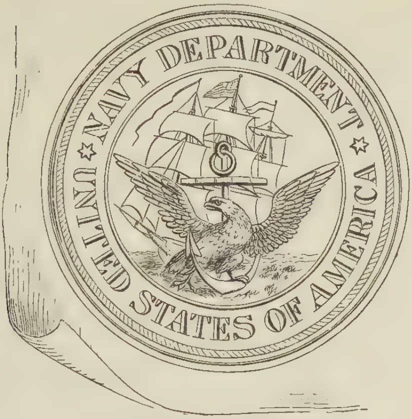


SEAL OF THE STATE DEPARTMENT.

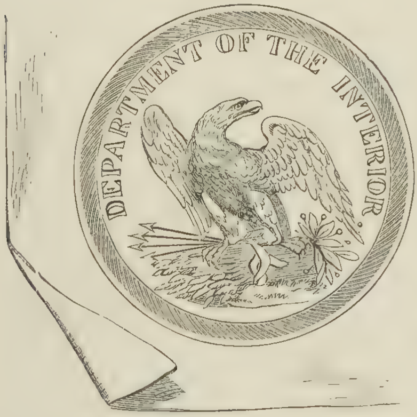


SEAL OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

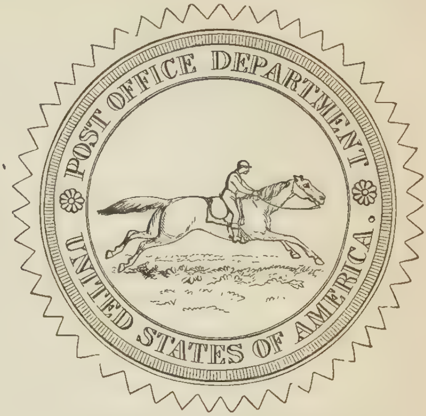
and Clothing, Steam Engineering, and of Medicine and Surgery. A Marine Corps is attached to the navy, and the entire supervision of it is vested in a colonel-commandant, whose orders for duty are approved by the Secretary of the Navy. The *Interior Department* is in charge of the Secretary of the Interior and one assistant secretary, who have the supervision and management of the following branches of the public service: The public lands, pensions, Indians, Patent-office, Department of Agriculture, and Bureau of Education. The latter is an independent bureau, with a commissioner. The *Post-office Department* is under the direction and management of the Postmaster-general and three assistant postmaster-generals. Its management is distributed among several bureaus, as follows: Of Appointments, in charge of the First Assistant Postmaster-general; Contracts, in charge of the Second Assistant; Finance, in charge of the Third Assistant; Money Order, in charge of a Superintendent; Inspection and Division, Topographical Division, and an Auditor's Department. The *Attorney-general's Department*, or *Department of Justice*, is under the control of the United States Attorney-general. The ordinary duties of the office are, 1. To give legal opinions when called for by the President or heads of departments; 2. To examine the titles of all lands purchased by the government; 3. To receive all applications for pardons; 4. To receive all applications for judicial appointments; 5. To conduct the suits of the United States government in the Supreme Court of the United States; 6. To have supervision of all suits arising in any of the departments, when referred by the head thereof to the Attorney-general. The head of this department was first made a cabinet officer in 1849, when the Department of the Interior was created and its Secretary made a cabinet minister.



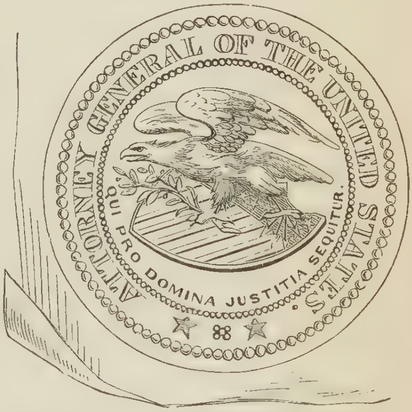
SEAL OF THE NAVY DEPARTMENT.



SEAL OF THE INTERIOR DEPARTMENT.



SEAL OF THE POST-OFFICE DEPARTMENT.


ATTORNEY GENERAL OF THE UNITED STATES
QUI PRO DOMINA JUSTITIA SEQUITUR
88

SEAL OF ATTORNEY-GENERAL'S DEPARTMENT.

Exeter, N. H., Founded. When Rev. John Wheelwright, a kinsman of Anne Hutchinson, was driven from Boston in 1638, he founded a church at Squamscot Falls, and, at the same time, a body politic upon a purely democratic model, and called the settlement Exeter. Every man, without regard to his theological views, had a voice in choosing rulers annually, and two assistants to each ruler. When, in 1641, New Hampshire came under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, Wheelwright's political policy was respected; and he had the satisfaction of seeing the rights of his freemen allowed, without regard to their religion, by the colony which had banished him.

Exmouth (Edward Pellew), VISCOUNT, English admiral, was born at Dover, England, April 19, 1757; died at Teignmouth, Jan. 23, 1833. He entered the navy at the age of thirteen years, first distinguished himself in the battle on Lake Champlain in 1776, and rendered great assistance to Burgoyne in his invasion of New York. He became a post-captain in 1782. For the first capture of a vessel of the French navy (1792) in the war with France, Pellew was knighted and employed in blockading the French coast. For bravery in saving the people of a wrecked ship at Plymouth in 1796 he was made a baronet. Pellew was in Parliament in 1802, but in 1804 was again in the naval service; was promoted to rear-admiral, and made commander-in-chief in the East Indies, when he annihilated the Dutch naval force there. He was created Baron Exmouth in 1814, made a full Admiral of the Blue, and allowed a pension of $10,000 a year. With a fleet of nineteen ships, he brought the Dey of Algiers to terms in 1816, and liberated about twelve hundred prisoners.

Expedition against Acadia (1755). Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, and Governor Laurence, of Nova Scotia, had arranged an expedition, in the campaign of 1755 (see *French and Indian War*), to drive the French out of the latter province. There was much enthusiasm excited in New England in favor of this expedition, for there was still a dread of forays on the frontiers by the French and Indians in the East. Three thousand men, under General John Winslow, sailed from Boston (May 20), and landed at the head of the Bay of Fundy. There they were joined by Colonel Monckton with three hundred British regulars from a neighboring garrison, and that officer, having official precedence of Winslow, took command. They captured the forts there in possession of the French (in June), and placed the whole country under martial rule. Then the English proceeded to commit a most flagrant crime in driving the French inhabitants out of their country, dispersing them, without resources, among the English colonies, and confiscating all their property, which they did not allow them to take away. (See *Acadians, Expulsion of the.*)

Expedition against Florida (1778). Tory refugees from Georgia acquired considerable influence over the Creek Indians, and from east Florida, especially from St. Augustine, made predatory excursions among their former neighbors. General Robert Howe, then commanding the Southern Department, was ordered from Charleston to Savannah to protect the Georgians and attack St. Augustine. A considerable body of troops led by Howe, and accompanied by General Houstoun, of Georgia, penetrated as far as the St. Mary's River, where sickness, loss of draught-horses, and disputes about command checked the expedition and caused it to be abandoned. The refugees in Florida retaliated by an invasion in their turn.

Expedition down the St. Lawrence (1813). General Armstrong, Secretary of War, planned another invasion of Canada in the autumn of 1813. There had been a change in the military command on the northern frontier. For some time the infirmities of General Dearborn, the commander-in-chief, had disqualified him for active service, and in June (1813) he was superseded by General James Wilkinson, who, like Dearborn, had been an active young officer in the Revolution. Leaving Flournoy in command at New Orleans, Wilkinson hastened to Washington city, when Armstrong assured him he would find fifteen thousand troops at his command on the borders of Lake Ontario. On reaching Sackett's Harbor (Aug. 20), he found one third of the troops sick, no means for transportation, officers few in number, and both officers and men raw and undisciplined. After some movements on the lake, Wilkinson found himself at Sackett's Harbor in October, sick with lake-fever. Armstrong was there to take personal charge of preparations for an attack upon Kingston or Montreal. Knowing the personal enmity between Wilkinson and Wade Hampton, Armstrong, accompanied by the adjutant-general, had established the headquarters of the War Department at Sackett's Harbor to promote harmony between these two old officers, and to add efficiency to the projected movements. Wilkinson, not liking this interference of Armstrong, wished to resign; but the latter would not consent, for he had no other officer of experience to take his place. After much discussion, it was determined to pass Kingston and make a descent upon Montreal. For weeks the bustle of preparation was great, and many armed boats and transports had been built at the Harbor. On Oct. 17 orders were given for the embarkation of the troops at Sackett's Harbor, and General Hampton, then halting on the banks of the Chateaugay River, was ordered to move to the St. Lawrence, at the mouth of that stream. The troops at the Harbor were packed in scows, bateaux, Durham boats, and common lake sail-boats, at the beginning of a dark night, with an impending storm hovering over the lake. Before morning there was a furious gale, with rain and sleet, and the boats were scattered in every direction. The shores of the little islands in that region were strewn with wrecks, and fifteen large boats were totally lost. On the 20th a large number of the troops and saved boats arrived at Grenadier Island, near the entrance to the St. Lawrence. There they were finally all gathered. The damage and loss of stores, etc., was immense. The troops remained encamped until Nov. 1. The snow had fallen to the depth of ten inches. Delay would be dangerous, and on Oct. 9 General Brown and his division pushed forward, in the face of a tempest, to French Creek, at the (present) village of Clayton, on the St. Lawrence. Chauncey at the same time made an ineffectual attempt to blockade the British vessels in the harbor of Kingston. British marine scouts were out among the Thousand Islands. They discovered the Americans at French Creek, where, on the afternoon of Nov. 1, there was a sharp fight between the troops and British schooners and gunboats filled with infantry. The remainder of the troops, with Wilkinson, came down from Grenadier Island, and on the clear and cold morning of the 5th the whole flotilla, comprising three hundred bateaux, preceded by gunboats, filled with seven thousand troops, went down the St. Lawrence, pursued by British troops in a galley and gunboats, through the sinuous channels of the Thousand Islands. The same evening the belligerents had a fight by moonlight in Alexandria Bay, and land troops from Kingston reached Prescott, opposite Ogdensburg, at the same time. Wilkinson disembarked his army just above Ogdensburg, and marched to some distance below to avoid the batteries at Prescott. Brown, meanwhile, successfully took the flotilla past Prescott on the night of the 6th, and the forces were reunited four miles below Ogdensburg. There Wilkinson was informed that the Canada shores of the St. Lawrence were lined with posts of musketry and artillery to dispute the passage of the flotilla. To meet this emergency, Colonel Alexander McComb was detached with twelve hundred of the best troops of the army, and on the 7th landed on the Canada shore. He was followed by Lieutenant-colonel Forsyth with his riflemen. On the 8th a council of war was held, and, after receiving a report from Colonel J. G. Swift, the active chief-engineer, concerning the strength of the army, the question "Shall the army proceed with all possible rapidity to the attack of Montreal?" was considered, and was answered in the affirmative. General Brown at once crossed the river with his brigade. Meanwhile a large reinforcement had come down from Kingston to Prescott, and were marching rapidly forward to meet the American invaders. A severe engagement ensued at Chrysler's Field, a few miles below Williamsburg (Nov. 11, 1813). The flotilla was then at the head of the Long Rapids, twenty miles below Ogdensburg. The Americans were beaten in the fight and driven from the field (see *Chrysler's Field, Battle at*), and that night they withdrew to the boats. The following morning the flotilla passed the Long Rapids safely. General Wilkinson was ill, and word came from Hampton that he would not form a junction with Wilkinson's troops at St. Regis. The officers were unwilling to serve longer under the incompetent Wilkinson, and it was determined, at a council of war, to abandon the expedition against Montreal. The troops went into winter quarters at French Mills (now Covington), on the Salmon River.

Expedition of Captain Willing. Pittsburgh was made the headquarters of a western military department, and with it communication had been opened with New Orleans. From that city, with the countenance, if not the aid, of the Spanish governor, Captain Willing, commanding the post at Pittsburgh, had obtained a supply of arms and ammunition. While in the Southwest, he had invited the English settlers in west Florida to join the American Union, but without success; and when, early in 1778, he descended the Ohio and Mississippi for another supply of arms and munitions, obtaining crews to row his boats back to Pittsburgh, he remained behind with his followers, seized an English vessel on the river, and, proceeding to Baton Rouge and Natchez, burned the houses and abducted the slaves of English planters. He was captured by a British force sent from Pensacola, who built forts at Maushac, Baton Rouge, and Natchez.

Expedition of George Rogers Clarke (1778). It was ascertained in the spring of 1778 that the English governor of Detroit (Hamilton) was inciting the Western Indians to make war on the American frontiers. Under the authority of the State of Virginia, and with some aid from it in money and supplies, George Rogers Clarke, a pioneer, enlisted two hundred men for three months, with whom he embarked at Pittsburgh and descended to the site of Louisville, where thirteen families, following in his train, seated themselves on an island in the Ohio (June, 1778). There Clarke was joined by some Kentuckians, and, descending the river some distance farther, hid his boats and marched to attack Kaskaskia (now in Illinois), one of the old French settlements near the Mississippi. The expeditionists were nearly starved when they reached the town. Taken entirely by surprise, the inhabitants submitted (July 4, 1778) without resistance. Cahokia and two other posts near also submitted. In the possession of the commandant of Kaskaskia were found letters directing him to stimulate the Indians to hostilities. Clarke established friendly relations with the Spanish commander at St. Louis, across the Mississippi. The French inhabitants in that region, being told of the alliance between France and the United States, became friendly to the Americans. The Kaskaskians, and also those of Vincennes, on the Wabash, took an oath of allegiance to Virginia, and Clarke built a fort at the Falls of the Ohio, the germ of Louisville. The Virginia Assembly erected the conquered country, embracing all the territory north of the Ohio claimed as within their limits, into the country of *Illinois*, and ordered five hundred men to be raised for its defence.

Expenditures of the United States for the War for Independence. The annual expenditures of the United States, in the aggregate, for the war had been at the rate of $20,000,000 in specie. The estimates for 1782 were for $8,000,000. Yet so tardy were the several states in raising sums for the current expenditures of the general government, that in the first five months the aggregate amount received from them was less than $20,000, or less than the estimated expense for a single day. Of this amount not a dollar had been received from the Eastern or the Southern States.

Express Business, THE, originated in the United States about the year 1837. James W. Hale, yet (1880) living, conducted a news-room in the old Tontine Coffee-house, at the corner of Wall and Water Streets, New York city.

One day a young man (William F. Harnden) called on Hale and asked his advice concerning business. It was a season of great business depression. Hale had daily inquiries about persons travelling between New York and Boston who might carry small packages. He found that means for sending small packages between cities was a growing want, and he said to the young man, "I think that if you will travel between New York and Boston on the steamboat (there was then no railway), and do errands for business men in both places, charging a fair remuneration for your services, it will pay you well." Young Harnden tried it successfully, and such was the origin of "Harnden's Express Company," the first of the great companies which have amassed large fortunes by the business, and been of incalculable benefit to the public. But Mr. Harnden, the founder of the express system, by engaging in a gigantic emigration scheme, impoverished himself and died a poor man in 1845, at the age of thirty-three years.

F.

Fair Messenger, THE. While General Greene was pursuing Lord Rawdon towards Orangeburg, he wished to send a message to General Sumter, then on the Santee, to take a position in front of the enemy and impede his flight. The errand was a most perilous one, and no man in the army was bold enough to undertake it, for the Tories were everywhere on the alert. Emily Geiger, a brave maiden eighteen years of age, volunteered to carry the letter to Sumter. Greene told her its contents, so that in case she found it necessary to destroy it the message might be delivered orally. The girl mounted a fleet horse, crossed the Wateree at the Camden Ferry, and while passing through a dry swamp was arrested by some Tory scouts. As she came from the direction of Greene's army her errand was suspected. She was taken to a house at the edge of a swamp, and a woman employed to search her. When left alone she ate up Greene's letter piece by piece, and no evidence being found against her she was released with many apologies. She passed on to Sumter's camp, and very soon he and Marion were co-operating with Greene. Emily Geiger afterwards married a rich planter on the Congaree.

ARREST OF EMILY GEIGER.

Fairfax Court-house, SKIRMISH AT (1861). Rumors prevailed that the insurgents were at Fairfax Court-house. Lieutenant C. H. Tompkins, with seventy-five cavalry, was sent from Arlington Heights on a scout in that direction. He left late in the evening of May 31, and reached the village of Fairfax Court-house at three o'clock the next morning, where Colonel Ewell, late of the United States Army, was stationed with several hundred insurgents. Tompkins captured the pickets and dashed into the town, driving the insurgents before him. There they were reinforced, and a severe skirmish occurred in the streets. Shots were fired upon the Union troops from windows. Finding himself greatly outnumbered by the Confederates, Tompkins retreated, taking with him five fully armed prisoners and two horses. He lost one man killed, four wounded, and one missing. He also lost twelve horses and their equipments. About twenty of the insurgents were killed or wounded.

Fairfax, THOMAS, sixth Lord and Baron of Cameron, was a friend and patron of Washington in his youth. He was born in England in 1691, and died at his lodge, Greenway Court, in Frederick County, Va., Dec. 12, 1781. He was educated at Oxford; was a contributor to Addison's *Spectator*, and finally, soured by disappointments, quitted England forever, and settled on the vast landed estate in Virginia which he had inherited from his mother, daughter of Lord Culpepper. (See *Culpepper*.) He built a lodge in the midst of ten thousand acres of land, some of it arable and excellent for grazing, where he resolved to build a fine mansion and live a sort of hermit lord of a vast domain. He was at middle age when he came to America. He never built the great mansion, but lived a solitary life in the lodge he had built, which he called Greenway Court. There young Washington first met him and became a frequent visitor, for Fairfax found him a bright young man, a good hunter, in which sport he himself loved to engage, and useful to him as a surveyor of his lands. He became very fond of the young surveyor, who was a loved companion of George William Fairfax, a kinsman of Lord Fairfax. Many visitors went to Greenway Court, and the hospitable owner always treated everybody kindly. There Lord Fairfax lived during the storms of the French and Indian War, and of the Revolution, taking no part in public affairs, but always a stanch loyalist. When the news came that his young friend Washington had captured Cornwallis, he was ninety years of age. He was overcome with emotion, and he called to his body-servant, Joe, to carry him to his bed, "for I am sure," he said, "it is time for me to die." A ballad gives the sequel as follows:

"Then up rose Joe, all at the word,
And took his master's arm,
And to his bed he softly led
The lord of Greenway farm.
Then thrice he called on Britain's name,
And thrice he wept full sore,
Then sighed, 'O Lord, thy will be done!'
And word spoke never more."

GREENWAY COURT.

Falkland Islands, AFFAIR AT THE (1831). The policy of President Jackson towards foreign nations was intimated in his instructions to Louis McLane, his first minister to England, in which he said, "Ask nothing but what is right; submit to nothing that is wrong." In this spirit he dealt with the lessee of the Falkland Islands, lying east of Patagonia, South America. These islands were under the protection of Buenos Ayres, and had been leased to Don Louis Vernet, who undertook to compel sailing vessels to take out license to catch seals under his authority. Having captured three American vessels, when the news of this and other outrages reached the United States, the President, always prompt in the vindication of the rights of his countrymen against foreign aggressors, sent Captain Duncan, in the ship-of-war *Lexington*, to protect American sealers in that region. In December, 1831, he broke up Vernet's establishment, restored the captured property to the owners, and sent seven of the most prominent actors to Buenos Ayres for trial. The authorities of that republic were indignant at this treatment of Vernet, as he was under the protection of their flag, but they did not think it proper to pursue the affair beyond a vigorous protest.

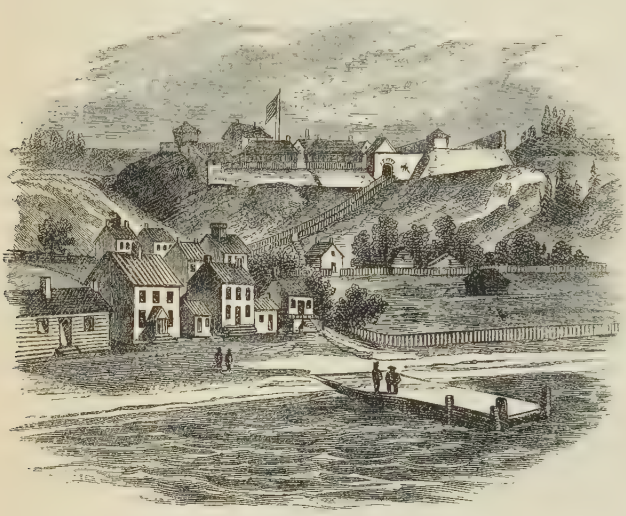
Fall of British Posts. In the course of one week (in 1781) four British posts on the verge of the upper country of South Carolina fell into the hands of the Americans. These posts formed part of a line of military connection between Charleston and Camden, and so on to Ninety-six. Greene sent out Marion and Lee to attempt their capture, and they were successful. Orangeburg was taken May 11; Fort Motte, May 12; the post at Nelson's Ferry, May 14; and Fort Granby, May 16. Nelson's Ferry is on the Santee, at the mouth of Eutaw Creek, about fifty miles from Charleston. Fort Nelson, situated a few miles above, was captured on April 16. Fort Motte was near the junction of the Wateree and Congaree rivers, and was the most important of all these minor posts.

Fall of Fort Sumter. For three months after the expulsion of the *Star of the West* from Charleston harbor, Major Anderson and his little garrison in Fort Sumter suffered and toiled until their provisions were exhausted, and a formidable army and forts and batteries, all prepared for the reduction of that fort, had grown up around them. The Charleston newspapers and politicians at public gatherings had been constantly inflaming the public mind with political excitement, calling the fort the "Bastile of the Federal Union," and declared that "the fate of the Southern Confederacy hung by the ensign halyards of Fort Sumter." The Legislature of South Carolina authorized the organization of ten thousand men, and M. L. Bonham, late member of Congress, was appointed major-general of the state forces. Volunteers from every part of the Confederacy flocked into Charleston, and at the close of March not less than seven thousand armed men and one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, mounted on logs and earthworks, were menacing Major Anderson and his little garrison. These were under the general command of P. G. T. Beauregard, a Louisiana Creole, who had deserted his flag, and been commissioned a brigadier-general by Jefferson Davis. He had arrived at Charleston on March 4. Fort Sumter had been built for defence against external, not internal foes. Its strongest sides were towards the sea; its weakest side was towards Morris Island, three fourths of a mile distant. On that side were its sally-port and docks. On that island the insurgents erected a formidable battery, shielded by railroad iron, making it bomb-proof. Two other batteries were erected on the same island, and armed with Columbiads and mortars. They were all fully manned. At Fort Moultrie and other points were batteries bearing on Sumter. The insurgents had also created a curious monster for the water, in the form of a huge floating-battery, made of pine and palmetto logs, and plated with railway-iron. Major Anderson's bearing had won for him the most cordial esteem of the civil authorities in Charleston. The faithful Peter Hart was his judicious messenger on all occasions (see *First Reinforcement of Sumter*), and his trusted caterer for the garrison in fresh provisions in the Charleston market. A source of great anxiety had been removed when, on Feb. 3, the women and children (twenty in number) were removed from the fort and taken to New York. During March rumors were everywhere afloat that the government was about to give up Fort Sumter to the Carolinians. Anderson was perplexed by these rumors, but held firmly to his determination to defend it. Beauregard made (March 25) a proposition for its surrender on degrading terms, to which the major replied with warmth, "If I can only be permitted to leave on the pledge you mention, I shall never, so help me God, leave this fort alive." Beauregard apologized. The message of the President to Governor Pickens (see *Relief of Fort Sumter*) produced a crisis. It caused intense excitement throughout the Confederacy, and especially at Charleston. Beauregard received a despatch from the government at Montgomery (April 10), conditionally authorizing him to demand the surrender of Fort Sumter. He determined to make the demand at twelve o'clock the next day. All the military and the batteries around Charleston harbor were made ready for action. Politicians had been urging this blow for some time. Roger A. Pryor, lately a member of Congress from Virginia, and a venerable man from the same state named Edmund Ruffin were among the foremost in urging an attack upon Fort Sumter. They wished it for its effect on the politics of the state. The Virginia Convention was yet full of Unionists. (See *Virginia Secession Ordinance.*) On the night of the 10th, while Charleston was rocked with excitement, Pryor harangued the multitude on the occasion of his being serenaded. He thanked the Carolinians for having "annihilated this cursed Union, reeking with corruption, and insolent with excess of tyranny. Thank God," he said, "it is at last blasted and riven by the lightning wrath of an outraged and indignant people." Referring to the doubtful position of Virginia, he said: "Do not distrust Virginia. As sure as to-morrow's sun will rise upon us, just so sure will Virginia be a member of the Southern Confederacy. And I will tell you, gentlemen, what will put her in the Southern Confederacy in less than an hour by Shrewsbury clock—*Strike a blow!* The very moment that blood is shed, Old Virginia will make common cause with her sisters of the South." This cry for blood, sent to Montgomery by telegraph, was repeated at the capital of the Confederacy. Mr. Gilchrist, a member of the Alabama Legislature, said to Davis and his compeers, "Gentlemen, unless you sprinkle blood in the faces of the people of Alabama, they will be back in the old Union in less than ten days." The order went to Beauregard to strike the blow. At noon, on April 11, he sent messengers to demand the surrender of the fort. Anderson promptly refused, but told the messengers that, unless his government sent him relief before the 15th, he would be compelled to evacuate the fort for want of supplies. Towards midnight, after communicating with Montgomery, Beauregard sent the same messengers to Anderson, telling him if he would agree to evacuate the fort on the 15th it should not be attacked. He promised to do so, unless he should be relieved. This answer was given at two o'clock on the morning of the 12th. Anderson did not know what his government was doing for him, for a messenger from Washington had been detained in Charleston. The insurgents did know. On the previous evening, scouts had discovered the *Pawnee* and *Harriet Lane* outside Charleston bar, battling with the storm. Their report startled the Charleston authorities. No time was to be lost, for relief for Anderson was nigh. At midnight the discharge of seven heavy guns had given a signal for all the reserves to congregate. The people rushed to the streets, and were scarcely in repose again, when they were awakened by another alarm. Word had been sent to Anderson that a bombardment of the fort was about to commence. Suddenly the dull booming of a mortar at Fort Johnson was heard, and a fiery shell went flying through the black night. Then the great guns on Morris Island opened upon Fort Sumter, and a furious attack began. At his own request, the venerable Virginian Edmund Ruffin fired the first shot at Sumter. Other batteries opened. Fort Sumter remained silent. The men were in the bomb-proofs, for there were not enough to man the guns properly. The officers and men were arranged in three reliefs. The first was commanded by Captain Doubleday, the second by Surgeon Crawford, and the third by Lieutenant Snyder. Thus prepared, Anderson ordered, at seven o'clock in the morning, a reply to the attack. The first shot was sent by Captain Doubleday, at the strong battery on Morris Island, when all the other batteries were assailed by shots from Fort Sumter. The first shot sent against Fort Moultrie was fired by Surgeon (afterwards Major-general) Crawford. It was caught in the sandbags, and afterwards sent as a present to George P. Kane, chief of Police of Baltimore, one of the most active disunionists there. For four hours this combat lasted, when the firing from the batteries became more concentrated, and told fearfully upon the walls and parapets. Some of the barbette guns were dismounted and otherwise disabled, and the barracks were set on fire. The garrison had heard rumors of approaching relief, and when the storm of shot and shell beat hardest, Surgeon Crawford ascended to the parapet, and beheld the relief-vessels through the misty air. They could not get over the bar, for its sinuous channel was uncertain. The workmen at the guns in the fort received food and drink while at their posts, and they toiled on wearily until dark, when the port-holes were closed. The ensuing night was dark and stormy, with high wind and tide. A slow bombardment of the fort was kept up all night. The storm ceased before the dawn. The sun rose in splendor. The cannonade and bombardment was fiercely renewed. Red-hot shot were hurled into the fort. The barracks and officers' quarters were consumed. The powder-magazine was shielded as well as possible. On the morning of the 13th no food was left for the garrison to eat but salted pork. The flames spread, and the sally-port was consumed. To prevent explosion, ninety barrels of gunpowder were rolled into the water. The heat and vapor became stifling in the fort, yet the exhausted garrison kept the old flag flying. Eight times its staff had been hit without serious injury; but at near two o'clock that day the staff was shot off near the peak, and, with the flag, fell among the gleaming cinders. Lieutenant Hall rescued the precious bunting before it took fire. Peter Hart (see *First Reinforcement of Sumter*) carried it, with the piece of the staff, and fastened it, where the soiled banner was kept flying defiantly. Not far off, eighty-five years before, a flag had been planted by Sergeant Jasper, battling for the establishment of American nationality; now defenders of the flag were battling for its maintenance. At about this hour Senator Wigfall appeared at the fort, to persuade Anderson to surrender, but failed. (See *Wigfall at Fort Sumter.*) Soon afterwards aids came from Beauregard for the same purpose; and then other deputations appeared; but Anderson refused to surrender the fort. Finally, when shot and shell and flame and lack of food had rendered the garrison helpless, he agreed to evacuate the fort, the garrison departing with company arms and property and all private property, and the privilege of saluting and retaining the old flag. Not one of the garrison had been killed or seriously injured. That night they enjoyed undisturbed repose. The bombardment had lasted thirty-six hours, and over three thousand shot and shell had been hurled at the fort. The evacuation took place the following day — the Sabbath (April 14, 1861) — and the garrison was carried in a small steamboat out to the *Baltic*, and all sailed for New York. The fort had been evacuated, not surrendered. Anderson bore away the flag of Sumter, which was used

INTERNAL APPEARANCE OF FORT SUMTER AFTER THE BOMBARDMENT.

as his winding-sheet, and was buried with him.

Fall of Mackinaw (1812). Fort Holmes, on the Island of Mackinaw (which see), was garrisoned, in 1812, by fifty-seven American soldiers, under the command of Lieutenant Porter Hancks, of the United States Artillery. It was important as a defence of the fur-traders and a check upon the neighboring Indians. The fort was on a bluff overlooking the fine harbor, and with an uninterrupted view of Lake Huron on the northwest and Lake Michigan on the west. It was commanded by the higher ground in the rear, on which was a stockade, defended by two block-houses, each mounting a brass 6-pounder. It was isolated from the haunts of men more than half the year by barriers of ice and snow, and exposed to attacks by the British and Indians at Fort St. Joseph, on an island forty miles northeast from Mackinaw, then commanded by Captain Charles Roberts. When Sir Isaac Brock, governor of Upper Canada, received at Fort George, on the Niagara River, from British spies, notice of the declaration of war, he despatched an express to Roberts, ordering him to attack Mackinaw immediately. He was directed to summon to his assistance the neighboring Indians, and to ask the aid of the employés of the Northwestern Fur Company. On the morning of July 16, Roberts embarked with a strong motley force, civilized and barbarian, in boats, bateaux, and canoes, with two 6-pounders, and convoyed by the brig *Caledonia*, belonging to the Northwestern Fur Company, loaded with provisions and stores. Hancks, suspicious of mischief, sent Captain Daurman to St. Joseph, to observe the temper and disposition of the British there. On his way he met the hostile flotilla, and was made a prisoner. News of the declaration of war had not reached the far-off post of Mackinaw. The overwhelming force under Roberts landed, and took possession of the fort and island. The summons to surrender was the first intimation that Hancks had of the declaration of war. The Indians were ready to massacre the whole garrison if any resistance were made. Fortunately, it was surrendered without firing a gun.



FORT MACKINACK, OR MACKINAW.

Fallen Timbers, BATTLE OF. On the morning of Aug. 20, 1794, General Wayne, on his campaign in the Indian wilderness (see *Wayne's Indian Campaign*), advanced with his whole army from his camp at Roche de Bout, at the head of the Maumee Rapids, according to a plan of march prepared by his young aide-de-camp, Lieutenant William Henry Harrison. He had proceeded about five miles, when they were smitten with a terrible volley of bullets from a concealed foe, and compelled to fall back. They were on the borders of a vast prairie, at a dense wood, in which a tornado had prostrated many trees, making the movements of mounted men very difficult, and forming an excellent cover for the foe, who were composed of Canadians and Indians, two thousand in number, posted on their lines within supporting distance of each other. But Wayne's troops fell upon them with fearful energy, and made them flee towards the British Fort Miami, below, like a herd of frightened deer for cover. In one hour the

TURKEY-FOOT'S ROCK.

victory was complete. The fugitives left forty of their number dead in the pathway of their flight. By the side of each dead body lay a musket and bayonet from British armories. Wayne lost in killed and wounded one hundred and thirty-three men; the loss of his foes was not ascertained. On the battle-ground, at the foot of the Maumee Rapids, is a limestone rock, on which are numerous carvings of birds' feet. It is a stone upon which Me-sa-sa, or Turkey-foot, a renowned chief, leaped when he saw his line of dusky warriors giving way, and by voice and gesture endeavored to make them stand firm. He fell, pierced by a musket-ball, and died by the side of the rock. Members of his tribe carved turkeys' feet upon the stone in commemoration of him, and for many years men, women, and children, passing there, would linger at the stone, place dried beef, parched corn, and pease, or some cheap trinket upon it, and, calling upon the name of Me-sa-sa, weep piteously. The carvings perpetuate the English name of the chief.

Falling Waters, SKIRMISH NEAR. Embarrassing telegraphic despatches were received by General Patterson near Harper's Ferry (see *Evacuation of Harper's Ferry*) late in June. He was eager to advance, though Johnston had a greatly superior force. He made a reconnoissance on the 1st of July, and on the 2d, with the permission of Scott, he put the whole army across the river at Williamsport, and pushed on in the direction of the camp of the insurgents. Near Falling Waters, five miles from the ford they had crossed, the advanced guard, under Colonel John J. Abercrombie, which had arrived at four o'clock A. M., fell in with Johnston's advance, consisting of three thousand five hundred infantry, with Pendleton's battery of field-artillery, and a large force of cavalry, under Colonel J. E. B. Stuart, the whole commanded by the leader afterwards known as "Stonewall" Jackson. Abercrombie, with a section of Perkins's battery, under Lieutenant Hudson, supported by the first troop of Philadelphia cavalry, advanced to attack the foe with a warm fire of musketry. A severe conflict ensued, in which McMullen's Philadelphia Independent Rangers participated. In less than half an hour, when Hudson's cannons had silenced those of the insurgents, and Colonel George H. Thomas was coming up to the support of Abercrombie, Jackson, perceiving his peril, fled, and was hotly pursued for about five miles, when, the insurgents being reinforced, the pursuit ceased.

Falmouth (now Portland) BURNED. British cruisers hovered along the New England coast in 1775, and landed men occasionally in quest of supplies. They were sometimes rudely handled by the people. One of their cruisers, commanded by Lieutenant Mowatt, was sent to Falmouth, where the loading of a royal mast ship had been obstructed, and Mowatt himself had been arrested and treated somewhat rudely a short time before. On the refusal of the inhabitants to give up their arms, and after allowing two hours for the removal of the women and children, he bombarded the town, and five hundred houses were presently in flames. The courageous townspeople defeated Mowatt's attempt to land.

Falmouth, TREATY AT. The Penobscot and Norridgewock Indians sent delegates to a conference at Boston (June 23, 1749), and there proposed to treat for peace and friendship with the New-Englanders. A treaty was soon afterwards made at Falmouth, N. H., between them and the St. Francis Indians, by which peace was established. At a conference held at St. George's, in York County, Me. (Sept. 20, 1753), the treaty at Falmouth was ratified by more than thirty of the Penobscot chiefs; but the next year, when hostilities between France and England began anew, these eastern Indians showed signs of enmity to the English. With five hundred men, the Governor of Massachusetts, accompanied by Colonel Mascarene, a commissioner from Nova Scotia, Major-general Winslow, commander of the forces, and other persons of rank, embarked at Boston to hold another conference with these Indians at Falmouth. There, at the last of June (1754), former treaties were ratified.

Family Compact. On Aug. 15, 1761, Choiseul, the able French minister, brought about, by treaty, a firm alliance between France and Spain—a family compact that eventually proved beneficial to the English-American colonies. It was designed to unite all the branches of the House of Bourbon as a counterpoise to the maritime ascendency of England. It was agreed that at the conclusion of the then existing war France and Spain, in the whole extent of their dominions, were to stand as one State towards foreign powers. This treaty secured to the American colonies, in advance, the aid of Charles III. of Spain. A special convention was concluded the same day between France and Spain, by which the latter agreed to declare war against England unless peace between France and England should be concluded before May, 1762. Choiseul covenanted with Spain that Portugal should be compelled, and Savoy, Holland, and Denmark should be invited, to join in a federative union "for the common advantage of all maritime powers." Pitt proposed to declare war against Spain, but was outvoted, and resigned (Oct. 5, 1761).

Fanning, DAVID, one of the most desperate of the North Carolina Tories during the war for independence, was born in Wake County, N. C., about 1756; died in Nova Scotia in 1825. He was a carpenter by trade, and led a vagabond life, sometimes trading with Indians. Late in the Revolution he joined the Tories for the purpose of revenge for injuries inflicted upon him. He gathered a small band of desperadoes like himself, and laid waste whole settlements and committed fearful atrocities. For these services he received the commission of lieutenant from the British commander at Wilmington (Craig, which see). So encouraged, he captured many leading Whigs, and hanged those against whom he held personal resentment. At one time he captured a whole court in session, and carried off judges, lawyers, clients, officers, and some of the citizens. Three weeks later he captured

Colonel Alston and thirty men in his own house, and soon afterwards, dashing into Hillsborough, he captured Governor Burke and his suite, and some of the principal inhabitants. The name of Fanning became a terror to the country, and he was outlawed. At the close of the war he fled to New Brunswick, where he became a member of the Legislature. About 1800 he was sentenced to be hanged for rape, but escaped.

Fanning, EDMUND, LL.D., was born on Long Island, N. Y., in 1737; died in London, Feb. 28, 1818. He graduated at Yale College in 1757, and settled as a lawyer in Hillsborough, N. C., where he became popular, and was made colonel of Orange County (1763) and clerk of the Supreme Court (1765). He was also a member of the Legislature, and married the daughter of Governor Tryon. He became rapacious, and by his exorbitant legal fees made himself very obnoxious to the people. Their hatred was increased by his energetic exertions in suppressing the Regulator movement. (See *Regulators.*) He fled to New York with Governor Tryon to avoid the consequences of popular indignation. He was appointed surveyor-general of North Carolina in 1774. In 1776 he raised and led a force called "the King's American Regiment of Foot." After the Revolution he went to Nova Scotia, where he became a councillor and lieutenant-governor in September, 1783, and from 1786 to 1805 he was Governor of Prince Edward's Island. He rose to the rank of general in the British army in 1808. Fanning was an able jurist, and always regretted his later career in North Carolina. He was greatly influenced by his father-in-law.

EDMUND FANNING.

Farewell Address of Washington. It was the wish of a majority of the American people that Washington should hold the office of chief magistrate for a third time. He yearned for the happiness of private life, and he would not consent; and in the fall of 1796 John Adams was elected President of the United States. Before the election took place, Washington issued (Sept. 17) a farewell address to the people. It was an earnest appeal to them to preserve the Union of the States as the only sure hope for the continuance of their liberties, and of the national life and prosperity. When the President had written out his address, he submitted it to Hamilton, Jay, and Madison for their criticism and suggestions. This was done. Several suggestions were made and a few verbal alterations. Unwilling to mar the draught which Washington had submitted to them, Hamilton made a copy, introducing a few grafts and making fewer prunings, and returned it to the President. The latter adopted most of the suggestions, and, making a fair copy in his own handwriting, sent it to the printer (C. Claypoole, of Philadelphia), who published a daily paper, and in that it was first printed. The original MS. of this address was in the possession of the late Robert Lenox, of New York. It was also published on a handsomely printed broadside, with a portrait of Washington at the head, drawn by Joseph Wright, and engraved by David Edwin.

Farmington (Miss.), SKIRMISH AT. While the National troops were pressing on Corinth (see *Corinth, Evacuation of*), General Pope sent Generals Paine and Palmer towards the hamlet of Farmington, five miles from Corinth, then occupied by Missouri troops, under Marmaduke, about 4500 in number. They were in the woods around a little log meeting-house. The Nationals attacked Marmaduke (May 23, 1862), and, after a sharp skirmish, Marmaduke fled to the lines at Corinth, leaving of his command about thirty men slain and one hundred wounded, also his camp with all his supplies, and two hundred prisoners. The National loss was two killed and eleven wounded.

Farms. The number of acres included in actually surveyed farms in the United States in 1870 was nearly 408,000,000. Of this amount about 189,000,000 acres were unimproved. The average size of the farms was 153 acres. The total value of these lands was $9,263,000,000. The total value of the products, including the betterments and additions to live stock, was $2,500,000,000; and animals slaughtered, home manufactures, forest, market-garden, and orchard products, increased the value of the entire agricultural products to $3,028,500,000, or equal to the entire amount of the national debt at the close of the Civil War. The total amount of wages paid in one year in this production was a little more than $310,000,000.

Farragut, DAVID GLASCOE, was born near Knoxville, Tenn., July 5, 1801; died at Portsmouth, N. H., Aug. 14, 1870. His father, George Farragut, was a native of Minorca; came to America in 1776; entered the Continental Army; was a bugler, it is supposed, at the age of seventeen years, in the battle of the Cowpens (which see), where he saved the life of Colonel W. A. Washington; attained the rank of major; settled in Tennessee; and was master in the United States Navy, serving under Patterson in the defence of New Orleans. (See *Borgne, Lake.*) David entered the navy as midshipman when between nine and ten years of age, first serving under Porter, and was with him in the terrible fight at Valparaiso. He was raised to commander in 1841, having served faithfully up to that time. Still persevering in duty, he was placed in very responsible positions afloat and ashore, and when the Civil War broke out he was in command of the *Brooklyn*, steam sloop-of-war. He commanded the naval expedition against New Orleans in the spring of 1862, having the *Hartford* as his flag-ship. He organized the Western Gulf Blockading Squadron on his arrival in the Gulf of Mexico, and by boldness and skill, with admirable assistants, he went up to New Orleans triumphantly. (See *New Orleans, Capture of.*) He operated with great vigor on the Mississippi River, afterwards, between New Orleans and Vicksburg; and on July 16, 1862, he was placed first on the list of proposed admirals. In 1863 he co-operated in the capture of Port Hudson, and in August, 1864, defeated the Confederate forces in Mobile Bay. His exploits in the Gulf region gave him great fame, and in December, 1864, he received the thanks of Congress, and the rank of vice-admiral was created expressly on his account. In July, 1866, he was made admiral. He visited Europe, Asia, and Africa in the steamship *Franklin*, in 1867–68, and was received with the highest honors.

DAVID GLASCOE FARRAGUT.

Fast and Festival in Virginia. Acts were passed by the Virginia Assembly in 1662 making the 30th of January—the day of the beheading of Charles I.—a yearly fast; and the 29th of May—the birthday and anniversary of the restoration to the throne of England of Charles II.—a holiday.

Fast-day in the Southern Confederacy (1861). On May 21, 1861, the Confederate Congress authorized President Davis to proclaim a fast-day, which he did on the 25th, appointing June 13. In that proclamation he said, "Knowing that none but a just and righteous cause can gain the divine favor, we would implore the Lord of Hosts to guide and direct our policy in the paths of right, duty, justice, and mercy; to unite our hearts and our efforts for the defence of our dearest rights; to strengthen our weakness, crown our cause with success, and enable us to secure a speedy, just, and honorable peace."

Fast-day in Virginia (1774). The inhabitants of the Old Dominion were profoundly moved by the Boston Port Bill (which see), and its House of Burgesses, on May 24, 1774, on motion of Robert Carter Nicholas, adopted a resolution recommending to the people of the colony that the day on which the Port Bill was to go into operation should be a "day of fasting and prayer, devoutly to implore the divine interposition for averting the dreadful calamity which threatened destruction to their civil rights and the evils of civil war; and to give to the American people one heart and one mind firmly to oppose, by all just and proper means, every injury to American rights." George Mason (which see) sent word for his whole household to keep the day strictly, and to attend church clad in mourning.

Father of his Country. An endearing name given to Washington by his countrymen early in the history of the Republic, and still used affectionately by them. This name was first given to Cicero by the Roman Senate because of his zeal and courage in exposing the conspiracy of Catiline. It was afterwards given to several of the Roman Cæsars. The authorities of Florence conferred the same title upon the powerful and influential Cosmo de' Medici, and it is inscribed upon his tomb.

Father of Waters. A popular title of the Mississippi River, an Indian name which signifies "great water." This significant title was given because of the great length (three thousand one hundred and sixty miles) and volume of the river, it receiving as tributaries eight large streams, besides hundreds of smaller ones, that drain an immense basin, comprising more than one million two hundred thousand square miles.

Fay, JONAS, was born at Hardwick, Mass., Jan. 17, 1737; died at Bennington, Vt., March 6, 1818. He received a good English education, and was with a Massachusetts regiment at Fort Edward in 1756. He settled at Bennington in 1766, and became prominent in the disputes between New York and the New Hampshire Grants (which see). He was the agent of the "Grants" sent to New York in 1772 to inform Governor Tryon of the grounds of their complaint. Mr. Fay was clerk to the convention (1774) that resolved to defend Ethan Allen and other leaders who were outlawed by the New York Assembly, by force if necessary. Being a physician, he was made surgeon of the expedition against Ticonderoga in May, 1775, and was afterwards in Colonel Warner's regiment. He was also a member of the convention in 1777 that declared the independence of Vermont, and was the author of the declaration then adopted, and of the communication announcing the fact to Congress. Dr. Fay was secretary of the convention that formed the new state constitution in 1777, and one of the Council of Safety that first administered the government. In 1782 he was judge of the Supreme Court of the state; agent of the state to Congress at different times; and, in conjunction with Ethan Allen, he published an account of the New York and New Hampshire controversy.

Febiger, CHRISTIAN, a Dane, and a soldier in the war for independence. He was born in Denmark in 1747; died in Philadelphia, Sept. 20, 1796. He had seen military service before entering the army in April, 1775. He was in the battle of Bunker's Hill, where he led a portion of a regiment of which he was adjutant; accompanied Arnold to Quebec a few months afterwards, where he was made a prisoner, and served with great fidelity throughout the war. He was conspicuous in the assault on Stony Point (July, 1779), leading one of the attacking columns; also at Yorktown, where he commanded the Second Virginia Regiment, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. From 1789 till his death Colonel Febiger was treasurer of the State of Pennsylvania.

Federal Celebrations. The ratification of the National Constitution was celebrated at Philadelphia (July 4, 1788) with imposing ceremonies. The ten ratifying states were represented by as many ships moored at intervals in the Delaware, along the front of the city, each displaying at her mast-head a white flag bearing the name of the state represented in golden letters. All the river craft were embellished with flags and streamers. A large procession paraded the streets, in which several of the principal citizens personated, in appropriate dresses, some event, such as "Independence," the "French Alliance," the "Definitive Treaty of Peace," "Washington," the "New Era," the "Federal Constitution," the "Ten Ratifying States." In a car in the form of an eagle, lofty and ornamental, sat Chief-justice McKean and two of his bench associates, bearing a framed copy of the Constitution on a staff. The car and its contents personified the new Constitution. On the staff was a cap of Liberty, bearing in golden letters the legend "The People." A citizen and an Indian chief rode together, smoking a pipe of peace, personifying peace on the frontiers. Various trades were represented; also the shipping interest, and different associations in Philadelphia. Altogether there were about five thousand in the procession, which ended at Union Square, where seventeen thousand persons were addressed by James Wilson, who took a conspicuous part in framing the Constitution. The oration was followed by a collation. About three weeks afterwards a similar celebration occurred in the city of New York, where a large majority of the inhabitants were in favor of the Constitution. Greenleaf's *Political Register*—anti-Federal in its politics—contained a disparaging account of the celebration; and when, a night or two afterwards, news came of the ratification of the Constitution by the convention in session at Poughkeepsie, a mob attacked the printing-office, broke in the doors, and destroyed the type. The people of Providence, R. I., were in favor of the Constitution, and were preparing to celebrate its ratification on the 4th of July, with other ceremonies appropriate to the day, when one thousand men, some of them armed, headed by a judge of the Supreme Court, came in from the country, and compelled the citizens to omit in the celebration anything favorable to the Constitution. A more violent collision took place in Albany. The friends of the Constitution celebrated its ratification on the 3d of July, the opponents at the same time burning it. Both parties united in celebrating the 4th, but dined at different places. After dinner the Federalists formed a new procession, and when they were passing the headquarters of the anti-Federal party a quarrel occurred, followed by a fight, in which clubs and stones, swords and bayonets, were freely used, to the injury of several persons. There was much asperity of feeling everywhere exhibited. A new convention to amend the Constitution was proposed, but was never held.

Federal Cities. The Congress having determined to have two Federal cities, one on the Delaware and one on the Potomac, it was resolved at the annual session opened at Trenton, Nov. 1, 1784, to appoint commissioners to lay out one of these projected cities near the falls of the Delaware, and erect public buildings there. The sum of $100,000 was appropriated for the purpose. It was also voted that it was then inexpedient to erect public buildings in more than one place. In January following Congress was adjourned to New York, and there it continued to meet for several years, the want of funds and differences of opinion preventing anything being done towards the establishment of a permanent seat of government.

Federal Convention, LEADING MEN IN THE. The representatives of twelve states were assembled in convention at Philadelphia in the summer of 1787 to prepare a constitution of government for the United States of a national character. George Washington, a delegate from Virginia, was chosen President, and William Jackson, Secretary. The convention was composed of some of the most illustrious citizens of the new Republic. There was the aged Franklin, past eighty-one years of age, who had sat in a similar convention at Albany in 1754. (See *Albany, Fourth Colonial Convention at.*) John Dickinson, of Pennsylvania, W. S. Johnson, of Connecticut, and John Rutledge, of South Carolina, had been members of the Stamp Act Congress at New York in 1765 (which see). Washington, Dickinson, and Rutledge had been members of the Continental Congress of 1774. From that body also were Roger Sherman, of Connecticut, William Livingston, Governor of New Jersey, George Read, of Delaware, and George Wythe, of Virginia. From among the signers of the Declaration of Independence, besides Franklin, Read, Wythe, and Sherman, had come Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, and Robert Morris, George Clymer, and James Wilson, of Pennsylvania. Eighteen members had, at the same time, been delegates to the Continental Congress; and among the whole number there were only twelve who had not at some time sat in that body. The officers of the Revolution were represented by Washington, Mifflin, Hamilton, and C. C. Pinckney. Of the members who had taken conspicuous positions since the Declaration of Independence, the most prominent were Hamilton, Madison, and Edmund Randolph, then the successor of Patrick Henry as governor of Virginia. The members who took the leading part in the debates were Gerry, Gorham, and King, of Massachusetts; Johnson, Sherman, and Ellsworth, of Connecticut; Hamilton and Lansing, of New York; Paterson, of New Jersey; Wilson, Gouverneur Morris, and Franklin, of Pennsylvania; Dickinson, of Delaware; Martin, of Maryland; Williamson, of North Carolina; and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney and Charles Pinckney, of South Carolina. Rhode Island had refused to elect delegates to the convention.

Federal Convention, MEMBERS OF THE (1787). The following are the names of the members that formed the National Convention. From *New Hampshire*—John Langdon, John Pickering, Nicholas Gilman, and Benjamin West. *Massachusetts*—Francis Dana, Elbridge Gerry, Nathaniel Gorham, Rufus King, and Caleb Strong. *Connecticut*—William Samuel Johnson, Roger Sherman, and Oliver Ellsworth. *New York*—Robert Yates, John Lansing, Jr., and Alexander Hamilton. *New Jersey* — David Brearley, William Churchill Houston, William Paterson, John Neilson, William Livingston, Abraham Clark, and Jonathan Dayton. *Pennsylvania* — Thomas Mifflin, Robert Morris, George Clymer, Jared Ingersoll, Thomas Fitzsimons, James Wilson, Gouverneur Morris, and Benjamin Franklin. *Delaware* —George Read, Gunning Bedford, Jr., John Dickinson, Richard Bassett, and Jacob Broom. *Maryland*—James McHenry, Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer, Daniel Carroll, John Francis Mercer, and Luther Martin. *Virginia* — George Washington, Patrick Henry, Edmund Randolph, John Blair, James Madison, Jr., George Mason, and George Wythe. Patrick Henry having declined the appointment, George McClure was nominated to supply his place. *North Carolina*—Richard Caswell, Alexander Martin, William Richardson Davie, Richard Dobbs Spaight, and Willie Jones. Richard Caswell having resigned, William Blount was appointed a deputy in his place. Willie Jones having also declined his appointment, his place was supplied by Hugh Williamson. *South Carolina* — John Rutledge, Charles Pinckney, Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, and Pierce Butler. *Georgia*—William Few, Abraham Baldwin, William Pierce, George Walton, William Houston, and Nathaniel Pendleton. Fac-similes of the signatures of the signers of the Constitution, copied from the original in the archives of the national government, are given on pages 472–474. William Jackson was secretary.

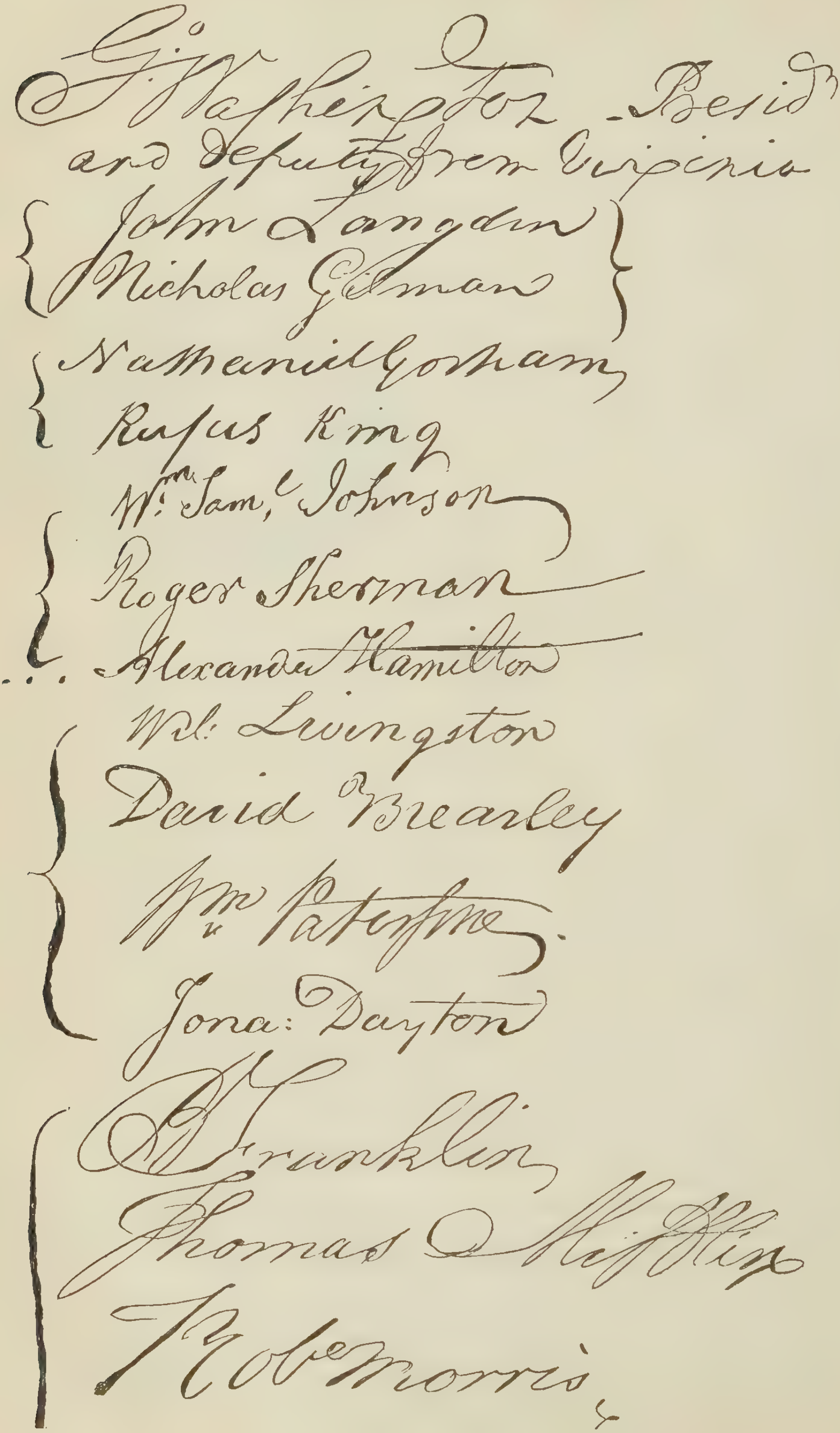
Federal Convention, RULES FOR THE. A committee was appointed to report rules of proceeding by the convention. They copied them chiefly from those of Congress, and their report was adopted. Each state was to have one vote; seven states were to constitute a quorum; all committees were to be appointed by ballot; the doors were to be closed, and an injunction of secrecy was placed on the debates. The members were not even allowed to take copies of the entries on the journal. (See *National Constitution.*)

Federal Hall. The Continental Congress, when sitting in New York, had been accommodated in the old City Hall, northeast corner of Wall and Nassau streets. This building had fallen into decay when the first national Congress was about to meet there. Desirous of permanently retaining the seat of the national government at New York, and to provide the national Legislature with suitable accommodations, several wealthy citizens advanced to the city treasury (then empty) $32,500, with which the old building was remodelled and extensively repaired. The name of "Federal Hall" was given to it, and the city councils placed it at the disposal of the Congress. New York retained the national capitol only a short time, as it was removed to Philadelphia in 1790, and remained there until it occupied its present seat in the District of Columbia (which see) in 1801.

FEDERAL HALL.

Federalists. While the National Constitution was under discussion throughout the Union, in 1788, and it was passing the ordeal of state conventions, its advocates were called Federalists, because the effect of the Constitution would be to bind the several states more closely as a so-called confederation. They formed a distinct party that year, and held supreme political power in the Republic until the close of the century. The leading members of the party were Washington, Hamilton, Adams, Jay, and many of the less distinguished patriots of the Revolution. Their opponents were called Anti-Federalists. (See *Republicans.*) In the contests of the French Revolution, which had influence upon public opinion in the United States, the Federalists leaned towards England, and the Anti-Federalists or Republicans towards France. In the presidential election in 1800, the Federalists were defeated and Jefferson was elected. The party became unpopular because of its opposition to the War of 1812; and it fell into fatal disrepute because of the Hartford Convention, whose proceedings, done in secret, were supposed to be treasonable. The party had become so weak in 1816 that Monroe, the Republican candidate for President, received the electoral votes of all the states but two. At his re-election, in 1820, the vote of the states was unanimous for him. Then the party was disbanded.

SIGNATURES TO THE CONSTITUTION. (See *Federal Convention.*)



Go: Washington—Presidt
and deputy from Virginia

John Langdon
Nicholas Gilman

Nathaniel Gorham
Rufus King

Wm Saml Johnson
Roger Sherman

Alexander Hamilton

Wil: Livingston
David Brearley
Wm Paterson
Jona: Dayton

B Franklin
Thomas Mifflin
Robt Morris

Geo. Clymer
Thos. FitzSimons
Jared Ingersoll
James Wilson
Gouv Morris

Geo: Read
Gunning Bedford jun
John Dickinson
Richard Bassett
Jaco: Broom

James McHenry
Dan of St Thos Jenifer
Danl Carroll

John Blair —
James Madison Jr.

Fellows, John, was born at Pomfret, Conn., in 1733; died at Sheffield, Mass., Aug. 1, 1808. He was in the French and Indian War (which see); was a member of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress in 1775; led a company of minute-men to Cambridge after the skirmish at Lexington, and was made brigadier of militia in June, 1776. He commanded a brigade in the battles of Long Island, White Plains, and Bemis's Heights, and was very active in the capture of Burgoyne, October, 1777. General Fellows was high sheriff of Berkshire County after the war.

Fénelon in Canada. François Salignac Fénelon, the famous Archbishop of Cambray, and au-

Wm. Blount
Richd Dobbs Spaight.
Hu Williamson

J. Rutledge
Charles Cotesworth Pinckney
Charles Pinckney
Pierce Butler.

William Few
Abr Baldwin

William Jackson

SIGNATURES TO THE CONSTITUTION. (See pages 472, 473.)

thor of *The Adventures of Telemachus*, while yet an inferior in orders, was sent to Canada as a missionary. There, as afterwards in France, he boldly admonished the public authorities for their shortcomings. Frontenac (which see) imprisoned Fénelon, then attached to the Seminary of St. Sulpice, on a charge of having preached against him. After having been a missionary in Canada two years, he returned to France. He probably received in that region some hints for *Telemachus*.

"Fenians" in the United States. Notwithstanding the unfriendliness and positive enmity of the government of Great Britain to the United States during the Civil War, the latter was ever faithful to its treaty stipulations. When, in the spring of 1866, a military organization of Irish residents in the United States, known as "The Fenian Brotherhood," associated for the avowed purpose of freeing Ireland from British domination, made a movement (May and June) for a formidable invasion of the neighboring British province of Canada, the United States government, instead of investing them with "belligerent rights," true to its pledges concerning neutrality laws, interfered, and suppressed the warlike movement.

Fenwick, GEORGE, proprietor of a part of

Connecticut, died in England in 1657. He came to America in 1636 to take charge of the infant colony of Saybrook (which see). He returned to England, and came back in 1639, and from that time governed Saybrook till December, 1644, when its jurisdiction and territory were sold to the Connecticut colony at Hartford. Fenwick was appointed one of the judges who tried and condemned Charles I.

Fenwick, JOHN, a Friend or Quaker, was a founder of the colony of West Jersey. He was born in England in 1618; died in 1683, after he had conveyed his claim to West Jersey to William Penn. (See *New Jersey Colony.*) Fenwick emigrated to West Jersey in 1675, and settled at Salem. His claim was resisted by Governor Andros of New York, and he was arrested and cast into jail, where he remained about two years. He lost his estate and died poor.

Ferguson, ELIZABETH GRÆME, daughter of Dr. Græme, of Græme Park, near Philadelphia, became famous during the Revolution by a futile mission which she good-naturedly undertook. She was a cultivated woman, and enjoyed the personal friendship of many eminent persons. Her husband was in the British army, yet she possessed the esteem and confidence of both Whigs and Tories. Johnstone, one of the Peace Commissioners sent over here in 1778, finding they could do nothing with the Congress, employed Mrs. Ferguson to sound General Joseph Reed as to his disposition to aid the imperial government in bringing about a reconciliation between it and the revolted colonies. She was patriotic and judicious. Johnstone instructed her as to what she should say to Reed, and she performed the errand without losing the esteem of any one. (See *Peace Commissioners.*) Her husband never joined her after the war. His estate was confiscated, but the State of Pennsylvania returned a part of it to her in 1781. She died on her farm in Montgomery County, Penn., Feb. 23, 1801, aged sixty-one years.

Ferguson, PATRICK, entered the British army at the age of eighteen, and came to America in the spring of 1777, serving under Cornwallis, first in the North and then in the South. After the siege of Charleston in 1780, he was promoted to major, and was detached by Cornwallis to embody the Tories in Western Carolina. He was killed in the battle of King's Mountain (which see).

Ferrera, EDWARD, was born of Italian parents in Granada, Spain, Jan. 10, 1832, and was brought to the United States while an infant. His parents taught dancing, and that became his profession, and he taught that accomplishment at the West Point Military Academy. When the Civil War broke out, he raised a regiment (Shepard Rifles), and as its colonel accompanied Burnside in his expedition to the coast of North Carolina early in 1862. He commanded a brigade under General Reno, and served in the Army of Virginia, under General Pope, in the summer of 1862. He was made brigadier-general in September, and was in the battles of South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg. He served in the siege of Vicksburg (1863), and commanded a division at the siege of Knoxville (which see), in defence of Fort Sanders. In the operations against Petersburg, he led a division of colored troops, and in December, 1864, was breveted major-general of volunteers.

Fersen, AXEL, count, was born in Stockholm in 1755; died there June 20, 1810. He came to America on the staff of Rochambeau, fought under Lafayette, and received from Washington the Order of the Society of the Cincinnati (which see). Returning to France, he became a favorite at court, and was the disguised coachman in the flight of the royal family from Versailles during the Revolution. He returned to Sweden, and was invested with dignities and honors, and in 1801 was made grand marshal of Sweden. On suspicion of complicity in the death of Prince Christian of Sweden, he was seized by a mob, while marshalling the funeral procession, and tortured to death.

AXEL FERSEN.

Fessenden, WILLIAM PITT, was born at Boscawen, N. H., Oct. 6, 1806; died at Portland, Me., Sept. 8, 1869. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1823; was admitted to the bar in 1827; was member of the Maine Legislature two terms; and was elected to Congress in 1841. From Feb. 24, 1854, till his death he was United States Senator, excepting when Secretary of the Treasury from July, 1864, to March, 1865. Mr. Fessenden was one of the founders of the Republican party in 1856, and throughout the Civil War did eminent service as chairman of the Finance Committee of the Senate.

Few, WILLIAM, was born in Baltimore County, Md., June 8, 1748; died at Fishkill, N. Y., July 16, 1828. His ancestors came to America with William Penn. His family went to North Carolina in 1758, and in 1776 William settled in Georgia, where he became a councillor, and assisted in framing the state constitution. He was in the military service, and in 1778 was made state surveyor-general. In 1780–83 and 1786 he was in Congress, and in 1787 assisted in framing the National Constitution. He was United States Senator (1789–93), and was a judge on the bench of Georgia three years. In the summer of 1799 he removed to New York, and became a member of the Legislature and a commissioner of loans.

Field, CYRUS WEST, was born at Stockbridge, Mass., Nov. 13, 1819; went to New York in 1835; and became an enterprising and prosperous merchant. Mr. Field is universally known and honored as the chief founder of the practical system of submarine telegraphy. (See *Atlantic Telegraph.*)

Fifteenth Amendment. On Feb. 26, 1869, Congress adopted a joint-resolution recommending the following as a fifteenth amendment to the National Constitution: "ARTICLE XV., *Section* 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any state, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. *Section* 2. The Congress, by appropriate legislation, may enforce the provisions of this article." This amendment was soon ratified by the requisite number of states.

Figure-head of the Constitution. In 1833 Captain Jesse D. Elliott, commanding the frigate *Constitution*, who had been stationed at Charleston, S. C., to suppress insurrection (see *Nullifiers*), was ordered to the navy-yard at Charlestown, Mass., with his ship. He found public feeling there almost unanimous in favor of President Jackson, because of his course towards the Nullifiers. The ship was hauled up for repairs. A new figure-head was needed, and, in accordance with ample precedents (and at the request of citizens of Boston, it was said), Elliott ordered an image of President Jackson to be carved for the purpose. Because of Jackson's course towards the United States Bank (see *National Bank*), there soon afterwards occurred a great revulsion of feeling in Massachusetts towards him. The placing of his image on the bow of the favorite ship of the Bostonians was regarded as an insult; and when it was finally put upon the vessel by Elliott, he was denounced and abused in the opposition newspapers, by handbills, and by anonymous letters. A great clamor was raised all over the country. Indignation meetings were held; and, finally, on a dark and stormy night (summer of 1834), some then unknown person sawed off the figure-head undiscovered and carried it away. The act produced intense excitement among the friends of the administration. The perpetrator of the deed was diligently sought, but not discovered. He is now (1880) an old man. Then he was young, enthusiastic, and fond of adventure. He was at a "Whig" meeting, and heard the wish expressed, at the beginning of the session, that the "detestable figure-head" might be destroyed. He immediately left the meeting, in a storm, proceeded to the *Constitution* in a boat, climbed up the rigging of the bowsprit, and, while the wind and thunder roared, sawed off the figure-head at the neck, unheard by the sentinels on deck. Lowering it into his boat with a rope, he bore it away to a place of concealment. After a while suspicion pointed to him as the perpetrator. He went to Washington, called on President Jackson, and told him the whole story of his prank; when Jackson, delighted with the heroism of the frank young man, promised to keep his secret and to pardon him if he should be arrested and found guilty of the act. Full twenty years afterwards his visiting-card contained the device of a handsaw, with Cæsar's despatch as a motto—"I came, I *saw*, I conquered." This narrative the writer had from his lips about the year 1840. The young man who performed that mad prank was Samuel W. Dewey, for a long time connected with the shipping interest in the city of New York.

Fillmore, MILLARD, thirteenth President of the United States, was born at Locke (now Summer Hill), Cayuga Co., N. Y., June 7, 1800; died at Buffalo, March 8, 1874. At the time of his birth Cayuga County was a wilderness, with few settlements, the nearest house to that of the Fillmores being four miles distant. Mr. Fillmore's early education was limited, and at the age of fourteen years he was apprenticed to a fuller. He became fond of reading, and at the age of nineteen years he conceived the design of studying law. He made an arrangement with his master to pay him thirty dollars for the two years of the unexpired term of his apprenticeship, and studied law with Walter Wood, who gave him his board for his services in his office. In 1821 he went on foot to Buffalo, where he arrived, an entire stranger, with four dollars in his pocket. There he continued to study law, paying his expenses by teaching school and assisting in the post-office. In 1823, although he had not completed the requisite period of study to be admitted to the bar, he was admitted, and commenced practice at Aurora, Cayuga County, where his father then resided. In a few years he stood in the rank of the foremost lawyers in the state. He was admitted to practice in the highest courts of the state in 1829; and the next year he moved to Buffalo, where he practised his profession until 1847, when he was chosen controller of the state. Then he retired from the profession. His political life began in 1828, when he was elected to the Legislature of New York by the Anti-Masonic party (which see). He served three successive terms, retiring in the spring of 1831. Mr. Fillmore was particularly active in procuring the passage of a law abolishing imprisonment for debt. It was mostly drafted by himself, and passed in 1831. In 1832 he was elected to Congress as an opponent of Jackson's administration. He was re-elected as a Whig in 1836, and retained his seat, by successive re-elections, until 1842, when he declined a renomination. His career in Congress was marked by ability, integrity, and industry. He acted in Congress with Mr. Adams in favor of

MILLARD FILLMORE.

receiving petitions for the abolition of slavery. He was opposed to the annexation of Texas, and in favor of the abolition of the interstate slave-trade. In September, 1844, Mr. Fillmore was nominated by the Whigs for governor of the State of New York, but was defeated by Silas Wright, the Democratic candidate. Elected controller of his state in 1847, Mr. Fillmore filled that responsible office with rare ability and fidelity. In June, 1848, he was nominated by the Whig National Convention for the office of Vice-President of the United States, and was elected, with General Taylor for President. He resigned the office of controller in February following; and on the death of the President (July, 1850), Mr. Fillmore was inducted into that high office. During his administration the slavery question was vehemently discussed, and was finally set at rest, it was hoped, by the passage of various acts which were parts of compromises proposed in the Omnibus Bill (which see) of Mr. Clay in the summer of 1850. It was during his administration that difficulties with Cuba occurred, diplomatic communications with Japan were opened, measures were adopted looking towards the construction of a railway from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean, and other matters of great public interest occurred. Mr. Fillmore retired from office March 4, 1853, leaving the country in a state of peace within and without, and every department of industry flourishing. In 1852 he was a candidate in the Whig convention for President of the United States, but did not get the nomination. During the spring and summer of 1854 he made an extensive tour through the Southern and Western States; and in the spring of 1855, after an excursion in New England, he sailed for Europe, where he remained until June, 1856. While at Rome he received the news of his nomination for the Presidency by the "Native American Party" (which see). He accepted it, but Maryland alone gave him its electoral vote. The remainder of his life was spent in Buffalo, where he indulged his taste for historical studies.

Fillmore's Cabinet. On the death of President Taylor (July 9, 1850), Vice-President Fillmore became, by a provision of the Constitution, President of the United States. He took the oath of office on the 10th, when President Taylor's cabinet resigned. Fillmore declined to consider their resignations until after the funeral of the late President, when he appointed the following named gentlemen: Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, Secretary of State; Thomas Corwin, of Ohio, Secretary of War; Alexander H. H. Stuart, of Virginia, Secretary of the Interior; William A. Graham, of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; Nathan K. Hall, of New York, Postmaster-general; and John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, Attorney-general. These names impressed the people with confidence in Fillmore's administration.

Financial Condition of the United States (1861). When Howell Cobb became Secretary of the Treasury in 1857 the coffers of the government were so overflowing that the Treasury notes next due were bought in; but in preparations for disunion he had so adroitly managed his department to weaken it, and so paralyze one strong arm of the government, that the Treasury was empty in 1860. In the fall of that year the secretary was in the market as a borrower to carry on the ordinary operations of the government and to pay interest on its loans. His management had created distrust in financial circles, and he was compelled to pay ruinous premiums, when money was never more abundant. When he left (in December) the Treasury was greatly embarrassed. But the country was never richer. The cereal crop and, indeed, all others were enormous, but capital had hidden in fear of threatened danger. Fortunately for the Republic, never were the people generally in such easy circumstances. The exports had greatly exceeded the imports, and the tide of trade and exchange was running so heavily in favor of the Americans at the close of November that coin came flowing into the country from Europe in immense volumes. The banks in the North were in a healthy condition. When John A. Dix entered Buchanan's cabinet (Jan. 11, 1861) as Secretary of the Treasury, and that cabinet was purged of Floyd and Thompson, and strengthened by loyal men, confidence in the government quickly grew, and there was soon an equipoise in the public mind in the free-labor states, in view of their financial condition, that made them strong and hopeful, and there was a disposition to lend to the government. They were sensible of the existence of sufficient virtue to save the Republic. The utterances of the supposed organ of the President-elect (*Springfield Journal*, Ohio) also inspired confidence. "If South Carolina," it said, "violates the law, then comes the tug of war. The President of the United States, in such an emergency, has a plain duty to perform. Mr. Buchanan may shirk it, or the emergency may not exist during his administration. If not, then the Union will last through his term of office. If the overt act on the part of South Carolina takes place on or after the 4th of March, 1861, then the duty of executing the laws will devolve upon Mr. Lincoln."

Financial Embarrassment (1815). In January, 1815, Alexander J. Dallas, Secretary of the Treasury, in a report to Congress, laid bare the poverty of the national Treasury. The year had closed with $19,000,000 unpaid debts, to meet which there was a nominal balance in the Treasury of less than $2,000,000 and about $4,500,000 of uncollected taxes. For the next year's services $50,000,000 would be required. The total revenue, including the produce of the new taxes, was estimated at about $11,000,000—$10,000,000 from taxes, and only $1,000,000 from duties on imports, to such a low ebb had the commerce of the United States been reduced. Various schemes for raising money were devised, but the prospect was particularly gloomy. The government was without money or credit; the regular military force was decreasing; the war party were at variance, Great Britain refusing to treat on admissible terms; a victorious British army threatening the Northern frontier; Cockburn in possession of Cumberland Island, off the coast of Georgia; the Southern States threatened with servile insurrection; a formidable British armament preparing to invade the Gulf region; and the treasonable peace faction doing all in their power to embarrass the government. It was at this juncture that the complaints of the Hartford Convention (which see) and a commission from the Legislature of Massachusetts appeared before the government. Fortunately, the news of the treaty of peace and the victory at New Orleans went over the country in February and saved the people from utter discouragement. The government took heart and authorized a loan of $18,400,000, the amount of Treasury notes then outstanding; and as an immediate means to go on with, a new issue of Treasury notes to the amount of $25,000,000 (part of them in sums under $100, payable to bearer, and without interest) was authorized. The small notes were intended for currency; those over $100 bore an interest of five and two-fifths per cent., or a cent and a half a day for every $100. All acts imposing discriminating duties on foreign vessels of reciprocity nations, and embargo, non-importation, and non-intercourse laws, were repealed; and so commerce was immediately revived and the revenue increased.

Financial Policy, AN HONEST. Before the close of the session of Congress in March, 1869, a bill was passed defining the financial policy of the country. Its chief provision was as follows: "The faith of the United States is solemnly pledged to the payment, in coin or its equivalent, of all the interest-bearing obligations of the United States, except in cases where the law authorizing the issue of any such obligations has expressly provided that the same may be paid in lawful money or other currency than gold and silver." This law gave great financial credit and strength to the nation.

Fine Arts, FIRST SCHOOL OF, PROJECTED IN AMERICA. (See *School of Fine Arts.*)

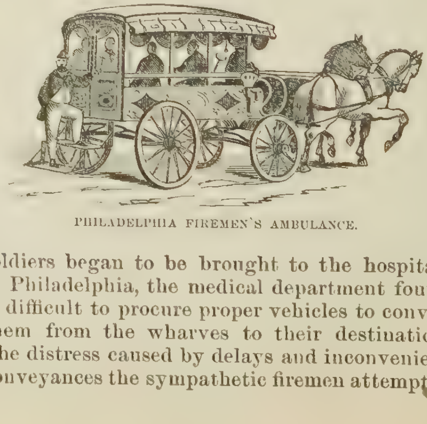
Fined for Refusing Honors. In 1632 the General Court of the Plymouth Colony passed an act that whoever should refuse the office of governor should pay a fine of one hundred dollars, unless he was chosen two years successively; and that whoever refused the office of councillor or magistrate should pay a fine of fifty dollars. These offices required so much labor and expense of time and money in the early colonial days that they had no allurements sufficient to make men aspire to them. There were no demagogues then. Governor Bradford, who had served ten years, "now by importunity got off."

Fire, GREAT, IN NEW YORK (1776). The British anticipated snug winter quarters in the city of New York, when, at a little past midnight, Sept. 21, 1776, a fire broke out in a low drinking-place and brothel—a wooden building on the wharf, near Whitehall Slip. The wind was brisk from the southwest, and the flames spread rapidly, unchecked, for there were few inhabitants in the city. Every building between Whitehall and Broad Streets up to Beaver Street was consumed, when the wind veered to the southeast and drove the flames towards Broadway. The buildings on each side of Beaver Street to the Bowling Green were burned. The fire crossed Broadway and swept all the buildings on each side as far as Exchange Street, and on the west side to Partition (Fulton) Street, destroying Trinity Church. Every building westward towards the Hudson River perished. The Tories and British writers of the day charged the destruction of the city to Whig incendiaries. Some of these citizens who came out of the gloom to save their property were murdered by British bayonets or cast into the flames. Even General Howe in his report made the charge, without a shadow of truth, that the accident was the work of Whig conspirators. About five hundred buildings (almost a third part of the city) were laid in ashes.

Fire in Boston (1760). Nearly a tenth part of Boston was consumed by fire on March 20, 1760, in about four hours. It began, by accident, at Cornhill. There were consumed one hundred and seventy-four dwelling-houses, one hundred and seventy-five warehouses and other buildings, with merchandise, furniture, and various articles, to the value of $355,000; and two hundred and twenty families were compelled to look to their neighbors for shelter. The donations from every quarter for the relief of the sufferers amounted to about $87,000.

Fire Lands. After the close of the old war for independence a committee was appointed by the Connecticut Legislature to ascertain the value of the property destroyed in that state by the torches of British and Hessian marauders. In 1793 the Assembly granted to the sufferers five hundred thousand acres of land lying within the limits of the Western Reserves (which see) in Ohio, and now included in the counties of Huron and Erie and a small part of Ottawa. This tract is still known as the "Fire Lands."

Firemen's Ambulance System (1861–65). The benevolent work of the Volunteer Refreshment Saloons of Philadelphia (which see) was supplemented by a good work carried on wholly by the firemen of that city. When sick and wounded soldiers began to be brought to the hospitals in Philadelphia, the medical department found it difficult to procure proper vehicles to convey them from the wharves to their destination. The distress caused by delays and inconvenient conveyances the sympathetic firemen attempted



PHILADELPHIA FIREMEN'S AMBULANCE.

to alleviate. An arrangement was made for the chief of the department to announce the arrival of a transport by a given signal, when the firemen would hasten to the landing-place with spring-wagons. Finally, the "Northern Liberties Engine Company" had a fine ambulance constructed. More than thirty other engine and hose companies followed their example, and the suffering soldiers were conveyed from ship to hospital with the greatest tenderness. These ambulances cost in the aggregate over $30,000, all of which was contributed by the firemen. The number of disabled soldiers who were conveyed on these ambulances during the war was estimated at more than one hundred and twenty thousand.

Fires, RECENT GREAT. In October, 1871, one of the most destructive fires on record occurred in Chicago, when a large portion of the business part of the city was destroyed. It raged about twenty-eight hours, spread over two thousand acres of ground, laid two thousand five hundred buildings in ruins, and consumed property, real and personal, to the amount of about $200,000,000. Of this amount, $90,000,000 was insured. In November, the following year, a fire in the heart of Boston swept over sixty acres of ground, destroying property to the amount of $75,000,000, on which was an insurance of $50,000,000.

Firmness of Franklin. After the attack by Wedderburne when before the Privy Council, and his dismissal from the office of postmaster-general for the colonies, he was subjected to the danger of arrest, and possibly a trial, for treason; for the ministry, angry because he had exposed Hutchinson's Letters (which see), made serious threats. Conscious of rectitude, he neither left England then nor swerved a line from his course of duty. When, in February, 1776, Lord North endeavored to find out from him what the Americans wanted, "We desire nothing," said Franklin, "but what is necessary to our security and well-being." After stating that some of the obnoxious acts would probably be repealed, Lord North said the Massachusetts acts must be continued, both "as real amendments" of the constitution of that province, and "as a standing example of the power of Parliament." Franklin briefly replied: "While Parliament claims the right of altering American constitutions at pleasure there can be no agreement, for we are rendered unsafe in every privilege." North answered: "An agreement is necessary for America; it is so easy for Britain to burn all your seaport towns." Franklin coolly answered: "My little property consists in houses in those towns; you may make bonfires of them whenever you please; the fear of losing them will never alter my resolution to resist to the last the claim of Parliament."

First "Abolition" Newspaper in the United States. In 1815 Mr. Lundy, of St. Clairsville, Ohio, called a meeting of his neighbors to organize an anti-slavery society. Six persons attended and formed the "Union Humane Society." In a few weeks Lundy's house was too small to hold the members, and in six months they numbered over four hundred. Mr. Lundy wrote articles against slavery, and in January, 1816, he issued a newspaper called *The Appeal*, devoted to the cause of abolition.

First American Diplomat in France. In 1776 Silas Deane, of Connecticut, was sent by the Secret Committee of Correspondence of the Continental Congress as minister, or secret diplomatic agent, to the court of France, intimations having been given that such an agent would be kindly received there. Mr. Deane went in the character of a Bermuda merchant: and, the better to cover his designs, he did not take any considerable sum of money or bills of exchange with him for his support. The Secret Committee was to send them after him by way of London, to arrive in Paris nearly as soon as himself, lest a capture should betray his secret. On his arrival in Paris he sought an interview with the Count de Vergennes, the minister for foreign affairs, but no notice was taken of him. He repeated his application in vain. His remittances were all captured or lost. He soon expended the cash he took with him, and was in great distress. His landlady became importunate, and he was threatened with ejectment into the street. He again repeated his application for an interview with Vergennes, but was denied. Which way to turn he knew not. He walked in the fields in the suburbs in despair. There he met a citizen who resided in the suburbs, to whom he revealed his distressed condition. The citizen invited him to make his house his home until remittances should arrive. Losing hope of either funds or an interview with the minister, he resolved to return to America, and was actually packing his wardrobe when two letters reached him, announcing the Declaration of Independence by Congress and the action of Arnold with the British fleet on Lake Champlain. Two hours later he received a card from Vergennes, requesting his company immediately. Deane, indignant at the treatment he had received, refused to go. The next morning, as he was rising from his bed, an under secretary called, inviting him to breakfast with the count. He again refused; but, on the secretary's pressing him to go, he consented, and was received very cordially by Vergennes. A long conversation on American affairs took place, when Deane acquainted the minister with the nature of his mission. So began the diplomatic relations between France and the United States which resulted in the negotiation of a treaty of amity and alliance between the two nations. (See *Treaty of Alliance with France.*)

First American Vessel in a Russian Port. Francis Dana was appointed envoy of the United States to the Russian court, Dec. 19, 1780, but was not received in his public character, as the empress (Catharine II.) had been chosen to mediate, with the Emperor of Germany, between France, Spain, and England. His presence, however, was agreeable to the empress, and she gave him assurance of the friendly disposition of Russia towards the United States. She promised that they should, in the prosecution of commerce, have all the advantages in Russian ports of the most favored nations. This was late in the spring of 1783. On June 1 a Massachusetts vessel of five hundred tons' burden, commanded be Captain McNeal, arrived at Riga, and displayed the flag of the United States. Mr. Dana wrote: "This is the first and only arrival of an American vessel in any Russian port. The impression it has made here is favorable."

First and Last Execution for Treason in the United States. When Admiral Farragut arrived before New Orleans (April 28, 1862), he sent Captain Bailey ashore with a flag to demand the surrender of the city. The military commander (Lovell) turned over the whole matter to the civil authorities. The demand was refused. Meanwhile a force had landed from one of the vessels and hoisted the national flag over the Mint. As soon as they retired a gambler, named William B. Mumford, with some young men, tore down the flag and dragged it through the streets in derision. This act was hailed with acclamations of approval by the secessionists of the city, and paragraphs of praise and exultation appeared in the New Orleans journals. General Butler arrived with two thousand troops (May 1), and took possession of the city. His headquarters were at the St. Charles Hotel, before which a threatening crowd gathered. Among them was Mumford, who openly boasted of his exploit in humbling the "old rag of the United States." He became so dangerous to good order as the leader of the turbulent spirits in New Orleans that Butler had him arrested and tried for treason. He was found guilty and executed—the only man who, up to this time (1880), has been tried, found guilty, and suffered death for that crime since the foundations of the national government were laid.

First Attempt to Favor the Loyalists. New York took the first step. The treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain, in 1783, made no provision for the American Loyalists (which see), who were quite numerous. Some of them, who had become refugees in Canada or Nova Scotia, had been sustained by pensions from the British crown during the war. They, with multitudes who remained in the States, had been impoverished by confiscations or by the ravages of war, and now saw absolute poverty before them. Those who remained were not only impoverished, but were tortured with an undefinable dread of harsher treatment at the hands of their indignant fellow-citizens, whom, in many instances, these Tories had fearfully oppressed. It was this dread that caused more than a thousand Loyalists at New York to follow the example of their Tory brethren in Boston in 1776, and become refugees in Nova Scotia by leaving their native land when the British forces departed. It was a sad sight to see persons of refinement and wealth before the war flying for refuge—they scarcely knew to what protection—from the just wrath of their countrymen and former friends and neighbors. Triumph and success, and the sight of misery, softened the asperities of feeling among the Americans towards the great body of the Loyalists, and sentiments of compassion took the place of resentment soon after the Revolution. Many refugees were allowed to return to America. Their property was restored. New York was the first state that repealed its confiscation acts. Other states followed its example, and in time society, disrupted by the Revolution, was readjusted.

First Bible printed in America. Christopher Sauer, at Germantown, Penn., printed a Bible there in the German language in 1743. At the same time a German newspaper was printed weekly at Philadelphia.

First Bishop for New France, THE, was Francis de Laval, abbot of Montigny, a prelate who came over in 1659, bringing with him for the first time monks of other orders besides Jesuits.

First Blood shed in the Civil War (1861–65). When the Washington Artillery—one of the Pennsylvania companies which hastened to the relief of Washington city—were passing through Baltimore (April 18, 1861) they were followed by an excited mob, who assailed them with insulting words and a few missiles. A colored man, sixty years of age, supposed to have been a runaway slave, was attached to the company, and was in military dress. His appearance greatly excited the ire of the mob, who raised the cry of "Nigger in uniform!" Stones and bricks were hurled at him, and he received a severe wound in the face from which the blood flowed freely. His excursion through Baltimore was never a pleasant memory for him; and he was heard to say that he would go through the infernal regions with the Washington Artillery, but never again through Baltimore.

First Blood shed in the Second War for Independence. While the army of General Hull was lying in camp below Sandwich, in Canada, he was absent at Detroit two or three days. There had been some skirmishing with detachments of his army, under Colonels Cass and McArthur, near the Tarontee (see *Skirmish at the Tarontee*); and the apparent supineness of the general made the younger officers and the men suspect him of incapacity, if not of treachery. While Hull was absent at Detroit the command of the American troops in Canada devolved on Colonel McArthur, and he resolved to attack Fort Malden. He detached some rangers to seek a convenient passage of the Tarontee or the *Canards* above the bridge, so as to avoid the guns of the British armed vessel *Queen Charlotte*, lying in the river. This was impracticable. A scouting party was sent under Major Denny to reconnoitre, who found an Indian ambuscade between Turkey Creek and the Tarontee, in the Petit Côte settlement. There Denny had a sharp skirmish with the barbarians, when a part of his line gave way, and he was compelled to retreat in confusion, pursued nearly three miles by the victorious Indians. He tried to rally his men, but in vain. In the skirmish he lost six men killed and two wounded. This was the first blood shed in the second war for independence, or the War of 1812–15.

First Blood shed in the War with Mexico. General Taylor, informed that the Mexicans had crossed the Rio Grande, and were between Fort Brown and Point Isabel, endeavoring to cut off all communication with his stores at the latter place, and that other armed parties were endeavoring to cross, sent a party under Captain Thornton to reconnoitre. Nearly his whole command were surprised and captured. Lieutenant Mason was killed. Thornton escaped only by an extraordinary leap of his horse over a thick hedge, followed by harmless bullets. The blood of Mason was the first shed in the war with Mexico, April 24, 1846. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

First Christian Marriage in Virginia. Captain Newport arrived at Jamestown, Va., in 1608, with a second supply for the colony, bringing seventy passengers, many of whom were persons of some distinction at home. Among them was John Langdon, who soon afterwards married Ann Burras, who had come to the colony as the maid of Mrs. Forrest. These were the first white women seen in the Colony of Virginia proper. The daughter of John White (Mrs. Dare), and eighteen other women with her, were in the colony on the coast of North Carolina in 1587, when that region was called Virginia. This was the first Christian marriage in Virginia.

First Church in Boston. In August, 1632, the inhabitants of Charlestown and Boston began the erection of a church edifice at the latter place. There were then one hundred and fifty-one church members at the two settlements. They amicably divided, the church in Boston retaining Mr. Wilson as its pastor, and that in Charlestown invited Rev. Thomas James to its pulpit. The Boston church edifice had mud walls and a thatched roof, and stood on the south side of State Street, near where the old state-house afterwards stood. Mr. Wilson, who had been a teacher only, was ordained pastor of the first church in Boston, Nov. 22, 1632.

First Code of Laws in Massachusetts. At the request of the General Court, the Rev. John Cotton drew up the first code of laws of Massachusetts. They were taken entirely from the Old-Testament Scripture. It was found that they were not adapted to a state of society so different from that of the Hebrews in the time of Moses, and Rev. Nathaniel Ward, who was familiar with the Roman as well as the Jewish laws, drew up a code which was substituted for Cotton's in 1641. The first article of this code provided that the rights of person and property vested in the citizen should be inviolate, except by express law, or, in default of that, by the "Word of God." Governor Winthrop did not approve of Mr. Ward's adaptation of Greek and Roman laws. He thought it better that the laws should be taken from the Scriptures rather than "on the authority of the wisdom and justice of those heathen commonwealths." The "Body of Liberties" compiled by Mr. Ward was really the first constitution of Massachusetts Bay.

First Colonial Copyright Law. The General Court of Massachusetts in 1672 gave leave to John Usher, an opulent Boston bookseller, the exclusive right of printing, on his own account, a revised edition of the laws of that colony, which had been first printed at Cambridge in 1634.

First Copyright and Patent Law in the United States. South Carolina's Legislature passed a law in 1784 for the encouragement of the arts and sciences. It provided for the security of the copyright of books to the authors, and a like privilege to the inventors of useful machines. (See *Copyright Law*).

First Court of Chancery in New York, The, was established in the year 1701, agreeably to the special directions of the Lords of Trade (which see). This court was directed to sit on the first Tuesday in every month.

First Democratic Government in America. When the *Mayflower* entered Cape Cod Bay, off the shores of (present) Massachusetts, and cast anchor, it was perceived that they were out of the northern limits of the South Virginia or London Company, and their then charter received from that company was useless. Already symptoms of faction had appeared among the emigrants on board, who imagined that when on shore they would be under no government; it was therefore judged expedient by the wise ones of the company that, before disembarkation, they should combine themselves into a body politic, to be governed by the majority. A written instrument was drawn up, and, after solemn prayer and thanksgiving, it was subscribed (Nov. 11, O. S.) by every man on board, forty-one in number. It was on the lid of Elder Brewster's chest that this constitution of government was signed. They then proceeded to elect John Carver for governor. Thus was erected the first republic—a pure democracy—in America.

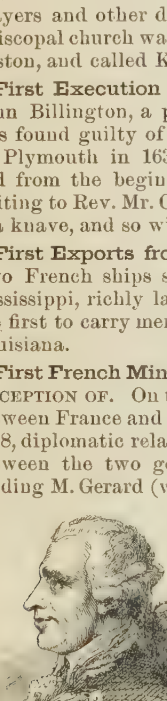
First Duel between Congressmen. Barent Gardinier was an able opponent of the administration in Congress in 1808. In a speech on a bill supplementary to the Embargo Act, he assailed the administration with great violence of language, accusing it of being under the influence of France, having secret motives of mischief hidden under a cover of patriotism, and declaring that he believed there was a dark conspiracy in operation. The administration members were greatly excited. He was frequently called to order, and even threats were made to expel Gardinier from the House. He was assailed with a torrent of personal abuse, especially by Campbell, of Maryland. Gardinier challenged him to mortal combat. They fought, and Campbell shot Gardinier through the body. He barely escaped with his life; and when he returned to his seat he assailed his opponents with more violence than ever.

First English Colony planted in America. In 1585 Sir Walter Raleigh sent out from England Sir Richard Grenville, with seven ships and many people, to form a colony in Virginia, with Ralph Lane as their governor. At Roanoke Island Grenville left one hundred and seven men under Lane to plant a colony, the first ever founded by Englishmen in America. (See *Grenville* and *Lane.*) This colony became much straitened for want of provisions next year, and, fortunately for them, Sir Francis Drake, sailing up the American coast with a squadron, visited the colony and found them in great distress. He generously proposed to furnish them with supplies, a ship, a pinnace, and small boats, with sufficient seamen to stay and make a further discovery of the country; or sufficient provisions to carry them to England, or to give them a passage home in his fleet. The first proposal was accepted; but a storm having shattered his vessels, the discouraged colonists concluded to take passage for home with Drake, which they did. The whole colony (one hundred and three persons) sailed from Virginia June 18, 1586, and arrived at Portsmouth, England, July 28.

First Episcopal Society in New England. This society was formed in Boston in 1686, when the service of the Prayer-book was first introduced into New England. When Governor Andros arrived he applied to one of the Boston churches for the celebration of the Episcopal ritual in worship. The ministers refused his request. In the following spring he took possession of the Old South Church and used it for prayers and other divine services. In 1688 an Episcopal church was erected in Tremont Street, Boston, and called King's Chapel.

First Execution in the Plymouth Colony. John Billington, a profane man from London, was found guilty of murder, and was executed at Plymouth in 1630. His conduct had been bad from the beginning. Governor Bradford, writing to Rev. Mr. Cushman in 1625, said: "He is a knave, and so will live and die."

First Exports from the Mississippi River. Two French ships sailed for France from the Mississippi, richly laden, in 1716. These were the first to carry merchandise over the sea from Louisiana.



M. GERARD.

First French Minister to the United States, Reception of. On the ratification of the treaty between France and the United States of Feb. 6, 1778, diplomatic relations were fully established between the two governments by the French sending M. Gerard (who had been an active participator in the negotiations) as minister plenipotentiary to the young republic. He sailed for America in D'Estaing's flagship, in company with Silas Deane, and arrived at Philadelphia early in July. There being no traditionary rules of etiquette suitable for the occasion, the ceremonials which took place at his reception by Congress, on August 6, were entirely new. Richard Henry Lee and Samuel Adams, delegates in Congress, in a coach drawn by six horses, provided by that body, waited upon the minister at his lodgings. A few minutes afterwards the two delegates and M. Gerard entered the coach; the minister's chariot being behind, received his secretary. The carriages arrived at the state-house a little before one o'clock, when the minister was conducted by Messrs. Lee and Adams to a chair in the Congress chamber, the members of that body and the President sitting; M. Gerard, being seated, presented his credentials into the hands of his secretary, who advanced and delivered them to the President of Congress. The secretary of Congress then read and translated them, which being done, Mr. Lee introduced the minister to Congress, at the same moment the minister and Congress rising. M. Gerard bowed to the President (Henry Laurens) and Congress, and they bowed to him, whereupon the whole seated themselves. In a moment the minister arose, made a speech to Congress (they sitting), and then, seating himself, he gave a copy of his speech to his secretary, who presented it to the President. The President and Congress then rose, when the former made a reply to the speech of the minister, the latter standing. Then all were again seated, when the President gave a copy of his answer to the secretary of Congress, who presented it to the minister. The President, the Congress, and the minister then arose again together. The minister bowed to the President, who returned the salute, and then to the Congress, who bowed in return; and the minister, having bowed to the President and received his bow in return, withdrew, and was attended home in the same manner in which he had been conducted to the audience. Within the bar of the House, the Congress formed a semicircle on each side of the President and the minister, the President sitting at one extremity of the semicircle, at a table upon a platform elevated two steps, the minister sitting at the opposite extremity of the semicircle, in an arm-chair, upon the same level with the Congress. The door of the Congress chamber being thrown open below the bar, about two hundred gentlemen were admitted to the audience, among whom were the vice-president of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania, the Supreme Executive Council, the speaker and members of the Assembly, several foreigners of distinction, and officers of the army. The audience being over, the Congress and the minister at a proper hour repaired to an entertainment given by the Congress to the minister, at which were present, by invitation, several foreigners of distinction and gentlemen of public character. Such was the unostentatious manner in which the first foreign minister of the United States was received, and he from the gayest court in Europe.

First French Missionaries in America. Zealous for the extension of the dominion of France in America, Champlain (which see) was equally zealous in the promotion and spread of the Christian faith. To aid him in the latter task he brought from France (1615), with a company of colonists, four Récollet friars, the first of a band of heroic missionaries who strove to convert the dusky pagans of our continent to the Christian faith. Clad in coarse garments, held by a knotted cord, with wooden sandals on their feet, they held their first mass in the open air at Quebec, while cannons on the fort and ship were thundering. At that moment a large council of Algonquin and Huron Indians was assembled at Hochelaga (Montreal), and with the latter one of the priests (Father Le Caron) and twelve Frenchmen went to the Huron country, on the border of the lake bearing that name. Champlain had followed with an exploring party, and, near the site of the (present) village of Orilla, he and Father Le Caron met. There were present two thousand warriors, painted and plumed, and in their presence, in the solitude of the primeval forest, this devoted Récollet friar chanted the Te Deum and offered the "sacrifice of the mass"—the administration of the holy communion. So began the wonderful series of missions by the French, prosecuted chiefly by the Jesuits, in America.

First General Assembly in Plymouth Colony. In 1639 the towns in Plymouth Colony sent deputies for legislation for the first time, and the first General Assembly was held on June 4. Hitherto the governor and his assistants were virtually the representatives of the people. They had only a few laws, which they called "fundamental;" they were governed, in general, by the common law and statutes of England.

First Governor-General of the Carolinas. The people of the Carolinas suffered long, if not patiently, the oppression inflicted by governors appointed by the proprietors, until, at length, the eyes of the latter were opened to see their true interests, by the outrageous conduct of Seth Sothel. He was suspended from all authority in Carolina in November, 1691, and he was made to comply only by the fear of a threatened *mandamus* to appear before the king. Then they appointed Philip Ludwell governor of the northern and southern colonies of the Carolinas, and he became first governor-general. He was an honest but inefficient man. He could not carry out a single measure opposed to the popular will, and in 1692 he was removed and Thomas Smith made governor in his place.

First Grand Jury in New England. In 1637 the first grand jury was empanelled (September), from which time the courts, in criminal cases, proceeded by the inquest of a grand jury, and by petit jurors as to matters of fact.

First Impost Duties in English-American Colonies. In 1672 the British Parliament, regarding colonial commerce as a proper source of public revenue and taxation, passed a law imposing a duty on sugar, tobacco, ginger, cocoanut, indigo, logwood, fustic, wool, and cotton, under certain conditions. It was enacted that the whole business should be managed and the imposts levied by officers appointed by the commissioners of customs in England, under the authority of the lords of the treasury. This was the first attempt at taxation of the colonies without their consent.

First Impost Duty in the United States. In the spring of 1783 the Congress discussed the question of laying an impost duty for the restoration of the public credit. Finally, on April 18, 1782, it was voted "that it be recommended to the several states as indispensably necessary to the restoration of public credit, and to the punctual and honorable discharge of the public debts, to invest the United States, in Congress assembled, with power to levy for the use of the United States" certain duties named upon certain goods imported from any foreign port. Under the provisions of the Articles of Confederation (which see), the unanimous consent of the states was necessary to confer this power upon the Congress. This was the first attempt to lay such duties for revenue. The necessity was obvious, and all the states except Rhode Island and Georgia agreed to an *ad valorem* duty of five per cent. upon all goods excepting spirituous liquors, wines, teas, pepper, sugars, molasses, cocoa, and coffee, on which specific duties were laid. The Assembly gave, as a reason for its refusal, the inequality of such a tax, bearing harder on the commercial states, and the inexpediency and danger of intrusting its collection to Federal officers, unknown and not accountable to the state governments. A committee of the Congress, with Alexander Hamilton, a delegate from New York, as chairman, was appointed to lay the proposition before the several states and to urge their acquiescence. They sent it forth with an eloquent address, which appealed to the patriotism of the people. The measure was approved by the leading men of the country, and all the states but two were willing to give Congress the desired power. "It is *money*, not *power*, that ought to be the object," they said. "The former will pay our *debts*, the latter may destroy our *liberties*."

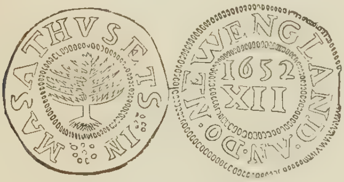
First Indian Government established in New England. In 1647 the General Court of Massachusetts organized the Natick Indians at Nonantum (see *Mission to the Indians*) into a political community, where a court of jurisdiction was established. An order was passed that one or more of the magistrates at Boston should, once a quarter, keep a court at Nonantum, and determine all cases, civil and criminal, that might arise among the Indians. Power was given to the sachems to bring any of their people to this court, and to hold a court themselves once a month if they saw fit. All fines imposed upon any Indians were bestowed upon some meeting-houses for the education of their poorer children in learning, by the advice of the magistrates. A similar court was set up on the site of Concord. In 1651 the Indians built a town at Natick, and applied for a form of civil government. Mr. Eliot advised them to adopt that which Jethro proposed to Moses. Accordingly, about one hundred of them met in council (August 6) and chose one ruler of one hundred, two rulers of fifties, and ten rulers of tens. After the election they entered into a solemn covenant.

First Mass celebrated in Boston, THE, was performed by a Roman Catholic priest in 1788, and the following year the first Roman Catholic Church was founded in Boston.

First Mayor of New York. After the capture of New Netherland by the English, and the name of the province as well as the capital (New Amsterdam) was changed to New York, and all the arrangements had been made for a municipal government under English laws, Thomas Willett was appointed the first mayor (June, 1665), while the sheriff (Schout) and a majority of the new board of aldermen (burgomasters) were Dutch. Willett was much esteemed by all the people of both nationalities.

First Military Organization in Pennsylvania. (See *Franklin's Volunteer Militia.*)

First Mint established in the English-American Colonies. The earliest colonial coinage was in Massachusetts, in pursuance of an order of the General Court, passed May 27, 1652, which established a "mint-house" at Boston. The order required the coinage of "12-pence, 6-pence, and 3-pence peeces, which shall be for forme flatt, and stamped on one side with N. E., and on the other side with XIId, VId, and IIId," according to the value of each piece. These coins were to be of the fineness of "new sterling English money," and every shilling was to "weigh three penny Troy weight, and lesser peeces proportionably." It was found, as soon as they were in circulation, that, owing to the excessive plainness of their finish, they were exposed to "washing and clipping." To remedy this evil, the General Court, on Oct. 9 of the same year, ordered a new die, and required that "henceforth both shillings and smaller peeces shall have a double ring on either side, with this inscription: "Massachusetts, and a tree in the centre, on the one side, and New England and the date of the year on the other side." In 1662 a two-penny piece was added to the series. This mint existed about thirty-four years, but all the coins issued have only the dates 1652 and 1662, the original dies having done service, probably, throughout the whole period. These coins are now known as "pine-tree shillings."



THE "PINE-TREE SHILLING."

First National Congress, Opening of the. On the 8th of January, 1790, Washington left his house on Franklin Square, New York, in his coach, drawn by four bay horses, preceded by Colonel Humphreys and Major Jackson, in military uniform, riding two of his white horses, and followed by his private secretaries, Lear and Nelson, in his chariot. His own coach was followed by carriages bearing the Chief-justice and Secretaries of the Treasury and of War, the Secretary of State not having yet arrived. The President was met at the outer door of the hall by the door-keepers of the Senate and House of Representatives, and conducted by them to the door of the Senate-chamber, from which he was led through the assembled members of Congress (the Senators on one side and Representatives on the other) to the chair of state, where he was seated. In a few minutes the President arose, and with him the members of both Houses, and read his speech, or message. Handing a copy to the President of the Senate and Speaker of the House, he retired, bowing to the members as he passed out. Then he returned to his house in the same manner as he came. On that occasion Washington was dressed in a suit of clothes made in a woollen factory at Hartford, Conn. (See *Washington in New England.*) These ceremonies at the opening of each Congress were done away with by Jefferson, when he became President, he sending his written messages to Congress by his private secretary, instead of delivering them in person.

First Naturalization Act in the Colonies. In 1715 the Assembly of New York passed an act for naturalizing all Protestants of foreign birth then inhabiting that colony.

First Navigation Act. By an ordinance of the British Parliament (1646), all goods, merchandise, and necessaries for the English-American plantations were exempted from duty for three years, on condition that no colonial vessel be suffered to lade any goods of the growth of the plantations and carry them to a foreign port, excepting in English bottoms. The preamble to the ordinance mentioned "Virginia, Bermudas, Barbadoes, and other places of America."

First Organ in a Congregational Church in New England. Late in November, 1785, an organ was introduced into the First Congregational Church in Boston. Never before had instrumental music been heard in a Congregational church in New England.

First Paper-money in America. To defray the expenses of the Expedition of De Nonville (which see), a paper currency, similar to the Continental Bills of Credit (which see), was issued by the government of Canada in 1684, which was called "card money." It was redeemable in bills on France.

First Paper-money in Virginia. Levies for the French and Indian War (which see) were raised in Virginia, and in 1755 the Virginia Assembly, having voted £20,000 towards their support, authorized the issue of treasury notes—the first paper-money of that province.

First Political Newspapers in America (1732). The quarrel between Governor Cosby and Rip van Dam resulted in the employment of the newspaper press for the first time in America as a political engine. The *New York Gazette*, printed by Bradford, became the organ of the governor and the royalist party; the *New York Weekly Journal*, printed by John P. Zenger, was the organ of the Republicans. (See *Zenger's Trial.*)

First Presidential and Congressional Elec-

tion. All of the ratifying states excepting New York chose presidential electors, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution (which see). The electors chosen met in their respective states on the day in February, 1789, appointed by the expiring Continental Congress, and cast their votes unanimously for George Washington. Meanwhile the election of senators and representatives had occurred in the several states—the former by the State Legislatures and the latter by the people. The election of representatives was attended with much party warmth of feeling, as the people were divided, by a pretty sharply defined line, into "Federal" and "Anti-Federal" parties.

First Prisoner of War (1812). Captain Wilkinson, of the Royal Marines, excited suspicions in Norfolk, Va., when war was declared, that he was about to give information of the fact to a British man-of-war then hovering on the coast. He was seen rapidly making his way from the house of the British consul through back streets to a mail-boat about to start for Hampton. He darted on board the boat, and tried to conceal himself. A boat from the navy-yard and another from Fort Norfolk gave chase. Wilkinson was brought back, and conveyed to the navy-yard as a prisoner of war, the first taken after war was declared.

First Public Worship at Jamestown. Rev. Mr. Hunt accompanied the first emigrants to Virginia. The weather was very warm, and under an awning made of an old sail, fastened to two or three trees, to shade them from the sun, the first public worship was held. They made walls of split rails; their seats were unhewed logs, until they cut planks; the pulpit was a bar of wood nailed to two trees; and in stormy weather they repaired to an old and greatly worn tent. This was the chapel until they built a barn-like structure, set upon "rude crotchets," covered with rafts, sedge, and earth, as were the walls. Their best houses were like the church, though of inferior workmanship; and out of the chapel they could not well keep the wind and rain, yet in it they had daily common prayer morning and evening, every Sunday two services, and "every three months the holy communion, until the minister died."

First Quaker Meeting-house in Boston, THE, was built in 1710.

First Quarantine Law. A profitable trade had been opened between Massachusetts and Barbadoes and other West India islands. In the summer of 1647 there was a wasting epidemic in those islands, carrying off six thousand people in Barbadoes, and nearly as many in the other islands, proportionably to their population. The General Court of Massachusetts, on hearing of the disease, published an order that all vessels which should come from the West Indies should stay at the Castle at the entrance to the harbor, and not land any passengers or goods without license from three of the Council, under a penalty of $500. A like penalty was imposed upon any person visiting such quarantined vessel without permission. A similar order was sent to Salem and other ports. Was this disease yellow fever?

First Remittance from New Plymouth. In November, 1621, Rev. Robert Cushman came to New Plymouth in the *Fortune*, and embarked for England in the same vessel the following month, taking with him a cargo of furs, sassafras, clapboards, and wainscot, valued at about $2450, the first remittance from the Pilgrim colony.

First Republican Government in America. When the six thousand white inhabitants of Louisiana heard of the cession of their domain by France to Spain, by the treaty of 1763, they formed an Assembly of representatives of each parish in the colony, which resolved to ask the King of France to observe their loyalty, and not sever them from his dominions. They sent John Milhet, a wealthy merchant of New Orleans, as their envoy to Paris, to present their petition to Choiseul (which see); but that minister said, "It may be France cannot bear the charge of supporting the colony's precarious existence." On July 10, 1765, Antonio de Ulloa wrote a letter at Havana to New Orleans, and announced to the authorities there that he had received orders to take possession of Louisiana in the name of the Spanish monarch. He landed there on March 5, 1766, with civil officers, three Capuchin monks, and eighty soldiers. The colonists received him coldly. The French garrison of three hundred soldiers refused to enter the Spanish service, nor would the inhabitants consent to give up their nationality. Ulloa could only direct a Spanish commissary to defray the expenses of government at the cost of Spain, and to administer it under the French flag, by old French officers. Very soon the Spanish restrictive commercial system was applied to Louisiana. The merchants of New Orleans remonstrated. "The extension and freedom of trade," they said, "far from injuring states and colonies, are their strength and support." The ordinance was suspended, and very little Spanish jurisdiction was exercised in Louisiana. The conduct of Ulloa, the derangement of business, and a sense of vassalage aroused the whole colony at the end of two years, and it was proposed to make New Orleans a republic like Holland or Venice, with a legislative body of forty men, and a single executive. The people of the country parishes filled the city, and, joining those of New Orleans, formed a numerous assembly, in which John Milhet, his brother, Lafrenière, and one or two others were conspicuous. They adopted an address to the Superior Council (Oct. 25, 1768), rehearsing their grievances, and in their Petition of Rights they claimed freedom of commerce with the ports of France and America, and demanded the expulsion of Ulloa from the colony. The address was signed by nearly six hundred names. It was adopted by the Council (Oct. 26); and when the French flag was displayed on the public square, women and children kissed its folds, and nine hundred men raised it amid shouts of "Long live the

King of France; we will have no king but him." Ulloa fled to Havana, while the people of Louisiana made themselves a republic as an alternative to their renewed political connection with France. They elected their own treasurer, and syndics to represent the mass of the colony. They sent envoys to Paris bearing a memorial to the French monarch (Louis XV.), asking him to intercede between them and the King of Spain. Du Chatelet, the French ambassador in London, wrote to Choiseul (Feb. 24, 1769): "The success of the people of New Orleans in driving away the Spaniards is at least a good example for the English colonies; may they set about following it." (See *Choiseul.*)

First Salt-works established in America. In 1630 Governor Harvey, of Virginia, commenced an establishment for the manufacture of salt by solar evaporation of sea-water, to be erected at Accomac, on the eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay.

First Sermon preached in New England. Rev. Robert Cushman (which see), one of the agents sent by the "Pilgrims" at Leyden to London, to prepare the way for their emigration to America, became one of the founders of New Plymouth colony, in New England. He reached New Plymouth Nov. 9, 1621, and on Dec. 12 he preached a sermon "On the Sin and Danger of Self-love." This was the first sermon preached in New England by a regularly ordained minister. It was printed in London, and is believed to be the oldest sermon extant preached in America. In the "Epistle Dedicatory," the preacher declared it to be the general belief that New England was an island.

First Settlement in Ohio. (See *Ohio Company.*)

First Settler in North Carolina. George Durant, a Quaker, appears to have been the first white settler in North Carolina — about 1650. Other settlers appeared in the region of the Chowan. Durant's Neck perpetuates the name of that first settler.

First Ship and first Water-mills built in Massachusetts. In 1633 a ship was built at Medford, of sixty tons burden — the beginning of ship-building in New England. The same year a water-mill was built at Dorchester by Mr. Stoughton, by permission of the authorities; and another was erected at Roxbury by Mr. Dummer. The same year rye was first raised in New England, at which the poor people greatly rejoiced to find the land would bear it.

First Ship built in Boston, THE, was called *The Trial*. She made a trip to Balboa in 1638, laden with cod and mackerel, and returned with a cargo of fruit, wine, oil, iron, and wool for the colonies.

First Ship built in New England. On the arrival of the Popham Colony (which see), Thomas Digby, the master shipwright, caused timber to be cut down, hewn into shape, and left to season until late in the fall, when he built a vessel, of thirty tons burden, which was named *Virginia*. This was the first vessel built by Englishmen in New England. Its first use was to convey the disappointed colonists back to Old England. That was in 1607.

First Ship built on Manhattan Island. Adrian Block was a bold Dutch navigator. He came from Holland to Manhattan in 1613, in the *Tigress*, a small vessel; and when she was about to sail for Amsterdam, with a cargo of furs and skins, late in the year, she took fire and was destroyed. The hardy seamen built rude log huts to shelter themselves from the snows and winds, and went cheerily to work to construct a new vessel. It was completed before the ice in the bay had broken up in the spring. Block named it *Ormst* — the "restless" — a title that seemed prophetic of the unresting commercial activity of the great city and forests of vessels that now appear where that rude hamlet and little vessel were built early in the seventeenth century.

First Street-lamps in Boston, THE, were put up in 1774.

First supplying of Indians with Fire-arms. In 1656 the Legislature of Massachusetts granted a license to certain persons to supply the Eastern Indians with arms and ammunition for hunting, on paying an acknowledgment into the public treasury. They soon learned to use them for a different purpose.

First Tariff Bill passed by the National Congress. On May 15, 1789, the first tariff bill adopted by the Congress of the United States was carried in the House of Representatives by the very decided majority of forty-one to eight. It was modified by the Senate before its final passage. It imposed specific duties on distilled spirits, molasses, wines, beer, ale, porter, cider, malt, sugar, coffee, cocoa, tea, candles, cheese, soap, boots and shoes, silks, cables and tarred and untarred cordage, fine and pack thread, wrought steel, nails and spikes, salt, manufactured tobacco, indigo, wool and cotton cards, coal, pickled and dried fish, playing-cards, cotton, and hemp. *Ad valorem* duties of ten per cent. were laid on glass of all kinds (black quart-bottles excepted), china, stone and earthen ware, gunpowder, paints, shoe and knee buckles, gold and silver lace and leaf, blank-books, paper, cabinet wares, leather, ready-made clothing, hats, gloves, millinery, canes, brushes, gold and silver and plated ware and jewelry, buttons, saddles, sheet and rolled iron, iron castings, anchors, tin and wooden ware. A duty of five per cent. was laid upon all other articles, including manufactures of wool, cotton, and linen, excepting saltpetre, tin, lead, old pewter, brass, iron and brass wire, copper in sheets, wood, dye-stuffs, hides and furs, which were to be admitted free of duty. In a subsequent act it was provided that in all cases of *ad valorem* duties the value should be ascertained by adding ten per cent., or, if the goods came from the Cape of Good Hope or beyond, twenty per cent., to the cost at the place of exportation. Upon all goods re-exported within twelve months a drawback was to be allowed of the whole amount of duties, one per cent. being deducted. For the encouragement of American shipping, when the goods were imported in American vessels a tenth part of the duties was to be remitted. This first tariff act was limited to the 1st of June, 1796.

First Temperance Society in America. French traders engaged extensively in the sale of intoxicating liquors to the Indians in Canada. The Jesuit missionaries opposed the traffic with all their might. That traffic was not only injurious to the Indians, but interfered seriously with the labors of the missionaries. The wealthy traders managed to interest the governor-general in their behalf, also the king's counsel, on the pretext that the traffic was necessary to secure the good-will of the Indians. It was asserted that the evils of it were imaginary or much exaggerated. For once, however, philanthropy triumphed over sordid interest. The Bishop of Quebec went to France in 1678, and obtained a royal decree prohibiting this outrageous traffic under heavy penalties.

First Traitor in the United States, The. On the establishment of a general hospital (July 27, 1755), Dr. Benjamin Church was unanimously chosen chief director. He was a grandson of Colonel Benjamin Church, distinguished in the Indian wars in New England. He was born at Newport, R. I., Aug. 24, 1734; lost at sea in May, 1776. He was a graduate of Harvard University, studied medicine in London, and became eminent as a surgeon. He lived a bachelor, extravagantly and licentiously, in a fine mansion which he built at Raynham, Mass., in 1768. For several years preceding the Revolution he was conspicuous among the leading Whigs. Of the Massachusetts Provincial Congress he was an active member. At the same time, while he was trusted as an ardent patriot, Church was evidently the secret enemy of the Republicans. So early as 1774 he wrote parodies of his own popular songs in favor of liberty for the Tory newspapers; and in September, 1775, an intercepted letter, written by him in cipher to Major Cain, in Boston, which had passed through the hands of the mistress of Church, was deciphered; and the woman confessed that he was the author. The case was laid before the Continental Congress, and he was dismissed from the general directorship of the hospital. He was arrested and tried by a court-martial at Cambridge on a charge "of holding a criminal correspondence with the enemy." He was convicted (Oct. 3), and imprisoned at Cambridge. On the 7th of November the Congress ordered him to be "close confined, without the use of pen, ink, or paper; and that no person be allowed to converse with him, except in the presence and hearing of a magistrate of the town or the sheriff of the county where he shall be confined, and in the English language, until further orders from this or a future Congress." He was so confined in the jail at Norwich, Conn. In May, 1776, he was released on account of failing health, and sailed for the West Indies in a merchant vessel. He and the vessel were never heard of afterwards. Benjamin Church was the first traitor to the Republican cause in America. He was well educated, and a writer in prose and verse of considerable ability.

First Troops for the Defence of Washington (1861). Pennsylvania sent the first troops to the capital for its defence. (See *Pennsylvania Troops in Baltimore.*) Massachusetts was equally ready and determined, and some of her troops reached the capital on the day after the arrival of the Pennsylvanians. Some troops were sent by Massachusetts (April 17, 1861) to Fortress Monroe, in Virginia, then in imminent danger of seizure by the insurgents; and thirteen companies, under General Butler, started for Washington city. Rhode Island, through which these troops passed, was in a blaze of excitement. Governor Sprague had promptly tendered to the government the services of one thousand infantry and a battalion of artillery; and the Legislature, assembling on April 17, promptly provided for the state's quota and appropriated $500,000 for war purposes. The banks offered adequate loans to the state; and within a few days Rhode Island troops were on their way towards Washington — Colonel Tompkins's Rhode Island Marine Artillery, with eight guns, and the First Regiment of Infantry, twelve hundred strong, under Colonel Burnside. Governor Sprague accompanied these troops as commander-in-chief. Connecticut was equally excited. The patriotic Governor Buckingham issued a proclamation, on the very day of the President's call, urging the citizens of his state to volunteer their services in support of the government. So warm was the response of the banks and the people that, in a message to the Legislature on May 1, the governor averred that forty-one volunteer regiments had already been accepted, and that a part of these were already in the national capital. New York was equally prompt and patriotic, and its troops soon pressed forward to Washington. New Jersey was equally aroused. Governor Olden, inspired by the enthusiastic loyalty of his people, issued a call for his state's quota two days after the President's proclamation. The Trenton banks tendered a loan to the state, and the authorities of Newark appropriated $100,000 for the maintenance of families of volunteers, and $15,000 for the equipment of the soldiers. On the 30th the Legislature met, and appointed Theodore Runyon commander of the New Jersey forces; and then the movement towards Washington began. Pennsylvania, under the guidance of her energetic governor (Curtin), had appropriated (April 12, 1861) $500,000 for arming and equipping the militia of the state; and when news of the attack on Fort Sumter reached Philadelphia the excitement of the people was intense. The President's call for troops increased the enthusiasm, and before the Legislature met in extra session, April 30, thousands of Pennsylvanians were enrolled in the Union army, and hundreds of them were in Washington city. The Legislature authorized a loan of $3,000,000 for war purposes. The states of the West and Northwest were equally enthusiastic, and within a few days after the President's call thousands of volunteers were on the way towards Washington. Notwithstanding these demonstrations at the North, the leaders in the insurrection excited the people of the South with false hopes by boastful and impassioned harangues.

First Type-foundery in America. In 1769 Abel Buell, of Killingworth, Conn., established a type-foundery there, in which he made good long-primer type. That year he had asked assistance of the Connecticut Legislature in establishing a type-foundery.

First United States Ambassador to Great Britain. On the 1st of June, 1785, John Adams was introduced by the Marquis of Carmarthen to the King of Great Britain as ambassador extraordinary from the United States of America to the Court of London. The inexecution of the treaty of peace on the part of Great Britain had threatened an open rupture between the two nations. Adams was sent with full powers to arrange all matters in dispute. His mission was almost fruitless. He found the temper of the British people, from the peasant up to the monarch, very unfriendly to the United States. He was never insulted, but the chilliness of the social atmosphere and the studied neglect of his official representations often excited hot indignation in his bosom. But his government, under the old confederation, was so weak and powerless that he was compelled to endure the *hauteur* of British officials in silence. They gave him to understand that they would make no arrangements about commercial relations between the two governments; and when he proposed to his own government to pass countervailing navigation laws for the benefit of American commerce, he was met by the stern fact that it possessed no power to do so. At length, believing his mission to be useless, and the British government sturdily refusing to send a minister to the United States, Mr. Adams asked and obtained permission to return home.

First United States Minister Plenipotentiary to France. On the 14th of September, 1778, the Continental Congress appointed Dr. Benjamin Franklin the first minister plenipotentiary to the Court of France, and a committee of five was chosen to draft instructions to him. The committee was composed of Gouverneur Morris, Samuel Chase, W. H. Drayton, Samuel Adams, and Richard Henry Lee.

First Vessel of War taken (1812). When war was declared Commodore Rodgers was in the port of New York with a small squadron. He at once put to sea in pursuit of a British squadron convoying the West Indian fleet of merchantmen to England. Rodgers's flag-ship, the *President*, fell in with the *Belvidera*, and chased her several hours. News of this affair reaching Rear-admiral Sawyer, at Halifax, he sent out a squadron of war vessels under Captain Broke to search for Rodgers and his frigate. Broke's flag-ship was the *Shannon*, 38 guns. This squadron appeared near New York early in July, and made several captures, among them the United States brig *Nautilus*, 14 guns, Lieutenant-commander Crane. She had arrived at New York just after Rodgers left, and went out immediately to cruise in the track of the West Indian fleet. The next day she was captured by the *Shannon*, and her one hundred and six men were made prisoners. This was the *first* vessel of war taken on either side in that contest. A prize-crew was placed in her, and she was made one of Broke's squadron. The *Nautilus* was retaken by Captain Warrington, June 30, 1815, between Java and the islands of the East India Archipelago. She was also the *last* vessel captured on either side during the war. Informed of the proclamation of peace, Warrington gave up the *Nautilus* to the English and returned home.

First Yearly Meeting of Friends in Philadelphia, THE, was held there in July, 1683. William Penn was there and preached a most encouraging sermon. He was full of hope for the future of his people and his province. A Yearly Meeting of Friends had already been held the same year, in Boston, where, twenty-three years before, Mary Dyer was hanged because she was a Quaker. In Boston they were yet (1683) but a handful, while in Philadelphia their spacious log meeting-house was, on this occasion, crowded. William Penn was then in the full vigor of manhood, being thirty-nine years of age.

Fish, HAMILTON, son of Colonel Nicholas Fish, was born in New York city, Aug. 3, 1808. He graduated at Columbia College in 1827, and was admitted to the bar in 1830. He became a member of Congress in 1842. In 1848 he was chosen governor of the State of New York, and in 1851 became a member of the United States Senate, acting with the Republican party after its formation in 1856. He was a firm supporter of the government during the Civil War, and in March, 1869, Mr. Fish was called to the cabinet of President Grant as Secretary of State, and remained in that position eight years, during which time he assisted materially in settling, peacefully, disputes with Great Britain, of which the "Alabama Claims" was a principal topic. (See *Tribunal of Arbitration.*) He is President of the General Society of the Cincinnati.

Fish, NICHOLAS, was born in New York city, Aug. 28, 1758; died there, June 20, 1833. He studied law in the office of John Morin Scott, and was on his staff as aid in the spring of 1776. In June he was made brigade-major, and in November major of the Second New York regiment. Major Fish was in the battles at Saratoga in 1777; was division inspector in 1778, and commanded a corps of light infantry in the battle of Monmouth. He served in Sullivan's Expedition (which see) in 1779; under Lafayette, in Virginia, in 1781, and was at the surrender of Cornwallis, behaving gallantly during the siege. For many years after 1786, Fish, who had become lieutenant-colonel during the war, was adjutant-general of the State of New York, and was appointed supervisor of the United States revenue in 1794. In 1799 he became President of the New York State Cincinnati Society.

Fisheries, DISPUTE ABOUT THE. In the summer of 1815 some ill-feeling was engendered between the United States and Great Britain concerning the fisheries on the coasts of British America in the East. American fishermen were charged with a violation of the treaty of 1818 with Great Britain, which stipulated that they should not cast their lines or nets in the bays of the British provinces, except at the distance of three miles or more from shore. Now the British government claimed the right to draw a line from headland to headland of these bays, and to exclude the Americans from the waters within that line. It had been the common practice, without interference, before, for American fishermen to catch cod within large bays, where they could easily carry on their vocation at a greater distance than three miles from the shore; now this new interpretation would exclude them from all bays. The British government sent an armed naval force to sustain this claim, and American vessels were threatened with seizure if they did not comply. The government of the United States, regarding the assumption as illegal, sent two war steamers (*Princeton* and *Fulton*) to the coast of Nova Scotia to protect the rights of American fishermen. For a time war between the two governments seemed inevitable, but the dispute was amicably settled by mutual concessions in October, 1853.

Fisheries, THE. The interruption of the fisheries formed one of the elements of the war for independence, 1775–83, and promised to be a marked consideration in any treaty of peace with Great Britain. Public law on the subject had not been settled. By the Treaty of Utrecht (which see) France had agreed not to fish within thirty leagues of the coast of Nova Scotia; and by that of Paris not to fish within fifteen leagues of Cape Breton. Vergennes, in a letter to Luzerne, the French minister at Philadelphia, had said: "The fishing on the high seas is as free as the sea itself, but the coast fisheries belong, of right, to the proprietors of the coast; therefore, the fisheries on the coasts of Newfoundland, of Nova Scotia, and of Canada belong exclusively to the English, and the Americans have no pretension whatever to share in them." But the Americans had almost alone enjoyed these fisheries, and deemed that they had gained a right to them by exclusive and immemorial usage. New England, at the beginning of the war, had, by act of Parliament, been debarred from fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, and they claimed that, in any treaty of peace, these fisheries ought to be considered as a perpetual joint property. Indeed, New England had planned, and furnished the forces for, the first reduction of Cape Breton, and had rendered conspicuous assistance in the acquisition of Nova Scotia and Canada by the English. The Congress, on March 23, 1779, in Committee of the Whole, agreed that the right to fish on the coasts of Nova Scotia, the banks of Newfoundland, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and the straits of Labrador and Belle Isle, should in no case be given up. In the final treaty of peace (1783) the fishery question was satisfactorily settled.

Fisher's Hill, BATTLE OF. When driven from Winchester (see *Winchester, Battle of*) Early did not halt until he reached Fisher's Hill, beyond Strasburg, and twenty miles from the battle-field. It was strongly fortified, and was considered the most impregnable position in the valley. In his despatch to the Secretary of War (Sept. 19, 1864) Sheridan wrote: "We have just sent the enemy whirling through Winchester, and are after them to-morrow." He kept his word, and appeared in front of Fisher's Hill on the 22d. There Early was strongly intrenched. Sheridan sent Crook's corps to gain the left and rear of the position, and advanced to the attack of the left and front, with Wright's and Emory's corps. The assault began at four o'clock. The Confederate line was soon broken, and the entire force retreated in disorder up the valley, leaving behind them sixteen guns and over one thousand men as prisoners. Early's army was saved from total destruction by the holding in check of Torbert's cavalry in the Luray Valley, and the detention of Wilson's cavalry, who fought at Front Royal the day before (Sept. 21). Sheridan chased Early to Port Republic (which see), where he destroyed the Confederate train of seventy-five wagons. Thence his cavalry pursued as far as Staunton, where the remnant of Early's army sought and found shelter in the passes of the Blue Ridge. The National cavalry destroyed a vast amount of supplies at Staunton, passed on to Waynesborough, and laid waste the Virginia Central Railway. Then Sheridan's whole army went down the Shenandoah Valley, making his march a track of desolation. He had been instructed to leave nothing "to invite the enemy to return." He placed his forces behind Cedar Creek, half-way between Strasburg and Middletown. Early's cavalry had rallied, under Rosser, and hung upon Sheridan's rear as he moved down the valley. Torbert and his cavalry turned upon them (Oct. 9) and charged the Confederates, who fled, leaving behind them three hundred prisoners, a dozen guns, and nearly fifty wagons. They were chased twenty-six miles. Three days later Early attempted to surprise Sheridan, while resting at Fisher's Hill, when the Confederates were severely chastised. Supposing Early would not attempt any aggressive movement soon, Sheridan left Wright in command of the army and went to Washington on official business.

Fishing Bounties. In 1792 an act of Congress re-established the old system of bounties to which the American fishermen had been accustomed under the British government. All vessels employed for the term of four months, at least, in each year, on the Newfoundland banks and other codfisheries, were entitled to a bounty varying from $1 to $2.50 per ton, according to their size, three eighths to go to the owners and five eighths to the fishermen. The national benefit of the fisheries as a nursery for seamen in case of war was urged as the chief argument in favor of the bounties. That benefit was very conspicuous when the war with Great Britain occurred in 1812–15.

Fishing Creek, SUMTER'S DEFEAT AT. When General Gates was approaching Camden he sent General Sumter with a detachment to intercept a convoy of stores passing from Ninety-six to Rawdon's camp at Camden. Sumter was successful. He captured forty-four wagons loaded with clothing and made a number of prisoners. On hearing of the defeat of Gates, Sumter continued his march up the Catawba River and encamped (Aug. 18, 1780) near the mouth of Fishing Creek. There he was surprised by Tarleton, and his troops were routed with great slaughter. More than fifty were killed and three hundred were made prisoners. Tarleton recaptured the British prisoners and all the wagons and their contents. Sumter escaped, and in such haste that he rode into Charlotte (N. C.) without hat or saddle.

Fitch, JOHN, inventor, was born at East Windsor, Conn., Jan. 21, 1743; died at Bardstown, Ky., July 2, 1798. He was an armorer in the military service during the Revolution, and at Trenton, N.J., manufactured sleeve-buttons. For a while, near the close of the war, he was a surveyor in Virginia, during which time he prepared, engraved on copper, and printed, on a press of his own manufacture, a map of the Northwest country, afterwards formed into a territory. He constructed a steamboat in 1786 that could be propelled eight miles an hour. A company was formed (1788) in Philadelphia, which caused a steam-packet to ply on the Delaware River, and it ran for about two years, when the company failed. In 1799 he unsuccessfully tried his steam-navigation projects in France. Discouraged, he went to the Western country again, where he died, leaving behind him a history of his adventures in the steamboat enterprise, in a sealed envelope, directed to "My children and future generations," from which Thompson Wescott, of Philadelphia, prepared an interesting biography of Fitch, which was published in 1867.

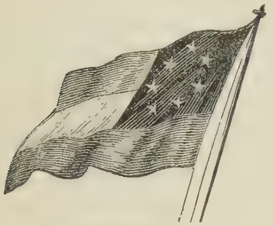
Five Forks, BATTLE OF THE. (See *Petersburg, Final Struggle for.*) Sheridan had crossed the Appomattox from Bermuda Hundred, and, passing in the rear of the army before Petersburg, on the morning of March 29, had halted at Dinwiddie Court-house. A grand forward movement of the National army had just begun. Warren and Humphreys, with their corps, had moved at an early hour that morning against the flanks of the Confederates, and they bivouacked in front of the works of their antagonists, only six miles from Dinwiddie Court-house. Warren had lost three hundred men in a fight on the way. On the next day (March 30) Sheridan sent a part of his cavalry to the Five Forks, but the Confederate works there were too strongly armed and manned to be ridden over, and the Nationals were driven back to the Court-house. There was some severe fighting that day, without a decisive result. Sheridan was engaged in the struggle, but at midnight he was satisfied that Lee was withdrawing his troops and felt quite at ease. It was known at headquarters that his troops had been driven back from Five Forks and that it was uncertain whether he could hold his position. Warren was sent to his aid with a portion of his corps. Ranking Warren, Sheridan became commander of the whole force. Leaving Warren half-way between Dinwiddie Court-house and Five Forks, Sheridan pressed boldly on towards the latter place, with cavalry alone, and drove the Confederates into their works and enveloped them with his overwhelming number of horsemen. He now ordered Warren forward to a position on his right so as to be fully on the Confederate left. He drove some Confederates towards Petersburg and returned before Warren was prepared to charge upon the works. At four o'clock P.M. Warren moved to the attack. Ayres charged upon the Confederate right, carried a portion of the line, and captured more than 1000 men and several battle-flags. Merritt charged the front and Griffin fell upon the left with such force that he carried the intrenchments and seized 1500 men. Crawford, meanwhile, had come forward, cut off their retreat in the direction of Lee's lines, struck them in the rear, and captured four guns. Hard pressed, the Confederates fought gallantly and with great fortitude. At length the cavalry charged over the works simultaneously with the turning of their flanks by Ayres and Griffin, and, bearing down upon the Confederates with great fury, caused a large portion of them to throw down their arms, while the remainder made a disorderly flight westward, pursued many miles by Merritt and McKenzie. The Confederates lost a large number of men, killed and wounded, and over 5000 were made prisoners. The Nationals lost about 1000, of whom 634 were killed and wounded.

Five Nations, LAST EXPEDITION AGAINST THE, BY THE FRENCH. In 1697 Frontenac led an expedition against the Iroquois Confederacy. He crossed Lake Ontario with a powerful force, and marching southward to Lake Onondaga, he found their principal village deserted and burned. He sent seven hundred men to destroy the Oneida castle. They took a few prisoners. It would doubtless have fared hard with the French if the Senecas had not been kept back by a false report that the Ottawas were to attack them at the same time. As it was, the count thought it prudent to retire. He had taken prisoner an aged Onondaga chief, about one hundred years old, whom he gave up to his savage followers for torture.

Five Nations, THE, were the five Algonquin nations, namely: Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas, who originally formed the Iroquois Confederacy. The Five Nations were joined by the Tuscaroras, from North Carolina, in 1713, and then the confederacy was called the Six Nations.

Five Nations, TREATY WITH THE (1684). A grand convention was held at Albany between the English and the Iroquois Confederacy in the summer of 1684, at which a treaty was concluded (Aug. 2) between Lord Effingham, Governor of Virginia, and Governor Dongan and chiefs of a portion of that confederacy. (See *Iroquois Confederacy.*) It was a treaty of peace on behalf of all the English settlements. By it the Five Nations put the lands and castles of the Mohawks and Oneidas under the protection of the English government, and the English undertook to guarantee them to the Indians. As an external mark by which this act should be announced, the Indians desired that the arms of the Duke of York might be affixed to their castles.

Flag for the Confederacy (1861). The "Congress" at Montgomery discussed the subject of a national flag with much feeling. Several models had been offered. Mr. Memminger presented two. One, from some women of Charleston, was composed of a blue cross on a red field, with seven stars—similar to the South Carolina flag (which see); the other was from a gentleman of the same city. It was a cross, with fifteen stars. Memminger made a speech on presenting these models. Then a committee of one delegate from each state was appointed to report upon a device for a national flag and seal. Brooke, of Mississippi, offered a resolution to instruct the committee to report a design as similar as possible to that of the United States, making only such changes as should give them distinction. He eulogized the old flag, and was severely rebuked for uttering sentiments which were regarded as almost treasonable. W. Porcher Miles, of South Carolina, chairman of the committee, protested against the resolution and the utterances of the member. He "gloried," he said, "more, a thousand times, in the palmetto flag of his state." He had regarded "from his youth the stars and stripes as the emblem of oppression and tyranny." Brooke withdrew his motion. Mrs. C. Ladd, of South Carolina, presented a model, through W. W. Boyce, "tri-colored, with a red union, seven stars, and the crescent moon." In her letter accompanying the flag, she offered her three boys to her "country" and suggested "Washington Republic" as the title of the Confederacy. Boyce made a speech in presenting the model. Chilton, Toombs, Stephens, and others also presented designs for flags. They were sent in almost daily, some of them showing a strong attachment to the old national flag. Seven designs were sent by two young women in the art department of "Tuscogee Female College," the principal features of all being an eagle, stars, and a cotton-bale. In their letter they said: "With cotton as king, there are seven states bound by a chain of sisterly love, that will strengthen with time, as onward, right onward, they move up the glorious path of Southern independence." The committee made an elaborate report, in which they said they did not share in the sentiment of attachment to the "stars and stripes," too often repeated in communications; yet they recommended a flag that had a certain resemblance to the one they were deserting. It was to consist of a red field, with a white space extending horizontally through the centre and equal in width to one third the width of the flag; the field of the union was blue, extending from the top to the bottom of the white stripe, and stopping at the lower red stripe. In the centre of the union was a circle of white stars, corresponding in number to that of the states of the Confederacy. It was really the old flag—red, white, and blue—with three "alternate stripes, red and white," instead of thirteen such stripes. This flag was first displayed in public over the state-house at Montgomery, March 4, 1861.

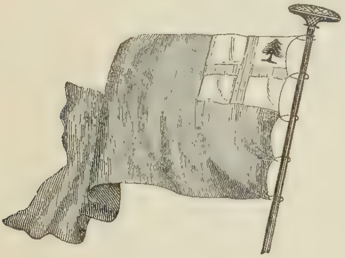


CONFEDERATE FLAG.

Flag of Sumter. When news reached Washington of the evacuation of Charleston (February, 1865), the President appointed the anniversary (April 14) of the evacuation of the fort when the old flag which Anderson took with him should be again raised over the fortress by his hand. A large number of citizens left New York in the steamer *Oceanus* to assist in the ceremonies. When the multitude were assembled around the flag-staff, the songs of *Victory at Last* and *Rally round the Flag* were sung. Rev. Mr. Harris, who made the prayer at the raising of the flag over Fort Sumter, Dec. 27, 1860 (see *Fort Sumter*), now offered an introductory prayer and pronounced a blessing on the old flag. Rev. Dr. Storrs read selections from the Psalms. General Townsend read Major Anderson's despatch announcing the fall of Sumter. Then the faithful Sergeant Hart (see *Reinforcements for Sumter*) appeared with a carpet-bag containing the flag. It was attached to the halyards, when General Anderson, after a brief and touching address, hoisted it to the peak of the flag-staff amid loud huzzas, followed by singing *The Star-spangled Banner*. Six guns on the fort were then fired, and were responded to by all the batteries that took part in the bombardment in 1861. Rev. Henry Ward Beecher, the orator of the day, pronounced an address. So, four years from the time of the evacuation of Fort Sumter it was "repossessed" by the government.

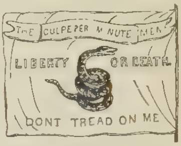
Flag of the Continental Navy. When the Provincial Congress of South Carolina, in February, 1776, presented the thanks of that body to their representatives in the Continental Congress for their services there in bringing about the establishment of a navy, and other measures of importance, Christopher Gadsden presented the standard which was to be used by the American navy, representing on a yellow field a rattlesnake, with thirteen full-grown rattles, coiled to strike, with the words "Don't tread on me." The Massachusetts navy had a flag with a pine-tree on it. (See *Flag, The National.*)

Flag of the "Sovereign State" of South Carolina. The secession convention adopted a banner for the new empire on the day when the ordinance of secession was passed. It was composed of red and blue silk. The first was the ground of the standard, and the last, in the form of a cross, was displayed over its whole field. On the blue cross were fifteen stars, the number of the slave-labor states. The largest star, in the centre, was for South Carolina. On the red field was a palmetto-tree, and a crescent moon of silver.



THE NEW ENGLAND FLAG.

THE PINE-TREE FLAG.



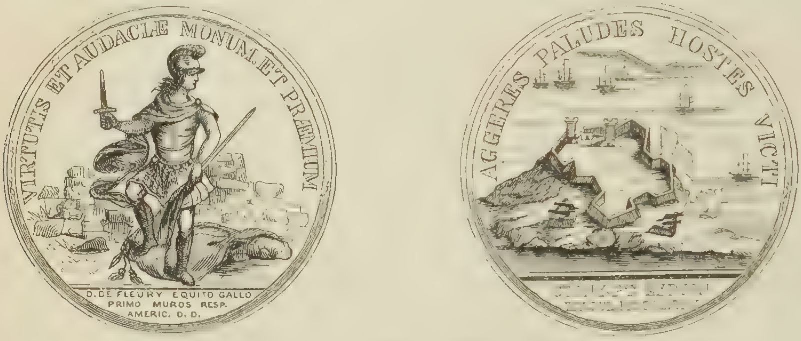
THE CULPEPPER FLAG.

Flag, The National. Every colony had its peculiar ensign, and the army and navy of the united colonies, at first, displayed various flags, some colonial, others regimental, and others, like the flag on Fort Sullivan, Charleston harbor—a blue field with a silver crescent—for special occasions. The American flag used at the battle on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, was called the "New England flag." It was a blue ground, with the red cross of St. George in a corner, quartering a white field, and in the upper dexter quartering was the figure of a pine-tree. The New-Englanders had also a "pine-tree flag" as well as a "pine-tree shilling." The above engraving is a reduced copy of a vignette on a map of Boston, published in Paris in 1776. The *London Chronicle*, an anti-ministerial paper, in its issue for January, 1776, gives the following description of the flag of an American cruiser that had been captured: "In the Admiralty Office is the flag of a provincial privateer. The field is white bunting; on the middle is a green pine-tree, and upon the opposite side is the motto 'Appeal to Heaven.'" The Culpepper men, who marched with Patrick Henry towards Williamsburg to demand instant restoration of powder to the old magazine, or payment for it by Governor Dunmore, bore a flag with a rattlesnake upon it, coiled ready to strike, with Patrick Henry's words (see *Virginia Convention*, 1775), and the words "Don't tread on me." It is believed that the first American flag bearing thirteen red and white stripes was a Union flag presented to the Philadelphia Light Horse by Captain Abraham Markoe, a Dane, probably early in 1775. A "Union flag" is mentioned as having been displayed at a gathering of Whigs at Savannah in June, 1775—probably thirteen stripes. The earliest naval flags exhibited thirteen alternate red and white stripes, some with a pine-tree upon them, and others with a rattlesnake stretched across the field of stripes, and beneath it the words, either imploringly or as a warning, "Don't tread on me." The new Union flag raised at Cambridge, Jan. 1, 1776, was composed of thirteen alternate red and white stripes, with the English union in a corner. (See *Union Flag and Royal Savage*.) Finally, the necessity of a *national* flag was felt, especially for the marine service, and the Continental Congress adopted the following resolution, June 14, 1777: "*Resolved*, That the flag of the United States be thirteen stripes, alternate red and white; that the union be thirteen stars, white, on a blue field, representing a new constellation." There was a dilatoriness in displaying this flag. The resolution was not officially promulgated over the signature of the secretary of the Congress until Sept. 3, though it was previously printed in the newspapers. This was more than a year after the colonies had been declared free and independent. Probably the first display of the national flag at a military post was at Fort Schuyler, on the site of the village of Rome, Oneida Co., N. Y. The fort was besieged early in August, 1777. The garrison were without a flag, so they made one according to the prescription of Congress by cutting up sheets to form the white stripes, bits of scarlet cloth for the red stripes, and the blue ground for the stars was composed of portions of a cloth cloak belonging to Captain Abraham Swartwout, of Duchess County, N. Y. This flag was unfurled over the fort on the 3d of August, 1777. Paul Jones was appointed to the *Ranger* on June 14, 1777, and he claimed that he was the first to display the stars and stripes on a naval vessel. The *Ranger* sailed from Portsmouth, N. H., on Nov. 1, 1777. It is probable that the national flag was first unfurled in battle on the banks of the Brandywine, Sept. 11, 1777—the first battle after its adoption. It first appeared over a foreign stronghold, June 28, 1778, when Captain Rathbone, of the American sloop-of-war *Providence*, with his crew and some escaped prisoners, captured Fort Nassau, New Providence, Bahama Islands. The captors were menaced by the people, when the stars and stripes were nailed to the flag-staff in defiance. John Singleton Copley, the American-born painter, in London, claimed to be the first to display the stars and stripes in Great Britain. On the day when George III. acknowledged the independence of the United States (Dec. 5, 1782), he painted the flag of the United States in the background of a portrait of Elkanah Watson. To Captain Mooers, of the whaling-ship *Bedford*, of Nantucket, is doubtless due the honor of first displaying the national flag in a port of Great Britain. He arrived in the Downs, with it flying at the fore, Feb. 3, 1783. That flag was first carried to the East Indian seas in the *Enterprise* (an Albany-built vessel), Captain Stewart Dean, in 1785. When Vermont and Kentucky were added to the union of states the flag was altered. By an act of Congress (Jan. 13, 1794) the number of the stripes and stars in the flag was increased from thirteen to fifteen. The act went into effect May 1, 1795. From that time until 1818, when there were twenty states, the number of the stars and stripes remained the same. A committee appointed to revise the standard invited Captain Samuel C. Reid, the brave defender of the privateer *Armstrong* (see *Privateers*) to devise a new flag. He retained the original thirteen stripes, but added a star for every state. That has been the device of the flag of the United States ever since. It now (1880) has thirteen stripes and thirty-eight stars.

Flags, EXCHANGE OF. Monroe had far exceeded his instructions in the warmth of his expressions of sympathy with the French revolutionists at his public reception (which see), and his conduct so displeased his government that the Secretary of State (Mr. Randolph), suggested that a private reception and an oral speech were what the cabinet expected. He was reminded that the United States were neutral, and that offence might be given to England or Spain, with both of which negotiations were then pending; and it might become necessary at some time "to explain away or disavow an excess of fervor, so as to reduce it down to the cool system of neutrality." Before this rebuke reached him, Monroe had gone much further in his demonstrations of sympathy in the name of his government. The French Convention having decreed the suspension in their hall of the French and American flags, intertwined, in testimony of eternal union and friendship, Monroe took it upon himself to send an American flag for the purpose in the name of the American people. It was conveyed by the hand of Captain Barney, of the navy of the Revolution, who, in addition to a letter by Monroe, delivered a speech of his own. Barney received the fraternal embrace of the President of the Convention, and soon afterwards a commission in the French navy. The Convention ordered the French colors to be sent to the American Congress. They were presented by the French ambassador (Adet), Jan. 1, 1796, with an address, to which the President responded, and the colors were ordered to be deposited in the archives of the nation. (See *Monroe's Mission to France.*)

Fletcher, BENJAMIN, governor of New York, succeeded Governor Sloughter, whose life and administration were suddenly terminated by *delirium tremens*. (See *Leisler's Insurrection.*) Fletcher was also authorized to govern Pennsylvania, which had recently been taken from him and made a royal province; also, to facilitate the defence of New York against the French in Canada, he was invested with the command of the militia of Connecticut and New Jersey, as well as that of the province to be defended. Fletcher was a colonel in the British army. Possessed of violent passions, he was weak in judgment, greedy, dishonest, and cowardly. He fell naturally into the hands of the aristocratic party, and his council was composed of the enemies of Leisler. The recklessness of his administration, his avarice, his evident prostitution of his office to the securing of personal gain, disgusted all parties. He continually quarrelled with the popular Assembly, and his whole administration was unsatisfactory. The Quaker-governed Assembly of Pennsylvania thwarted his schemes for obtaining money for making war on the French; and he was fortunately led by Colonel Peter Schuyler in all his military undertakings. The Assembly of Connecticut denied his right to control their militia; and late in the autumn of 1693 he went to Hartford with Colonel Bayard and others from New York, and in the presence of the train-bands of that city, commanded by Captain Wadsworth (see *Connecticut Charter*), he directed (so says tradition) his commission to be read. Bayard began to read, when Wadsworth ordered the drums to be beaten. "Silence!" said Fletcher, angrily. When the reading was again begun, "Drum! drum!" cried Wadsworth. "Silence!" again shouted Fletcher, and threatened the captain with punishment. Wadsworth stepped in front of the governor, and, with his hand on the hilt of his sword, he said: "If my drummers are again interrupted, I'll make sunlight shine through you. We deny and defy your authority." The cowed governor sullenly folded the paper, and with his retinue returned to New York. With a pretended zeal for the cause of religion, Fletcher procured the passage of an act by the Assembly for building churches in various places, and under it the English Church and preaching in English were introduced into New York. Trinity Church was organized under the act, and its present church edifice stands upon the ground where the first structure was erected. During Fletcher's administration, pirates infested American waters; and he was accused, not only of winking at violations of the navigation laws, but of favoring the pirates, for private gain. They sometimes found welcome in the harbor of New York (see *Buccaneers*), instead of being seized and punished. When Bellomont, after the Treaty of Ryswick, came over as governor of Massachusetts, he was commissioned to investigate the conduct of Fletcher and to succeed him as governor, and he sent him to England under arrest. The colony felt a relief when he was gone, for his career had been marked by misrule and profligacy.

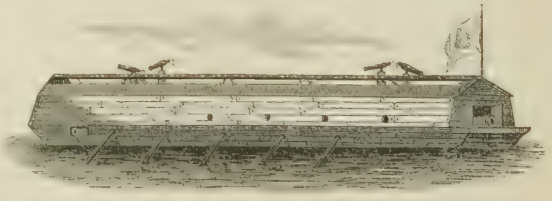
Fleury, Louis (Chevalier and Viscount de), was a lieutenant-colonel in the Continental Army, and died a field-marshal of France. He was educated an engineer, and, coming to America, he received a captain's commission from Washington. For his good conduct in the campaign of 1777, Congress gave him a horse and commission of lieutenant-colonel (Nov. 26, 1777); and in the winter of 1778 he was inspector under Steuben. He was adjutant-general of Lee's division in June, 1779, and was so distinguished at the assault on Stony Point (July, 1779) that Congress gave him thanks and a silver medal. De Fleury returned to France soon after the affair at Stony Point, before the medal was struck; and it was probably never in his possession, for it seems to have been lost, probably while Congress was in session at Princeton. In April, 1859, a boy found it while digging in a garden at Princeton. De Fleury, on his return to France, joined the French troops under Rochambeau sent to America in 1780.


VIRTUTIS ET AUDACIÆ MONUM. ET PRÆMIUM
D. DE FLEURY EQUITO GALLO
PRIMO MUROS RESP.
AMERIC. D. D.
AGGERES PALUDES HOSTES VICTI

MEDAL AWARDED TO LIEUTENANT-COLONEL DE FLEURY.

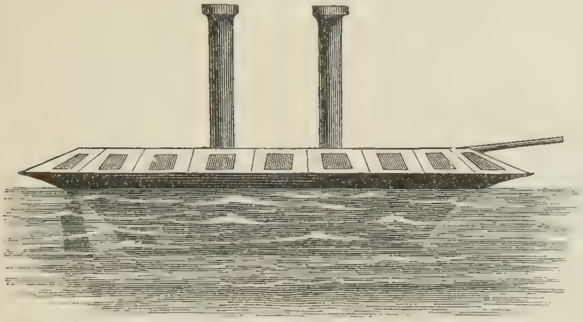
Flight of St. Clair's Army (1791). After a desperate fight (see *St. Clair's Campaign*) the ranks of the soldiers were broken by the Indians, and the former, gathering in groups, were shot down without resistance. Then a most disorderly flight began, the militia leading. Among the fugitives were a number of women, chiefly wives of the soldiers. In the army of St. Clair there were about two hundred. Of these, fifty-six were killed in the fight; the remainder joined in the flight. One of them, Mrs. Catharine Miller (who died in Cincinnati about the year 1838), was so fleet of foot that she ran ahead of the army. She had a great quantity of red hair that streamed behind her as she ran, and formed the *oriflamme* which the soldiers followed. St. Clair behaved with the greatest bravery in the battle. He was so tortured with gout that he could not mount his horse without assistance. He was not in uniform—his chief covering was a warm cappo coat and a three-cornered hat, from under which his white hair was seen streaming as he and General Butler rode up and down the lines during the battle. He had three horses killed under him, and eight bullets passed through his clothes. When the retreat began he mounted a pack-horse, and upon this animal, which with difficulty he spurred into a trot, he escaped. The fugitive army was well covered in its retreat by Major Clarke's battalion. The Indians, after following about four miles, turned back; but the army did not halt until it was safely within the palisades of Fort Jefferson. They had run from the scene of conflict to Fort Jefferson, a distance of twenty-nine miles, between nine o'clock in the morning and seven o'clock in the evening—ten hours.

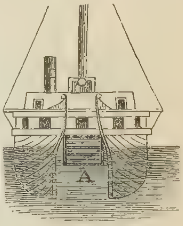
Floating Batteries. The first American floating battery was seen in the Charles River, at Boston, in October, 1775. Washington had ordered the construction of two, to assist in the siege of the New England capital. They were armed and manned, and on the 26th of October opened fire on the town, producing much consternation. They appear to have been made of strong planks, pierced near the water-line for oars, and further up were port-holes for musketry and the admission of light. A heavy gun was placed in each end, and upon the top were four swivels. The ensign was the pine-tree flag. Colonel Reed, writing to Colonel Moylan, on Oct. 20, 1775, said: "Please to fix some particular color for a flag and a signal, by which our vessels may know each other. What do you think of a flag with a white ground, a tree in the middle, and the motto 'An Appeal to Heaven?' This is the flag of our floating batteries." When the War of 1812–15 broke out, the subject of harbor defences occupied much of the attention of citizens of the American coast-towns, especially in the city of New York. Among the scientific men of the day, John Stevens and Robert Fulton appear conspicuous in proposing plans for that purpose. Earlier than this (in 1807), Abraham Bloodgood, of Albany, suggest-



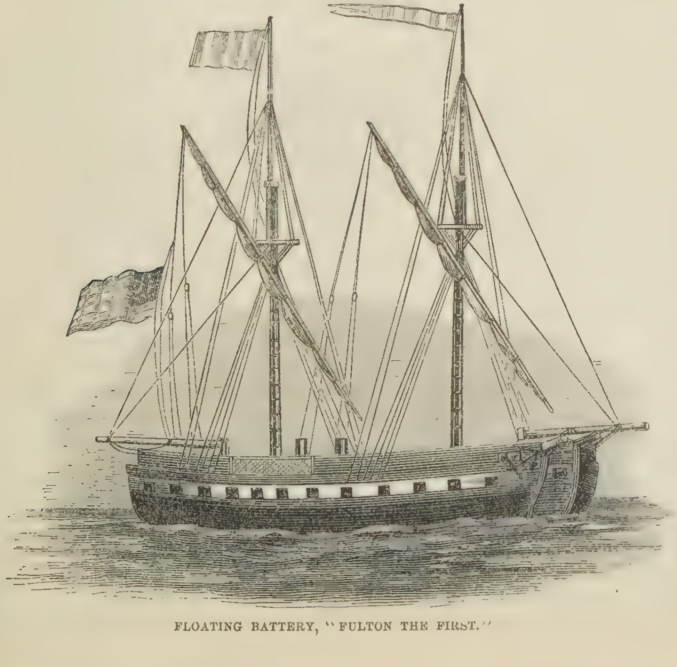
AMERICAN FLOATING BATTERY.

ed the construction of a floating revolving battery not unlike, in its essential character, the revolving turret built by Captain Ericsson in the winter of 1861–62. (See *Monitor.*) In March, 1814, Thomas Gregg, of Pennsylvania, obtained a patent for a proposed iron-clad steam vessel-of-war, resembling in figure gunboats and "rams" during the late Civil War in the United States. At about the same time a plan of a floating battery submitted by Robert Fulton was approved by naval officers. It was in the form of a steamship of peculiar construction, that might move at the rate of four miles an hour, and furnished, in addition to its regular armament, with submarine guns. Her construction was ordered by Congress, and she was built at the ship-yard of Adam and Noah Brown, at Corlear's Hook, New York, under the supervision of Fulton. She was launched Oct. 29, 1814. Her machinery was tested in May following, and on July 4 (1815) she made a trial-trip of fifty-three miles to the ocean and back, going at the rate of six miles an hour. This vessel was called *Fulton the First.* She measured one hundred and forty-five feet on deck and fifty-five feet breadth of beam; drew only eight feet of water; mounted thirty 32-pound carronades, and two columbiads of one hundred pounds each. She was to be commanded by Captain Porter. It was a structure resting upon two boats on keels, separated from end to end by a channel fifteen feet wide and sixty feet long. One boat contained the boiler for generating steam, which was made of copper. The machinery occupied the other boat. The water-wheel (A) revolved in the space between them. The main or gun deck supported the armament, and was protected by a parapet four feet ten inches thick, of solid timber, pierced by embrasures. Through twenty-five port-holes were as many 32-pounders, intended to fire red-hot shot, which could be heated with great safety and convenience. Her upper, or spar, deck, upon which many hundred men might parade, was encompassed with a bulwark for safety. She was rigged with two stout masts, each of which supported a large lateen yard and sails. She had two bowsprits and jibs, and four rudders, one at each extremity of each boat, so that she might be steered with either end foremost. Her machinery was calculated for an additional engine, which might discharge an immense column of water which it was intended to throw upon the decks and through the port-holes of an enemy, and thereby deluge her armament and ammunition. The most extravagant stories concerning this monster of the deep went forth at about the time of her being launched. In a treatise on steam vessels, published in Scotland soon afterwards, the author said: "Her length is three hundred feet; breadth, two hundred feet; thickness of her sides, thirteen feet, of alternate oak plank and corkwood; carries forty-four guns, four of which are 100-pounders; can discharge one hundred gallons of boiling water in a few minutes, and by mechanics brandishes three hundred cutlasses with the utmost regularity over her gunwales; works, also, an


GREGG'S IRON-CLAD VESSEL IN 1814.



SECTION OF THE FLOATING BATTERY.


FLOATING BATTERY, "FULTON THE FIRST."

equal number of pikes of great length, darting them from her sides with prodigious force, and withdrawing them every quarter of a minute." The insurgents of South Carolina constructed a floating battery in Charleston harbor in the winter of 1861. It was a curious monster, made of heavy pine timber, filled in with palmetto-logs, and covered with a double layer of railroad iron. It appeared like an immense shed, twenty-five feet in width, and, with its appendage, about one hundred feet in length. It mounted in its front (which sloped inwards from its iron-clad roof) four enormous siege-guns. The powder-magazine was in the rear, below the water-line, and at its extremity was a platform covered with sand-bags, to protect its men and balance the heavy guns. Attached to it was a floating hospital. It was intended to tow this monster to a position so as to bring its guns to bear on Fort Sumter. Stevens's floating battery was a more formidable structure. This battery had been in process of construction by Messrs. Stevens, of Hoboken, N. J., for several years before the Civil War. It was intended solely for a harbor defence. Already there had been about $1,000,000 spent upon it, chiefly by the United States government, and yet it was not completed. Until just before the war it had been shut in from the public eye. It was to be seven hundred feet in length, covered with iron plates, so as to be proof against shot and shell of every kind. It was to be moved by steam-engines of sufficient strength to give it a momentum that would cause it, as a "ram," to cut in two any ship-of-war then known when it should strike her at the waist. It was intended for a battery of sixteen heavy rifled cannons in bomb-proof casemates, and two heavy columbiads for throwing shells. The latter were to be on deck, fore and aft. The smoke-stack was to be constructed in sliding sections, like a telescope, for obvious purposes; and the vessel was so constructed that it might be sunk to the level of the water. Its burden was rated at six thousand tons. It was not completed when the Civil War ended. The following is a portion of the specification: "The boat is framed on an angle of about eighteen degrees all round the vessel, where the top timbers elevate the balls, and the lower ones direct them under her. The top deck, which glances the ball, may be hung on a mass of hinges near the ports. Said deck is supported by knees and cross-timbers on the lower sides, so that it may be sprung with powder, if required (when boarded by the enemy), to a perpendicular, when the said deck will be checked by stays, while the power of powder will be exhausted in the open air, and then fall or spring to the centre of the deck again. The aforesaid deck will run up and down with the angle, which may be coppered or laid with iron. The gun-deck may be bored at pleasure, to give room, if required, as the men and guns are under said deck. The power is applied between her keels, where there is a concave formed to receive them from the bow to the stern, except a small distance in each end, forming an eddy. The power may be reversed to propel her either way. Said power is connected to upright levers, to make horizontal strokes alternately. The elevation of her timbers and gearing will be proportioned by her keel and tonnage."

FLOATING BATTERY AT CHARLESTON.

Florida. This twenty-seventh state admitted into the Union received its name from its discoverer in 1512. (See *Ponce de Leon.*) It was visited by Vasquez, another Spaniard, in 1520. It is believed by some that Verrazani saw its coasts in 1524 (see *Verrazani*); and the same year a Spaniard named De Geray visited it. Its conquest was undertaken by Narvaez, in 1528 (see *Narvaez*), and by De Soto in 1539. Huguenots—Protestants of France—sought refuge there at about the middle of the 16th century (see *Huguenots*), when they were attacked by the Spaniards. The latter, landing on the site of St. Augustine, founded a city there in 1565, which was captured by Sir Francis Drake in 1586. The domain of Florida, in those early times, extended indefinitely westward, and included Louisiana. La Salle visited the western portion in 1682, and in 1696 Pensacola was settled by Spaniards. At the beginning of the 18th century the English in the Carolinas attacked the Spaniards at St. Augustine; and subsequently the Georgians, under Oglethorpe, made war upon them. (See *Oglethorpe.*) By the treaty of Paris, in 1763, Florida was exchanged by the Spaniards, with Great Britain, for Cuba, which had then recently been conquered by England. Soon afterwards they divided the territory into East and West Florida, the Appalachicola River being the boundary-line. Natives of Greece, Italy, and Minorca were induced to settle there, at a place called New Smyrna, about sixty miles south of St. Augustine, to the number of fifteen hundred, where they engaged in the cultivation of indigo and the sugar-cane; but becoming dis-

STATE SEAL OF FLORIDA.

satisfied with their employers, they removed to St. Augustine. During the old war for independence, the trade of the Southern colonies was seriously interfered with by pirates fitted out in Florida, and the British incited the Indians in that region to make war on the Americans. The Spaniards invaded West Florida, and captured the garrison at Baton Rouge in 1779; and in May, 1781, they seized Pensacola. By the treaty of 1783, Florida was retroceded to Spain, and the western boundary was defined, when a greater part of the inhabitants emigrated to the United States. When, in 1803, Louisiana was ceded to the United States by France, it was declared to be ceded with the same extent that it had in the hands of Spain, and as it had been ceded by Spain to France. This gave the United States a claim to the country west of the Perdido River, and the government took possession of it in 1811. Some irritation ensued. In the war with Great Britain (1812), the Spanish authorities at Pensacola favored the English. An expedition against the Americans having been fitted out there, General Jackson captured that town. Again, in 1818, it was captured by Jackson, but was subsequently returned to Spain. Florida was purchased from Spain by the United States in 1819, and was surrendered to the latter in July, 1821. Emigration then began to flow into the territory, in spite of many obstacles. In 1835 a distressing warfare broke out between the fierce Seminole Indians (see *Seminoles*), who inhabited some of the better portions of Florida, and the government of the United States, and continued until 1842, when the Indians were subdued, though not thoroughly conquered. (See *Seminole War.*) In May, 1858, the whole body of the Seminoles remaining in Florida were removed to reservations west of the Mississippi. Florida was admitted into the Union as a state on the 8th of March, 1845. Inhabitants of the state joined in the war against the government, a secession ordinance having been passed Jan. 10, 1861, by a convention assembled on the 3d. (See *Secession Ordinances.*) Forts and arsenals and the navy-yard at Pensacola were seized by the insurgents. The state authorities continued hostilities until the close of the war. On the 13th of July, 1865, William Marvin was appointed provisional governor of the state, and on the 28th of October a state convention, held at Tallahassee, repealed the ordinance of secession. The civil authority was transferred by the National government to the provisional state officers in January, 1866, and, under the reorganization measures of Congress, Florida was made a part of the third military district in 1867. A new constitution was ratified by the people in May, 1868, and after the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment to the National Constitution, on the 14th of June, Florida was recognized as a reorganized state of the Union. The government was transferred to the state officers on the 4th of July.

Florida, CESSION OF BY SPAIN. Jackson's invasion of Florida and his capture of Pensacola (see *Seminole War*) caused much political debate in and out of Congress. By some he was much censured, by others praised. The United States government upheld him, and the Secretary of State (J. Q. Adams) made an able plea of justification, on the ground of the well-known interference of the Spanish authorities in Florida in American affairs, and the giving of shelter to British subjects inciting the Indians to make war. It was thought the British government would take notice of the summary execution of Arbuthnot and Ambrister (see *Seminole War*); but it took the ground that British subjects, meddling in the affairs of a foreign nation, must take the consequences. Secretary Adams and the Spanish minister, Don Onis, had been in correspondence for some time concerning the settlement of the Florida question and the western boundary of the United States next to the Spanish possessions. Finally, pending discussion in Congress on Jackson's vigorous proceedings in Florida, the Spanish minister, under new instructions from home, signed a treaty (Feb. 22, 1819) for the cession of Florida, on the extinction of the various American claims for spoliation, for the satisfaction of which the United States agreed to pay to the claimants $5,000,000. The Louisiana boundary, as fixed by the treaty, was a compromise between the respective offers heretofore made, though leaning a good deal towards the American side. It was agreed that the Sabine to the thirty-second degree of north latitude, thence a north meridian line to the Red River, the course of that river to the one hundredth degree of longitude west from Greenwich, thence north by that meridian to the Arkansas River to its head and to the forty-second degree of north latitude, and along that degree to the Pacific Ocean, should be the boundary between the possessions of the United States and Spain. The Florida treaty was immediately ratified by the United States Senate, and, in expectation of a speedy ratification by Spain, an act was passed to authorize the President to take possession of the newly ceded territory. But there was great delay in the Spanish ratification. It did not take place until early in 1821. The ratified treaty was received by the President in February.

Florida, CONQUESTS ON THE COASTS OF. Commodore Dupont and General Wright made easy conquests on the coast of Florida. In February, 1862, they captured Fort Clinch, on Amelia Island, which the Confederates had seized, and drove the insurgents from Fernandina. Other posts were speedily abandoned, and a flotilla of gunboats, under Lieutenant T. H. Stevens, went up the St. John's River, and captured Jacksonville, March 11. St. Augustine was taken possession of about the same time by Commander C. R. P. Rogers, and the alarmed Confederates abandoned Pensacola and all the fortifications opposite Fort Pickens. Before the middle of April the whole Atlantic coast from Cape Hatteras to Perdido Bay, west of Fort Pickens (excepting Charleston and its vicinity), had been abandoned by the Confederates.

Florida, DE LUNA'S EXPEDITION TO. Don Tristan de Luna sailed from Vera Cruz, Mexico, Aug. 14, 1559, with fifteen hundred soldiers, many zealous friars who wished to convert the heathen, and many women and children, families of the soldiers. He landed near the site of Pensacola, Fla., and a week afterwards a terrific storm destroyed all his vessels and strewed the shores with their fragments. He sent an exploring party into the interior. They travelled forty days through a barren and almost uninhabited country, and found a deserted Indian village, but not a trace of the wealth with which it was supposed Florida abounded. Constructing a vessel sufficient to bear messengers to the Viceroy of Mexico, De Luna sent them to ask for aid to return. Two vessels were sent by the viceroy, and, two years after his departure, De Luna returned to Mexico.

Florida, INCURSIONS FROM. In the summer of 1778 two bodies of armed men, composed of regulars and refugees, made a rapid incursion into Georgia from East Florida—one in boats through the inland navigation, the other overland by the way of the river Altamaha. The first party advanced to Sunbury and summoned the fort to surrender. Colonel McIntosh, its commander, replied, "Come and take it." The enterprise was abandoned. The other corps pushed on towards Savannah, but was met by about one hundred militia, with whom they skirmished. In one of these General Scriven, who commanded the Americans, was mortally wounded. At near Ogeechee Ferry the invaders were repulsed by General Elbert with two hundred Continental soldiers. Hearing of the repulse at Sunbury, they, also, retreated.

Florida, INVASION OF, BY OGLETHORPE. When Oglethorpe returned to Georgia from England (1736) he discovered a hostile feeling among the Spaniards at St. Augustine. They had tried to incite the Indians against the new settlements, and also to procure the assassination of Oglethorpe. The latter, not fairly prepared to resist an invasion, sent a messenger to St. Augustine to invite the Spanish commandant to a friendly conference. He explored some of the coast islands and prepared for fortification. (See *Oglethorpe*.) His messenger did not return, and he proceeded to secure possession of the country so far as its defined boundary permitted him. His hostile preparations made the Spaniards vigilant, and even threaten war; and when, in 1739, there was war between England and Spain, he determined to strike the Spaniards at St. Augustine a heavy blow before they were fully prepared to resist it. He penetrated Florida with a small force and captured some outposts early in 1740; and in May he marched towards St. Augustine with six hundred regular troops, four hundred Carolina militia, and a large body of friendly Indians. With these he stood before St. Augustine in June, after capturing two forts, and demanded the instant surrender of the post. It was refused, and Oglethorpe determined to starve the garrison by a close investment. The town was surrendered, and a small squadron blockaded the harbor. Swift-sailing galleys ran the weak blockade and well supplied the fort. Oglethorpe had no cannon and could not breach the walls. In the heats of summer malaria invaded his camp, the siege was raised, and he returned to Savannah. Hostilities were now suspended for about two years. (See *Georgia, Invasion of by Spaniards.*)

Florida Ordinance of Secession. Florida, purchased of Spain, and the most unimportant state in the Union, was early made the theatre of seditious speech and action by her politicians. Her representatives in Congress were anxious for secession, and forward in assumptions of sovereignty for their little state. Anxious to establish an independent empire on the borders of the Gulf of Mexico, the politicians met in convention early in January, 1861, at Tallahassee, the state capital, a city of less than two thousand inhabitants. Colonel Petit was chosen chairman of the convention, and Bishop Rutledge invoked the blessing of the Almighty upon the acts they were about to perform. The members numbered sixty-nine, and about one third of them were "Co-operationists." (See *Mississippi Ordinance of Secession.*) The Legislature of Florida, fully prepared to co-operate with the convention, had convened at the same place on the 5th. On the 10th the convention adopted an ordinance of secession by a vote of sixty-two against seven. In its preamble it was declared that "all hopes of preserving the Union upon terms consistent with the safety and honor of the slave-holding states" had been "fully dissipated." And it was further declared that by the ordinance Florida had withdrawn from the Union and become "a sovereign and independent nation." On the following day the ordinance was signed, while bells rang and cannons thundered to signify the popular joy. The news was received by the Florida representatives in Congress at Washington; but, notwithstanding the state had "withdrawn from the Union," they remained in their seats for reasons given in a letter to Joseph Finnegan, written by Senator David L. Yulee from his desk in the Senate chamber. "It seemed to be the opinion," he said, "that if we left here, force, loan, and volunteer bills might be passed, which would put Mr. Lincoln in immediate condition for hostilities; whereas, by remaining in our places until the 4th of March, it is thought we can keep the hands of Mr. Buchanan tied and disable the Republicans from effecting any legislation which will strengthen the hands of the incoming administration." Senators from other states wrote similar letters under their official franks. The convention was addressed by L. W. Spratt, of South Carolina, an eminent advocate for reopening the African slave-trade. Delegates were appointed to a general convention to assemble at Montgomery, Ala., and other measures were taken to secure the "sovereignty" of Florida. The Legislature authorized the emission of treasury notes to the amount of $500,000, and defined the crime of treason against the state to be, in one form—the holding of office under the National government in case of actual collision between the state and government troops — punishable with death.

The governor of the state (Perry) had made arrangements before the passage of the ordinance of secession to seize the United States forts, navy-yard, and other government property in Florida.

Florida, REVOLUTIONARY MOVEMENTS IN (1810). The success of Napoleon's arms in Spain and the impending peril to the Spanish monarchy gave occasion for revolutionary movements in the Spanish province of West Florida bordering on the Mississippi. That region undoubtedly belonged to the United States as a part of Louisiana bought from the French, but Spain had refused to relinquish it. The inhabitants were mostly of British or American birth. Early in the autumn of 1810 they seized the fort at Baton Rouge, met in convention, and proclaimed themselves independent, adopting a single star for their flag, as the Texans did in 1836. There were some conflicts between the revolutionists and adherents of the Spanish connection, and an attack upon the insurgents seemed imminent from the Spanish garrison at Mobile. Through Holmes, Governor of the Mississippi Territory, the revolutionists applied to the United States for recognition and aid. They claimed all the unlocated lands in the domain, pardon for all deserters from the United States Army (of whom there were many among them), and an immediate loan of $100,000. Instead of complying with these requirements, the President issued a proclamation for taking possession of the east bank of the Mississippi, an act which had been delayed because of conciliatory views towards Spain. Claiborne, Governor of the Orleans Territory, then in Washington, was sent in haste to take possession, authorized, in case of resistance, to call upon the regular troops stationed on the Mississippi, and upon the militia of the two adjoining territories. It was not necessary. Soon after this movement at Baton Rouge a man named Kemper, who purported to act under the Florida insurgents, approached Mobile, with some followers, to attempt the capture of the garrison. He was repulsed; but the alarmed Spanish governor wrote to the American authorities that if he were not speedily reinforced he should be disposed to treat for the transfer of the entire province. Congress passed an act authorizing the President to take possession of both East and West Florida to prevent its falling into the hands of another foreign power. Thus it might be held subject to future peaceful negotiations with Spain.

Floridians. (See *Mobilians.*)

Floyd, JOHN BUCHANAN, was born in Montgomery County, Va., in 1805; died at Abingdon, Va., April 26, 1863. Admitted to the bar in 1828, he practised law in Helena, Ark.; but in 1839 he settled in Washington County, in his native state. He served in the Virginia Legislature several terms, and was governor of the state in 1850-53. His father, John, had been governor of Virginia. In 1857 President Buchanan appointed him Secretary of War, in which office he proved disloyal, and conspired to overthrow the government by furnishing the slave-labor states with arms and dispersing the army. (See *Floyd's Disloyal Acts.*) Indicted by the grand jury of the District of Columbia as being privy to the abstracting of $870,000 in bonds from the Department of the Interior, at the close of 1860 he fled to Virginia, when he was commissioned a general in the Confederate army. In that capacity he was driven from West Virginia by General Rosecrans. The night before the surrender of Fort Donelson (which see) he stole away in the darkness, and, being censured by the Confederate government, he never served in the army afterwards.

Floyd, WILLIAM, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Suffolk County, L. I., Dec. 17, 1764; died in Oneida County, N. Y., Aug. 4, 1821. He took an early and vigorous part in the Revolution; was a member of the New York Committee of Correspondence; and a member of the First Continental Congress in 1774, and until 1777. He was again a member after October, 1778. He was a state senator in 1777. During the occupancy of Long Island by the British, for nearly seven years, his family were in exile. Mr. Floyd held the commission of brigadier, and commanded the Suffolk County militia in repelling an invasion of Long Island by the British. General Floyd was a member of the First National Congress, and as Presidential elector gave his vote for Jefferson in 1801.

Floyd's Disloyal Acts. John B. Floyd, Secretary of War, was deeply concerned in the conspiracy for the overthrow of the Republic. While in office in the cabinet of President Buchanan, he was detected, by a committee of the House of Representatives, in the act of stripping the Northern arsenals of arms and ammunition and filling those of the South with those munitions of war. So early as Dec. 29, 1859—a year before—according to the report of the committee, he had ordered the transfer of 65,000 percussion muskets, 40,000 muskets altered to percussion, and 10,000 percussion rifles from the armory at Springfield, Mass., and the arsenals at Watervliet, N. Y., and Watertown, Mass., to the arsenals at Fayetteville, N. C., Charleston, S. C., Augusta, Ga., Mount Vernon, Ala., and Baton Rouge, La.; and these were distributed in the spring of 1860, before the meeting of the Democratic Convention at Charleston (which see). Eleven days after the issuing of the above order by Floyd Jefferson Davis introduced (Jan. 9, 1860) into the National Senate a bill "to authorize the sale of public arms to the several states and territories, and to regulate the appointment of superintendents of the National armories." Davis reported the bill from the Military Committee of the Senate, and, in calling it up on Feb. 21, said, "I should like the Senate to take up a little bill which I hope will excite no discussion. It is the bill to authorize the states to purchase arms from the National armories. There are a number of volunteer companies wanting to purchase arms, but the states have not a sufficient supply." Senator Fessenden, of Maine, asked (Feb. 23) for an explanation of reasons for such action. Davis replied that the Secretary of War had recommended an increase of appropriations for arming the militia, and, as *the militia of the states were not militia of the United States*, he thought it best for the volunteer companies of states to have arms that were uniform in case of war. Fessenden offered an amendment (March 26) that would deprive it of mischief, but it was lost, and the bill was passed by a strict party vote—29 Democrats against 18 Republicans. It was smothered in the House of Representatives. (See "Wise's Proposition to Davis when Secretary of War," article *Rebellion planned in* 1856.) By a stretch of authority under an old act of Congress (1825), Floyd sold to states and individuals in the South over 31,000 muskets altered from flint to percussion for $2.50 each. On Nov. 24, 1860, he sold 10,000 muskets to G. B. Lamar, of Georgia; and on the 16th he had sold 5000 to Virginia. The Mobile *Advertiser*, one of the principal organs of the conspirators in Alabama, who knew the secret of Floyd's movements, said, "During the past year 135,430 muskets have been quietly transferred from the Northern arsenal at Springfield alone to those of the Southern States. We are much obliged to Secretary Floyd for the foresight he has thus displayed in disarming the North and equipping the South for this emergency. There is no telling the quantity of arms and munitions which were sent South from other arsenals. There is no doubt but that every man in the South who can carry a gun can now be supplied from private or public sources." A Virginia historian of the war (Pollard) said, "It was safely estimated that the South entered upon the war with 150,000 small-arms of the most approved modern pattern and the best in the world." Only a few days before Floyd left his office of Secretary of War and fled to Virginia he attempted to supply the Southerners with heavy ordnance also. On Dec. 20, 1860, he ordered forty columbiads and four 32-pounders to be sent from the arsenal at Pittsburgh to an unfinished fort on Ship Island, in the Gulf of Mexico; and seventy-one columbiads and seven 32-pounders to be sent from the same arsenal to an embryo fort at Galveston, Tex., which would not be ready for armament in five years. When Quartermaster Taliaferro (a Virginian) was about to send off these heavy guns, an immense public meeting of citizens, called by the mayor, was held, and the guns were retained. When Floyd fled from Washington his successor, Joseph Holt, of Kentucky, countermanded the order.

Flying Camp. In June, 1776, Congress, at the suggestion of Washington, called for ten thousand men from Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland to form a "flying camp" for the protection of New Jersey. Colonel Hugh Mercer, of Virginia, was promoted to brigadier-general and put in command of this corps, which never reached the number called for. On the death of the commander, at Princeton, it was broken up.

Focus of Sedition. It is agreed by all observers that the National capital was the focal point of active conspiracy against the Union during 1860; for there, in Congress, were gathered the chief political actors in the movement. There was the voltaic pile that energized the secession movement in all the slave-labor states. A leading Georgia journal (*The Southern Confederacy*), published at Atlanta, said, "The towns and cities have been flooded with sensational despatches and inflammatory rumors, manufactured in Washington city for the especial occasion. To be candid, there has never been as much lying and bullying practised, in the same length of time, since the destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah as in the recent campaign. The fault has been at Washington city. From that cesspool have emanated all the abominations that ever cursed a free people." So early as Dec. 13, 1860, about all of the leading disunionists at Washington assembled at night at the room of Reuben Davis, a representative in Congress from Mississippi, and there signed the following letter to their constituents: "The argument is exhausted. All hope of relief in the Union through the agencies of committees [these had just been appointed; see *Thirty-sixth Congress*], Congressional legislation, or Constitutional amendments is extinguished, and we trust the South will not be deceived by appearances or the pretence of new guarantees. The Republicans are resolute in their purpose to grant nothing that will or ought to satisfy the South. We are satisfied the honor, safety, and independence of the Southern people are to be found only in a Southern confederacy—a result to be obtained only by separate state secession—and that the sole and primary aim of each slave-holding state ought to be its speedy and absolute separation from an unnatural and hostile Union." This declaration was signed by a large number of Senators and Representatives and sent broadcast over the slave-labor states, first by telegraph, and then in print. Mr. Toombs returned to Washington from Georgia a few days after; and on Dec. 22 he telegraphed an address to the people of that state, in which he said, "I now tell you, upon the faith of a true man, that all further looking to the North for security for your constitutional rights in the Union ought to be instantly abandoned. It is fraught with nothing but ruin to yourselves and your posterity. Secession by the 4th of March next should be thundered from the ballot-box by the unanimous voice of Georgia on the 2d day of January next [the time for electing members of the Secession Convention]. Such a voice will be your best guarantee for liberty, security, tranquillity, and glory." This despatch unsettled conservatives and dazed the mass of the people. Several of similar character from Toombs and others were sent from Washington, and decided the wavering vote of Georgia for secession. (See *Georgia Ordinance of Secession.*)

Fontainebleau, TREATY OF. At Fontainebleau, Nov. 3, 1762, a treaty of peace was negotiated, which was signed at Paris. (See *Treaty of Paris.*)

Food at New Plymouth. The food of the "Pilgrims" at Plymouth was very simple and of small variety for several years. When, in August, 1623, the third supply of colonists—about sixty in number—came, the best dish that could be set before them was a lobster, a piece of fish, and a cup of "fair spring-water." As to bread, there was none in the colony.

Foote, ANDREW HULL, Rear-admiral United States Navy, was born at New Haven, Conn., Sept. 12, 1806; died in New York city, June 26, 1863. He entered the navy as midshipman in 1822; was flag-lieutenant of the Mediterranean squadron in 1833; and in 1838, as first lieutenant of the ship *John Adams*, Commodore Read, he circumnavigated the globe, and took part in an attack on the pirates of Sumatra. He was one of the first to introduce (1841) the principle of total abstinence from intoxicating drinks into the United States Navy; and on the *Cumberland* (1843–45) he delivered, on Sundays, extemporary sermons to his crew. He successfully engaged in the suppression of the slave-trade on the coast of Africa (1849–52). In command of the China station in 1856, when the Chinese and English were at war, Foote exerted himself to protect American property, and was fired upon by the "Celestials." His demand for an apology was refused, and he stormed and captured four Chinese forts, composed of granite walls seven feet thick and mounting one hundred and seventy-six guns, with a loss of only forty men. The Chinese garrison of five thousand men lost four hundred of their number killed and wounded. In the summer of 1861 Foote was made captain, and in September was appointed flag-officer of a flotilla of gunboats fitted out chiefly at Cairo, and commanded the naval expedition against Forts Henry and Donelson (which see), on the Tennessee and Cumberland rivers, early in 1862, in co-operation with General Grant. In the attack on the latter he was severely wounded in the ankle by a fragment of a shell. Though suffering, he commanded the naval attack on Island Number Ten (which see). After its reduction he returned to his home at New Haven. He was appointed rear-admiral in July, 1862; and in May, 1863, was ordered to take command of the South Atlantic squadron, but died while preparing in New York to leave for Charleston.

ANDREW HULL FOOTE.

Foragers, PROPERTY DESTROYED BY. With the opening of the spring of 1778 strong foraging parties were sent out by the British holding Philadelphia; and these often met small parties of American soldiers, when sharp skirmishes ensued. One of these parties joined an expedition up the Delaware (May 7), who captured or burned a number of vessels, among them an unfinished Continental frigate at the falls near Trenton, whither it had been conveyed for safety.

Forbes, JOHN, was born in Fifeshire, Scotland, in 1710; died in Philadelphia, March 11, 1759. He was a physician, but, preferring military life, he entered the British army, and was lieutenant-colonel of the Scotch Greys in 1745. He was acting quartermaster-general under the Duke of Cumberland; and late in 1757 he came to America, with the rank of brigadier-general. He commanded the troops—eight thousand in number—against Fort Duquesne (which see), and he named the place Pittsburgh, in honor of William Pitt.

Force, PETER, was born at Passaic Falls, N. J., Nov. 26, 1790; died in Washington, D. C., Jan. 23, 1868. He learned the printer's trade in New York city, and was president of the New York Typographical Society in 1812. In November, 1815, he settled in Washington city, became a newspaper editor and publisher, and was mayor of the city in 1836–40. He was major-general of the militia of the district in 1860, and was president of the National Institute. Mr. Force made a contract with the United States government in 1833 for the preparation and publication of a documentary history of the American colonies covering the entire period of the Revolution. He prepared and published nine volumes, folio, and had the tenth prepared, when Congress refused to make further appropriations for the work, and it has never been published. He had gathered an immense collection of books, manuscripts, maps, and plans; and in 1867 his entire collection was purchased by the government for $100,000, and it was transferred to the library of Congress. His great work is entitled *American Archives*. Mr. Force's first publication in Washington was the *National Calendar*, an annual volume of national statistics, which was continued from 1820 to 1836.

Forces at Yorktown. For the siege of Yorktown the French provided thirty-seven ships of the line, and the Americans nine. The Americans furnished 9000 land-troops (of whom 5500 were regulars), and the French 7000. Among the prisoners were two battalions of Anspachers, amounting to 1027 men, and two regiments of Hessians, numbering 875. The flag of the Anspachers was given to Washington by the Congress. (See *Offerings of a Grateful Congress.*)

Foreign Governments and the United

States (1861). From the time when the South Carolina Ordinance of Secession was passed there was observed in most of the European courts an unfriendliness of spirit towards the National government and a willingness to give its enemies encouragement in their revolutionary measures. The public journals in their interest were equally unfriendly in their utterances. When, early in February, the Confederate States government (which see) was organized, Europe seemed prepared to accept the hopeless dismemberment of the Republic as an accomplished fact. This belief was strengthened by the despatches of most of the foreign ministers at Washington to their respective governments, who announced, early in February, the practical dissolution of the Union; and some affected to be amazed at the folly of Congress in legislating concerning the tariff and other National measures when the nation was hopelessly expiring. The Queen of England, in her speech from the throne, expressed a "heartfelt wish" that the differences that distracted our country "might be susceptible of a satisfactory adjustment." For these humane expressions she was reproved; and, finally, yielding to the importunities of her ministers, some of whom earnestly desired the downfall of our Republic, she issued (May 13, 1861), a proclamation of neutrality, by which a Confederate government, as existing, was acknowledged, and belligerent rights were accorded to the insurgents. Already an understanding existed between the governments of England and France that they were to act together in regard to American affairs. They had even gone so far as to apprise other European governments of this understanding, with the expectation that they would concur with them and follow their example, whatever it might be. Thus, at the very outset of our difficulties, these two powerful governments had entered into a combination for arraying Europe on the side of the insurgents, and giving them moral if not material aid in their efforts to destroy the Republic. The proclamation of the British queen, made with unseemly haste before the minister of the new administration (C. F. Adams) could reach England, was followed by corresponding unfriendly action in the British Parliament. And in addition to affected indifference to the fate of our nation, British legislators, orators, publicists, and journalists were lavish of causeless abuse, not only of the government, but of the people of the free-labor states who were loyal to the government. This abuse was often expressed in phrases so unmanly and ungenerous, and even coarse and vulgar at times, that high-minded Englishmen blushed for shame. The emperor of the French was more cautious and astute; but he followed the British queen in according belligerent rights to the insurgents by a decree (June 11, 1861), and, at the same time, entered into political combinations for the propagation of imperialism in North America, with a belief that the days of the great Republic were numbered and its power to enforce the Monroe Doctrine (which see) had vanished. The Queen of Spain also hastened to proclaim the neutrality of her government, and to combine with France in re-planting the seeds of monarchical institutions in the Western Hemisphere, now that the Republic was expiring. The King of Portugal also recognized the insurgents as belligerents. But the more enlightened and wise monarch of Russia, who was about to strike off the shackles of almost forty million slaves in his own dominions, instructed his minister (July 29, 1861) to say to the imperial representative at Washington: "In every event the American nation may count upon the most cordial sympathy on the part of our august master during the important crisis which it is passing through at present." The Russian emperor kept his word; and the powers of Western Europe, regarding him as a pronounced ally of the American Republic, acted with more circumspection. The attitude of foreign governments encouraged the insurgents to believe that recognition and aid would surely be furnished; and the government of England, by a negative policy, did give them all the aid and encouragement it prudently could until it was seen that the Confederate cause was hopeless, when Lord John Russell addressed the head of the Confederacy in insulting terms. That astute publicist, Count Gasparin, of France, writing in 1862, when considering the unprecedented precipitancy with which leading European powers recognized the insurgents as belligerents, said, "Instead of asking on which side were justice and liberty, we have hastened to ask on which side were our interests; then, too, on which side were the best chances of success." He said England had a legal right to be neutral, but had no moral right to withhold her sympathies from a nation "struggling for its existence and universal justice against rebels intent on crimes against humanity."

Foreign Intercourse was first established by law in 1790. President Washington, in his message (Jan. 8, 1790), suggested to Congress the propriety of providing for the employment and compensation of persons for carrying on intercourse with foreign nations. The House appointed a committee (Jan. 15) to prepare a bill to that effect, which was presented on the 21st. It passed the House on March 30. The two Houses could not agree upon the provisions of the bill, and a committee of conference was appointed; and finally the original bill, greatly modified, was passed (June 25, 1790). The act fixed the salary of ministers at foreign courts at $9000 a year, and chargés d'affaires at $4500. To the first ministers sent to Europe the Continental Congress guaranteed the payment of their expenses, with an additional compensation for their time and trouble. These allowances had been fixed at first at $11,111 annually. After the peace the Continental Congress had reduced the salary to $9000, in consequence of which Franklin insisted upon his recall, the sum being insufficient. When the bill of 1790 went before the Senate that body was only willing to vote a general sum for the expenses of foreign intercourse, and to leave the compensation of the respective ministers to the discretion of the President, urging that the difference in expenses at the various courts called for discrimination in the sums allowed. To this the House would not agree, and for a while both Houses insisted upon compliance with their respective views. Hence the delay in the passage of the bill. The act also made allowance for "outfits," which had been insisted upon by Jefferson when he was appointed to succeed Franklin.

Foreign Officers in the Continental Army. There being a great deficiency of native skill in the departments of artillery and engineering at the beginning of the war, it was thought desirable to procure foreign officers; and it was a part of Silas Deane's business abroad to engage a few of this description. He found a large number of officers were then out of employment, and Deane was beset with almost endless solicitations. He exceeded his instructions and sent out about fifty officers of all ranks, to whom he made extravagant promises of promotion. These officers became a source of discontent to the native officers and considerable embarrassment to Congress. There was, indeed, great jealousy and heart-burnings among the officers; and on account of these foreigners being put in places of high rank, there was a disposition on the part of some Americans to quit the army. Because a French officer named Du Coudray, it was rumored, was to be made a major-general, Greene, Knox, and Sullivan, in a joint letter to Congress, threatened to resign if the appointment should be made. Deane had signed a contract with Du Coudray for a major-generalship in consideration of some supplies which he had furnished. Congress, offended, voted the letter an "attempt to influence their decision, an invasion of the liberties of the people, and indicating a want of confidence in the justice of Congress," for which the writers were required to make an apology. Duportail, Radière, and J. B. Govion were engaged as engineers, and were officers of merit, recommended by the French court. Kosciuszko and Count Pulaski were officers from Poland, where they had won distinction; and the Baron de Steuben, a Prussian officer, was of great service in disciplining the army, which he joined at Valley Forge. Lafayette served as a volunteer, without pay, and served the American cause with the zeal and fidelity of a disinterested patriot. He brought with him eleven other officers, among them the Baron de Kalb. (See *Choiseul.*)

Forest Foundling, A. After the battle at Tallahatchie (November, 1813) an Indian mother was found among the slain. Upon her bosom lay her infant boy, vainly endeavoring to draw sustenance from the cold breast. The babe was carried to General Jackson, who vainly tried to induce some of the captive mothers to give it nourishment. "No," they said, "his relations are all dead; kill him too." The babe was nourished with sugar and water in Jackson's tent until a nurse could be procured at Huntsville, when it was sent to Mrs. Jackson. The general was a childless man, and he adopted this forest foundling as his son. Mrs. Jackson watched over him with a mother's care, and he grew to be a beautiful youth, full of promise; but he died of consumption at the Hermitage before he reached manhood, and was sincerely mourned by his foster parents. The instincts of the Indian were strong in this boy. He delighted to roam in the forests, and decorate his head with feathers, and start out of an ambush with loud yells and horrible grimaces to frighten children. He was apprenticed to a harness-maker in Nashville.

Forrest in Tennessee and Kentucky. General N. B. Forrest had become a famous guerilla chief in 1863, and early in 1864 the sphere of his duties was enlarged, and their importance increased. He was acknowledged to be the most skilful and daring Confederate leader in the West. He made an extensive raid in Tennessee and Kentucky with about five thousand mounted men in March and April, 1864. He had been skirmishing with General W. S. Smith in northern Mississippi, and, sweeping rapidly across the Tennessee River into western Tennessee, rested a while at Jackson, and then (March 23) pushed on towards Kentucky. A part of his force captured Union City the next day, with the National garrison of four hundred and fifty men. Forrest then pushed on to Paducah, on the Ohio River, with three thousand men, and demanded the surrender of Fort Anderson there, into which the little garrison of seven hundred men, under Colonel Hicks, had taken refuge. It was refused; and after assailing the works furiously, and plundering and burning the town, until midnight, he ceased the assault. Hearing of reinforcements for Hicks approaching, he decamped (March 27) with a loss of three hundred men killed and wounded. The National loss was sixty killed and wounded. Forrest was chagrined by this failure, and proceeded to attack Fort Pillow, on the Mississippi, which he captured in April. (See *Fort Pillow.*) Hearing of the march of General Sturgis from Memphis to intercept him, Forrest escaped from Tennessee into Mississippi. A few weeks later, troops sent out from Memphis to hunt up and capture him were defeated by him in a severe engagement at Gun Town (June 10), on the Mobile and Ohio Railway, and were driven back with great loss. On the 14th he was defeated near Tupelo, Miss. Not long afterwards, when Smith was in Mississippi with ten thousand men, the bold raider flanked him, and dashed into Memphis in broad daylight, at the head of three thousand cavalry, in search of National officers, and escaped again into Mississippi.

Forrest's Invasion of Tennessee (1864). For several weeks Forrest, the guerilla leader, had been in northern Alabama, to prevent troops from the Mississippi joining Sherman. He crossed the Tennessee River, near Waterloo (Sept. 25, 1864), with a force of light cavalry about seven thousand strong, and invested Athens. The post was surrendered about half an hour before sufficient reinforcements arrived to hold it. These, with the garrison, after a sharp conflict, became prisoners. Forrest then pushed on northward to Pulaski, in Tennessee, destroying the railway; but General Rousseau, at Pulaski, repulsed Forrest after brisk skirmishing several hours, when the raider made eastward, and struck the railway between Tullahoma and Decherd. He was confronted and menaced by National forces under Rousseau, Steedman, and Morgan, and withdrew before he had done much damage. At Fayetteville he divided his forces, giving four thousand to Buford, his second in command. Buford attacked Athens (Oct. 2–3), which General Granger had regarrisoned with the Seventy-third Indiana, and was repulsed. Forrest had pushed on to Columbia, on the Duck River, with three thousand men, but did not attack, for he met Rousseau, with four thousand men, coming down from Nashville. At the same time, General C. C. Washburne was moving up the Tennessee on steamers, with four thousand troops (three thousand of them cavalry), to assist in capturing the invaders. Several other leaders of the National troops, under the command of General Thomas, who had now arrived at Nashville, joined in the hunt for Forrest. He saw his peril, and, parolling his one thousand prisoners, he destroyed five miles of the railway south from the Duck River, and escaped over the Tennessee (Oct. 6), at Bainbridge, with very little loss.

Forsyth, JOHN, was born at Fredericksburg, Va., Oct. 22, 1780; died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 21, 1841. He graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1799. His parents removed to Georgia when he was quite young; he studied law, and was admitted to its practice about the year 1801. He was attorney-general of the state in 1808; member of Congress from 1813 to 1818, and from 1823 to 1827. He was also United States Senator, and from 1827 to 1829 was governor of Georgia. Mr. Forsyth was United States minister to Spain (1819–22), and negotiated the treaty that gave Florida to our Republic. He opposed "nullification" (which see) in South Carolina, favored Clay's Compromise Act of 1833 (which see), and was United States Secretary of State from 1835 to 1841.

Fort Anne, EVENTS NEAR (1777). When the British took possession of Ticonderoga (July 6, 1777), Burgoyne ordered gunboats to pursue the bateaux laden with stores, etc., from the fort. (See *Burgoyne's Campaign.*) The boom-bridge barrier across the lake there was soon broken, and the pursuing vessels overtook the fugitive boats near Skenesborough, and destroyed them and their contents. Colonel Long, in command of the men in them, escaped with his people and the invalids, and after setting fire to everything combustible at Skenesborough (now Whitehall), they hastened to Fort Anne, a few miles in the interior, followed by a British regiment. When near the fort, Long turned on his pursuers, and routed them; but the latter being reinforced, Long was driven back. He burned Fort Anne, and fled to Fort Edward, on the Hudson.

Fort Brown, ON THE RIO GRANDE (1846). On his arrival on the Rio Grande, opposite Matamoras (March 29, 1846), with a part of the Army of Occupation, General Taylor began building a fort that would accommodate two thousand men. It was placed in command of Major Jacob Brown, and was afterwards named Fort Brown, in compliment to him. Taylor was ordered by General Ampudia, commander of the Mexican forces at Matamoras, to withdraw within twenty-four hours, as he claimed the territory around Fort Brown belonged to the Department of Tamaulipas, a part of Mexico. Taylor refused to do so; and when he had gone back to Point Isabel with a part of his forces, leaving Major Brown in command, Arista crossed the river with some troops to attack the fort. His army was hourly increasing in strength. On the night of May 4 the Mexicans erected a battery behind the fort, and early the next morning opened a heavy fire from it upon the fortification. At the same time batteries at Matamoras, which had fired upon the fort on the 3d, hurled shot and shell, but with little effect, for Brown had erected bomb-proof shelter. Almost at the beginning of the bombardment, the gallant commander was killed. The bombardment continued thirty-six hours, when Arista demanded a surrender of the fort. It was refused, and towards evening (April 6) a heavy tempest of shot and shell fell upon the fort. The fort withstood the attack until relieved by approaching troops under General Taylor. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

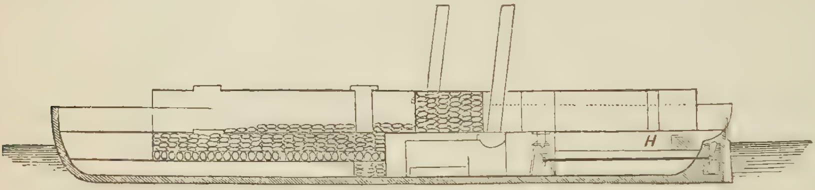
Fort Cumberland attacked. At the head of the Bay of Fundy the British had maintained Fort Cumberland from the year 1755. In 1776 only a small garrison was there to take care of the public property. Captain Jonathan Eddy, a native of Massachusetts, who had lived many years in the vicinity of the fort, believing it might be easily captured, applied to the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts for men and supplies for that purpose. These were not furnished, and Eddy returned to Nova Scotia, where he raised a few men, and on the night of Nov. 20, 1776, attacked the fort. Apprised of the movement, the little garrison, prepared, repulsed the assailants. A British reinforcement soon arrived, and the assailants fled in haste. The inhabitants, who had joined the standard of Eddy, soon saw their houses in flames, and then, fearing British vengeance, made their way to New England in a famishing condition.

Fort Detroit. The old French village of Detroit contained one hundred and sixty houses in 1812, and about eight hundred souls. It stretched along the river at a convenient distance from the water, and the present Jefferson Avenue was the principal street. On the high ground in the rear, about two hundred and fifty yards from the river, stood Fort Detroit, built by the English after the conquest of Canada, in 1760. It was quadrangular in form, with bastions and barracks, and covered about two acres of ground. The embankments were nearly twenty feet high, with a deep ditch, and were surrounded with a double row of pickets. The fort did not command the river. The town, also, was surrounded by pickets fourteen feet in height, with loopholes to shoot through.

Fort Detroit, GARRISON OF, SAVED FROM STARVATION (1763). While Detroit was closely besieged by Pontiac, a schooner was despatched from the Niagara River with provisions for the relief of the garrison. She was manned by twelve white men and six Mohawk Indians, and arrived in the Detroit River Sept. 3d. While at anchor, the vessel was attacked by about three hundred and fifty Indians in canoes, but they were dispersed by the crew. The master of the vessel and one of his crew were killed, and four were wounded. The vessel arrived in safety at Detroit, and with its contents the garrison was saved from starvation.

Fort Donelson, CAPTURE OF. After the capture of Fort Henry (which see) there was no hinderance to the river navy going up the Tennessee to the fertile cotton regions of the heart of the Confederacy. Foote sent Lieutenant-commander S. L. Phelps, with three vessels, to reconnoitre the borders of that river. They penetrated to Florence, Alabama, seizing Confederate vessels and destroying Confederate property, and discovered the weakness of the league in all that region, for Unionism was everywhere prevalent, but suppressed by the mailed hand of the Confederate leaders. Phelps's report caused an immediate expedition against Fort Donelson, situated on the high left bank of the Cumberland River, at Dover, the capital of Stewart County, Tenn. It was formed chiefly of outlying intrenchments, covering about one hundred acres, upon hills furrowed by ravines. At Fort Henry General Grant reorganized his army in three divisions, under Generals McClernand, Smith, and Lew. Wallace. (See *Belmont.*) Commodore Foote returned to Cairo to take his mortar-boats up the Cumberland River to assist in the attack. On the morning of Feb. 12, 1862, the divisions of McClernand and Smith marched for Fort Donelson, leaving Wallace with a brigade to hold the vanquished forts on the Tennessee. On the same evening Fort Donelson was invested. Grant resolved to wait for the arrival of the flotilla bearing troops that would complete Wallace's division before making the attack. General Pillow was in command of the fort; but, on the morning of the 13th, General Floyd arrived from Virginia with some troops and superseded him. They were assisted by General S. B. Buckner (see *Kentucky State Guard*), a better soldier than either. All day (Feb. 13) there was skirmishing, and at night the weather became extremely cold, while a violent rainstorm was falling. The National troops, bivouacking without tents, suffered intensely. They dared not light camp-fires, for they would expose them to the guns of their foes. They were without sufficient food and clothing. Perceiving the perils of his situation, Grant had sent for Wallace to bring over his troops. He arrived about noon on the 14th. The transports had arrived, and Wallace's division was completed and posted between those of McClernand and Smith, by which the thorough investment of the fort was completed. At three o'clock that afternoon the bombardment of the fort was begun by the *Carondelet*, Captain Walke, and she was soon joined by three other armored gunboats in the front line. A second line was formed of unarmored boats. The former were exposed to a tremendous pounding by missiles from the shore-batteries; and they were compelled to retire, after receiving one hundred and forty wounds and having fifty-four men killed and wounded. Foote returned to Cairo to repair damages and to bring up a sufficient naval force to assist in carrying on the siege. Grant resolved to wait for the return of Foote and the arrival of reinforcements. But he was not allowed to wait. On the night of the 14th the Confederate leaders held a council of war, and it was concluded to make a sortie early the next morning, to rout or destroy the invading forces, or to cut through them and escape to the open country in the direction of Nashville. This was attempted at five o'clock (Feb. 15). The troops engaged in it were about ten thousand in number, commanded by Generals Pillow and Bushrod R. Johnston. They advanced from Dover—Mississippians, Tennesseeans, and Virginians — accompanied by Forrest's cavalry. The main body was directed to attack McClernand's division, who occupied the heights that reached to the river. Buckner was directed to strike Wallace's division, in the centre, at the same time, so that it might not be in a condition to help McClernand. These movements were not suspected by the Nationals, and so quick and vigorous was Pillow's attack that Grant's right wing was seriously menaced within twenty minutes after the sortie of the Confederates was known. The attack was quick, furious, and heavy. Oglesby's brigade received the first shock, but stood firm until their ammunition began to fail, when it gave way under the tremendous pressure, excepting the extreme left, held by Colonel J. A. Logan, with his Illinois regiment. Imitating their commander, they stood as firmly as a wall, and prevented a panic and a rout. The light batteries of Taylor, McAllister, and Dresser, shifting positions and sending volleys of grape and canister, made the Confederate line recoil again and again. At eight o'clock McClernand's division was so hard pressed that he sent to Wallace for help. Wallace, being assigned to a special duty, could not comply without orders, for which he sent. Grant was away, in consultation with Commodore Foote, who had arrived. Again McClernand sent for help, saying his flank was turned. Wallace took the responsibility. Then Buckner appeared. The battle raged fiercely. McClernand's line was falling back, in good order, and calling for ammunition. Wallace took the responsibility of ordering some up. Then he thrust his brigade (Colonel Thayer commanding) between the retiring troops and the advancing Confederates, flushed with hope, and formed a new line of battle across the road. Back of this was a reserve. In this position they awaited an attack, while McClernand's troops supplied themselves with ammunition from wagons which Wallace had ordered up. Just then the combined forces of Pillow and Buckner fell upon them and were repulsed by a battery and the First Nebraska. The Confederates, after a severe struggle, retired to their works in confusion. This was the last sally from the fort. "God bless you!" wrote Grant's aid the next day to Wallace, "you did save the day on the right." It was now noon. Grant was in the field, and, after consultation with McClernand and Wallace, he ordered the former to retake the hill he had lost. This was soon bravely done, and the troops bivouacked on the field of victory that cold winter night. Meanwhile, General Smith had been smiting the Confederates so vigorously on their right that, when night came on, they were imprisoned within their trenches, unable to escape. Finding themselves closely held by Grant, the question, How shall we escape? was a paramount one in the minds of Floyd and Pillow. They were both terror-stricken by the impending danger of falling into the hands of their outraged government. At midnight the three Confederate commanders held a private council, when it was concluded that the garrison must surrender. "*I* cannot surrender," said Floyd; "you know my position with the Federals; it won't do, it won't do." Pillow said, "I will not surrender myself nor my command; I will die first." "Then," said Buckner, coolly, the surrender will devolve on me." Then Floyd said: "General, if you are put in command, will you allow me to take out, by the river, my brigade?" "If you will move before I surrender," Buckner replied. Floyd offered to surrender the command, first, to Pillow, who replied, "I will not accept it—I will never surrender." Buckner said, like a true soldier, "I will accept it, and share the fate of my command." Within an hour after the conference Floyd fled up the river with a part of his command, and Pillow sneaked away in the darkness and finally reached his home in Tennessee. The Confederates never gave him employment again. The next morning the fort and 13,500 men were surrendered, and the spoils of victory were 3000 horses, 48 field-pieces, 17 heavy guns, 20,000 muskets, and a large quantity of military stores. During the siege the Confederates lost 237 killed and 1000 wounded; the National loss was estimated at 446 killed, 1755 wounded, and 152 made prisoners.

Fort Dummer. In the war against the Norridgewock Indians (1723) repeated attempts were made to engage the assistance of the Mohawks, but they were unsuccessful, and Massachusetts was advised, with justice, to make peace by restoring to the Indians their lands. The attacks of the barbarians extended all along the northern frontier as far west as the Connecticut River. To cover the towns in that valley, Fort Dummer was erected on the site of what is now Brattleborough, in Vermont, the oldest English settlement in that state. (See *Norridgewock, Expedition against.*)



THE POWDER-SHIP. (See foot-note on page 507.)

Fort Fisher, CAPTURE OF. It was late in 1864 when an attempt was made to close the port of Wilmington against English blockade-runners by capturing Fort Fisher and its dependencies at the mouth of the Cape Fear River. The expedition sent against that fort consisted of a powerful fleet of war-vessels under Admiral D. D. Porter and a land force under the immediate command of General Godfrey Weitzel, of the Army of the James, accompanied by General B. F. Butler as commander of that army. The whole force (the troops on transports) was gathered in Hampton Roads early in December. The troops consisted of General Ames's division of the Twenty-fourth Corps and General Paine's division of the Twenty-fifth (colored) Corps. The war-vessels were wooden ships, iron-clads, monitors, gunboats, and a powder-ship, destined to be blown up abreast of the fort with a hope of destructive effect. Fort Fisher was an extensive earthwork on a point of sandy land between the Cape Fear River at its mouth and the ocean, and was commanded by General W. H. C. Whiting. The land-face of the fort occupied the whole width of the cape known as Federal Point, and was armed with twenty heavy guns. All along the land-front was a stockade, and on the sea-front were the wrecks of several blockade-runners. At noon on the 14th the transports, with the troops, went to sea; the naval vessels had departed thirty-six hours before. The appointed rendezvous of the expedition was twenty-five miles off the coast, at Fort Fisher, so as not to be discovered by the Confederates until ready for action. There was a delay in the arrival of the war-vessels, and the transports, coaled and watered for only ten days, were compelled to run up to Beaufort harbor (N. C.) for both, the war-fleet remaining off Fort Fisher. A capital part of the movement was the explosion on board of a vessel anchored near the fort, in the night, of two hundred and fifteen tons of gunpowder, with the hope that it would dismount the guns or otherwise disable the fort and garrison, so as to allow the troops to land and make an easy conquest. During the absence of the troops up the coast the powder-ship performed her functions, but with no serious effect,[*] and the war-vessels bombarded the fort, doing very little damage. The transports returned on Christmas evening, the next morning the war-vessels opened a bombardment, and at 3 o'clock P.M. the troops began their debarkation two miles above the fort. Only a part of the troops had been landed when the surf ran too high to permit more to go ashore. These marched down to attack the fort. Not a gun had been dismounted, and, as they were ready to rake the narrow peninsula on which the troops stood the moment the fleet should withhold its fire, prudence seemed to require the troops to withdraw. They did so, and were ordered to the James River to assist in the siege of Petersburg (which see), and the expedition of the land force against Fort Fisher was temporarily abandoned. It was resumed ten days afterwards. The war-vessels had remained off Fort Fisher. The same troops, led by Weitzel, were placed under the command of General A. H. Terry, with the addition of a thin brigade of 1400. Lieutenant-colonel Comstock, of General Grant's staff, who accompanied the first expedition, was made the chief-engineer of this. The expedition left Hampton Roads Jan. 6, 1865, and rendezvoused off Beaufort (N. C.), where Porter was taking in supplies of coal and ammunition. They were all detained by rough weather, and did not appear off Fort Fisher until the evening of the 12th. The navy, taught by experience, took a position where it could better affect the land-front of the fort than before. Under cover of the fire of the fleet, 8000 troops were landed (Jan. 13). Terry wisely provided against an attack in the rear by casting up intrenchments across the peninsula and securing the free use of Masonborough Inlet, where, if necessary, troops and supplies might be landed in still water. On the evening of the 14th the light guns were landed, and before morning were in battery. Wisely planned by Terry, a grand assault was made on the morning of the 15th. The batteries of the war-ships opened the battle on the 14th. They kept up a bombardment all day, severely damaging the guns of the fort and silencing most of them. The iron-clads fired slowly throughout the night, worrying and fatiguing the garrison, and at eight o'clock in the morning (Jan. 15) the entire naval force moved up to the attack. Meanwhile, 1400 marines and 600 sailors, armed with revolvers, cutlasses, and carbines, were sent from the ships to aid the troops in the assault. Ames's division led in the assault, which began at half past three o'clock P.M. The advance carried shovels and dug rifle-pits for shelter. A heavy storm of musketry and cannons opened upon the assailants. The fleet had effectually destroyed the palisades on the land-front. Sailors and marines assailed the northeast bastion, and with this assault began the fierce struggle. The garrison used the huge traverses that had shielded their cannons as breastworks, and over these the combatants fired in each others' faces. The struggle was desperate and continued until nine o'clock, when the Nationals, fighting their way into the fort, had full possession of it. All the other works near it were rendered untenable; and during the night (Jan. 16–17) the Confederates blew up Fort Caswell, on the right bank of the Cape Fear River. They abandoned the other works and fled towards Wilmington. The National loss in this last attack was 681 men, of whom 88 were killed. On the morning succeeding the victory, when the Nationals were pouring into the fort, its principal magazine exploded, killing 200 men and wounding 100. The fleet lost about 300 men during the action and by the explosion. The loss of the Confederates was reported by General Terry as over 2000 prisoners, 169 pieces of artillery, over 2000 small-arms, and a considerable quantity of ammunition and commissary stores. The port of Wilmington was closed to blockade-runners.

Fort George, CAPTURE OF (1813). The victors left York (see *Capture of York*) early in May, 1813, and proceeded to attack Fort George, near the mouth of the Niagara River. Stormy weather had detained them at York for a week. Losses and sickness had reduced the number of the troops to one thousand. These were again conveyed by the fleet of Chauncey, who, with Dearborn and other naval commanders, went before in the pilot-schooner *Lady of the Lake* and selected a landing-place four miles east of Fort Niagara. The British force at Fort George and vicinity, under General Vincent, then numbered about one thousand eight hundred. Besides that fort they had several works along the Niagara River. The American troops were debarked May 8, and Chauncey sailed for Sackett's Harbor for supplies and reinforcements for the army. He returned to Dearborn's camp, in the *Madison*, on the 22d of May, and the same evening Commodore Perry arrived there. Arrangements were immediately made for an attack on Fort George. The commodore and Perry reconnoitred the enemy's batteries in the *Lady of the Lake*. Dearborn was ill, but on the morning of the 27th the troops were conveyed by the squadron to a point a little westward of the mouth of the Niagara, and landed under cover of the guns of the fleet. The advance was led by Colonel Winfield Scott, accompanied by Commodore Perry, who had charge of the boats. He and Scott both leaped into the water at the head of the first division of the men, and, in the face of a galling fire and gleaming bayonets, they ascended the bank. The other troops followed, and, after a severe conflict on the plain, the British fell back discomfited. General Vincent, satisfied that he must retreat, and knowing Fort George to be untenable, ordered the garrison to spike the guns, destroy the ammunition, and abandon it. This was done, and the whole British force retreated westward to a strong position among the hills, at a place called "The Beaver Dams," about eighteen miles from the Niagara River. There Vincent had a deposit of stores and provisions. The garrisons of Forts Erie and Chippewa becoming alarmed, abandoned them, and the whole Niagara frontier of Canada passed into the hands of the Americans.

---

[*] The powder-ship was the *Louisiana*, a propeller of 295 tons, having an iron hull. She was disguised as a blockade-runner. To have the powder above the water line, a light deck was built for the purpose. On this was first placed a row of barrels of powder, standing on end, the upper one open. The remainder of the powder was in canvas bags, holding about sixty pounds each, the whole being stored as represented in the above sketch, in which the form of the vessel is also delineated. The whole weight of the powder was 215 tons, or 430,000 pounds. To communicate fire to the whole mass simultaneously, four separate threads of the Gomez fuse were woven through it, passing through each separate barrel and bag. At the stern and under the cabin was a heap of pine wood (H) and other combustibles, which were to be fired by the crew when they should leave the vessel. Three devices were used for communicating fire to the fuses, namely, clock-work, by which a percussion-cap was exploded; short spermaceti candles, which burned down and ignited the fuses at the same time; and a slow match that worked in time with the candles and the clock-work. The powder-vessel followed a blockade-runner and was anchored within three hundred yards of the fort, according to the report of Commander Rhind. When the combustibles were fired and the apparatus for igniting the fuses were put in motion, the crew escaped in a swift little steamer employed for the purpose. The explosion took place in one hour and fifty-two minutes after the crew left. Notwithstanding the concussion of the explosion broke window-glasses in a vessel twelve miles distant, and the whole fleet, at that distance, felt it, and it was also felt on land at Beaufort and New Berne, from sixty to eighty miles distant, there was no perceptible effect upon the fort and garrison. The edges of the parapets were as sharply defined as ever, and even the grass was not disturbed.

Fort George, L. I., Surprise of. In the autumn of 1780 some Rhode Island Tory refugees took possession of the manor-house of General John Smith, at Smith's Point, L. I., fortified it and the grounds around it, and named the works Fort George, which they designed as a depository of stores for the British in New York. They began cutting wood for the British army in the city. At the solicitation of General Smith, and the approval of Washington, Major Benjamin Tallmadge crossed the Sound from Fairfield, with eighty dismounted dragoons, and landed, on the evening of Nov. 21, at Woodville. There he remained until the next night on account of a storm. At the mills, two miles from Fort George, he found a faithful guide, and at dawn he and his followers burst through the stockade, rushed across the parade, shouting "Washington and glory!" and so furiously assailed the redoubt on three sides that the garrison surrendered without resistance. Tallmadge demolished the fort, burned vessels lying at the wharf, and with three hundred prisoners started for Fairfield. At Corum he destroyed three hundred tons of hay, collected for the British in New York, and reached Fairfield with his prisoners without losing a man. For this exploit Tallmadge received the thanks of Congress.

Fort Granby, on the confines of Pennsylvania, was surprised by French and Indians in August, 1756, who made the garrison prisoners, loaded them with flour, and drove them into captivity.

Fort Griswold, Massacre at. (See *Arnold at New London.*)

Fort Harrison and Spring Hill (1864). Generals Ord and Birney, with a considerable force of National troops, crossed the James River on muffled pontoon bridges on the night of Sept. 28, to attack the Confederate works below Chapin's Bluff, the heaviest of which was Battery Harrison, on a hill overlooking a great extent of country. It was the strongest of the defences of Richmond. Ord stormed and carried it before reinforcements could reach its thinned garrison. With the fort were captured a long line of intrenchments, with twenty-two pieces of heavy ordnance and about three hundred men. In the assault, General Burnham was killed and Ord severely wounded. The Nationals lost about seven hundred men killed and wounded. The strong work was named Fort Burnham, in honor of the slain general. Then Fort Gilmer, a little farther on, was assailed by the Nationals, with a loss of three hundred men. Meanwhile Birney, with three thousand colored troops in advance, attacked the Confederate works at Spring Hill, on New Market Heights. These were commanded by General Charles Paine. The Spring Hill redoubt was very strong. On its front was a marsh, traversed by a brook fringed with trees, and it was further defended by an *abatis*. The eager troops swept across the marsh, scaled the heights (Sept. 29, 1864), carried the works at the point of the bayonet, and secured the key-point to the Confederate defences in that quarter. The struggle was desperate, and the victory was won by the black warriors at a fearful cost of life and vigor. Before the storming party reached the works, two hundred of them fell dead, and not less than one thousand were killed, wounded, or captured. For their gallantry on that occasion, General Butler, at the close of the war, presented a silver medal to the most meritorious actors. The Confederates attempted to retake Fort Harrison (Oct. 1, 1864). The troops were under the immediate direction of General Lee. They were driven back, with a loss of seven battle-flags and almost the annihilation of Clingman's North Carolina Brigade. Meanwhile General Kautz had pushed up and entered the Confederate outer line, within three or four miles of Richmond, when he was attacked and driven back, with a loss of nine guns and four hundred of his men made captives. These were in turn assailed by the Tenth National Corps, and, after a severe battle, were driven back, with a loss of seven hundred men and three brigade commanders.

Fort Harrison, Attack upon (1812). At the very hour when the Pigeon Roost massacre took place (see *Fort Wayne*), two young haymakers were killed and scalped near Fort Harrison, on the Wabash, two miles above Terre Haute. The Prophet (see *Tecumtha and the Prophet*) at Tippecanoe was still busy stirring up the Indians against the white people. The garrison of Fort Harrison was commanded by Captain Zachary Taylor (afterwards President of the United States), who was just recovering from a severe attack of bilious fever. He had been warned by friendly Indians to be on his guard. His garrison was weak, for of the fifty men who composed it, not more than a dozen were exempt from the prevailing fever. Only two non-commissioned officers and six privates could mount guard at the same time. In the presence of impending danger some of the convalescents went upon duty freely. At midnight (Sept. 4, 1812) the barbarians stealthily approached the fort and set fire to one of the block-houses, which contained the stores of the garrison. At the same time they furiously attacked the fort with muskets. So feeble in body were the garrison that it was difficult to keep the flames of the block-house under, and the horrid yells of the Indians made them feel that all was lost, and that they must give up in despair. Two of the stoutest soldiers deserted the post and tried to escape. One was cut in pieces and the other returned. Nothing but the prudence, valor, and presence of mind of the commander saved the post. The fire was subdued by great exertions. At six o'clock in the morning (Sept. 5) the garrison returned the fire of the assailants so briskly that the latter retired out of reach of the guns, after a contest of almost eight hours. They destroyed or drove off the live-stock found in the neighborhood, and for a while after the Indians abandoned the siege the garrison subsisted on green corn from the fields around, which the barbarians had spared. Soon afterwards General Hopkins, with Kentucky volunteers, gave ample relief to the sick and weary soldiers at Fort Harrison. Their entire loss in the siege was only three men killed and three wounded.

FORT HARRISON.

Fort Henry, Capture of. At a bend of the Tennessee River, where it approaches the Cumberland River within about twelve miles, the Confederates built Fort Henry, on the right bank, and on a high hill opposite Fort Hieman. At the beginning of February, 1862, a land force under General Ulysses S. Grant, and a flotilla of gunboats under Commodore A. H. Foote, were sent to capture these two forts. They appeared about two miles below Fort Henry on Feb. 3. That fort was armed with seventeen great guns, twelve of which swept the river, and the garrison and troops encamped outside of the fort numbered less than three thousand. These were commanded by General Tilghman, of Maryland, a graduate of West Point Academy. Foote placed four of his iron-clad gunboats in position to bombard the fort, while two of his unarmored vessels fished up torpedoes with which the Confederates had strewn the river bottom. Some of the troops went up the left side of the river to silence the guns of Fort Hieman, when the garrison fled. Meanwhile Foote opened (Feb. 6) a heavy fire on Fort Henry. It was so severe that in an hour the garrison were panic-stricken. The troops outside of the fort had fled to Fort Donelson, twelve miles distant, on the Cumberland River; and only the commander and less than one hundred men remained in the fort to surrender to Foote. Grant and the land troops did not arrive until after the surrender, when the fort was turned over to him. The Nationals lost two killed and thirty-eight wounded. Of the latter, twenty-nine were wounded and scalded on the gunboat *Essex* by steam let out of the boilers by the piercing of a thirty-two-pound shell. As it passed it took off a portion of the head of Lieutenant S. B. Britton, the aid of Captain Porter, of the *Essex*, only seventeen years of age. This victory was a very important one. The Nationals were now fairly planted in the rear of the Confederates at Columbus (which see); and if they should capture Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland, the Confederates believed their cause would be ruined in Kentucky, Tennessee, and Missouri. The first great step towards the capture of Fort Donelson had been taken. Halleck telegraphed to McClellan, "Fort Henry is ours! The flag of the Union is re-established on the soil of Tennessee. It will never be removed." The Secretary of the Navy wrote to Foote: "The country appreciates your gallant deeds, and this department desires to convey to you and your brave associates its profound thanks for the service you have rendered."

Fort Johnson, Seizure of. After the discovery of intrigues by Governor Campbell, of South Carolina, the Council of Safety of that province ordered Colonel William Moultrie to take possession of Fort Johnson, on James Island, near Charleston. Aware of this contemplated movement, Lord Campbell sent a party to the fort to throw the guns and carriages from the platform; and on Sept. 15, 1775, having suddenly dissolved the last royal Assembly in South Carolina, he fled for safety on board the British ship *Tamar*. Meanwhile the fort had been taken possession of by three companies, commanded respectively by C. C. Pinckney, Bernard Elliot, and Francis Marion. The fugitive governor sent his secretary in a boat from the *Tamar* to demand by "what authority they had taken possession of his majesty's fort?" "We hold the fort by express command of the Council of Safety," replied Lieutenant-colonel Motte, who was in command. A schooner was stationed between Fort Johnson and the town to intercept the *Tamar's* boats; and very soon tents holding five hundred men dotted James Island, near the fort.

Fort Lee, CAPTURE OF. Early on the morning of Nov. 20, 1776, Cornwallis crossed the Hudson River from Dobbs's Ferry to Closter's Landing, five miles above Fort Lee, and with a force about six thousand strong, including artillery, climbed a steep, rocky pathway up a gorge in the Palisades, unobserved by Greene. A farmer awoke that officer from slumber in the morning twilight, in time for him to escape from imminent peril. He fled in haste from Fort Lee, with the garrison of two thousand men, leaving cannons, tents, stores, and camp equipage behind. He barely escaped capture. Washington, apprised of the danger, so well covered his retreat that less than one hundred stragglers were made prisoners.

Fort McHenry, BOMBARDMENT OF. Fort McHenry was a regular work on Fell's Point, Baltimore, about one half its present dimensions. In anticipation of a visit from the British marauding squadrons, the Baltimorians had sunk some vessels in the narrow channel between the fort and Lazzaretto Point, which prevented the passage of an enemy's ships. Fort McHenry was garrisoned by about one thousand men, volunteers and regulars, commanded by Major George Armistead. To the right of it, guarding the shores of the Patapsco, and to prevent troops landing in the rear, were two redoubts (Fort Covington and Babcock's Battery). In the rear of these, upon high ground, was an unfinished circular redoubt for seven guns, and on Lazzaretto Point, opposite Fort McHenry, was a small battery. This and Fort Covington were in charge of officers of Barney's flotilla. Such were Fort McHenry and its supporters on the morning of Sept. 12, 1814, when the British fleet, under Admiral Cochrane, consisting of sixteen heavy vessels, five of them bomb-ships, had made full preparations for the bombardment of the fort. At sunrise (Sept. 13, 1814) the bomb-vessels opened a heavy fire on the fort and its dependencies at a distance of two miles, and kept up a well-directed bombardment until three o'clock in the afternoon. Armistead immediately opened the batteries of Fort McHenry upon the assailants; but after a while he found that his missiles fell short of his antagonist and were harmless. The little garrison was composed of two companies of Sea Fencibles, under Captains Bunbury and Addison; two companies of volunteers from the city of Baltimore, under the command of Captains Berry and Pennington; a company of United States artillery, under Captain Evans; a fine company of volunteer artillerists, led by Judge Joseph H. Nicholson; a detachment of Barney's flotilla, under Lieutenant Redman, and detachments of regulars, six hundred strong, furnished by General Winder, and under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Stewart and Major Lane. The garrison was exposed to a tremendous shower of shells for several hours, without the power to inflict injury in turn, or even to check the fury of the assault; yet they endured the trial with cool courage and great fortitude. At length a bombshell dismounted a twenty-four-pounder in the fort, killing a lieutenant and wounding several of the men. Admiral Cochrane, observing the confusion in the fort caused by this event, and hoping to profit by it, ordered three of his bomb-vessels to move up nearer the fort, in order to increase the effectiveness of their guns. Armistead was delighted, and immediately ordered a general cannonade and bombardment from every part of the fort; and so severe was his punishment of the venturesome intruders that within half an hour they fell back to their old anchorage. A rocket vessel (*Erebus*) was so badly damaged that the British were compelled to send a division of small boats to tow her out of reach of Armistead's guns. The garrison gave three cheers, and the firing ceased. After the British vessels had resumed their former stations, they opened a more furious bombardment than before, and kept it up until after midnight, when it was discovered that a considerable force (twelve hundred picked men in barges) had been sent up the Patapsco in the gloom to attack Fort McHenry in the rear. They were repulsed, and the bombardment from the vessels ceased. At seven o'clock in the morning of the 14th the hostile shipping and the land forces menacing the city withdrew, and Baltimore was saved. In this attack on the fort the British did not lose a man; and the Americans had only four men killed and twenty-four wounded, chiefly by the exploding of the shell that dismounted the twenty-four-pounder. During the bombardment

THE ARMISTEAD VASE.

Francis S. Key was held in custody in a vessel of the fleet, and was inspired by the event to compose the yet popular song of *The Star-spangled Banner* (which see). Armistead and his brave little band received the grateful benedictions of the people of Baltimore and of the whole country. The citizens of Baltimore presented Armistead with a costly service of silver, the principal piece — a vase — in the form of a bombshell (see p. 510). Governor-general Prevost, of Canada, was so certain of an easy victory at Baltimore that he ordered rejoicings at Montreal on account of the capture of Washington to be postponed until after the capture of Baltimore should be heard of!

Fort Macon, CAPTURE OF. This fort, commanding the important harbor of Beaufort, N. C., and Bogue Sound, was seized by Governor Ellis early in 1861. Its possession by the government would secure the use of another fine harbor on the Atlantic coast for the National vessels engaged in the blockading service. It stands upon a long ridge of sand cast up by the ocean waves called Bogue Island. After the capture of New Berne (which see), Burnside sent General Parke to take the fort. A detachment took possession of Beaufort, and a flag was sent to the fort demanding its surrender. The commander of the garrison, a nephew of Jefferson Davis, declared he would not yield until he had "eaten his last biscuit and slain his last horse." On April 11 General Parke began a siege of the fort. Batteries were erected on Bogue Island, and gunboats, under Commodore S. Lockwood, co-operated with the troops. The garrison was cut off from all communication with the outside world by land or water. A bombardment was begun on the morning of April 25. The fort responded with great spirit and vigor, and a tremendous artillery duel was kept up for several hours, when the fort displayed a white flag. Before ten o'clock the next morning the fort was in possession of the Nationals, with about five hundred prisoners.

Fort Meigs and its Defence. When Harrison heard of the advance of Winchester to the Maumee and the Raisin, he ordered all of his available force to push forward to reinforce that officer. The advancing column was soon met by fugitives from Frenchtown, and thoughts of marching on Malden were abandoned for the time. The troops fell back to the rapids of the Maumee, and there formed a fortified camp. There they built a fortification which was called Fort Meigs, in honor of the Governor of Ohio. Harrison's troops there were about one thousand eight hundred in number, and were employed under the skilful direction of Captain Wood, chief-engineer of his army. The work was about two thousand five hundred yards in circumference, the whole of which, with the exception of several small intervals left for block-houses, was to be picketed with timber fifteen feet long and from ten to twelve inches in diameter, set three feet in the ground. When the fort was partly finished (March, 1813), the general and engineer left the camp in the care of Captain Leftwich, who ceased work upon it, utterly neglected the suffering garrison, and actually burned the pickets for fire-wood. On the return of Wood, work on the fort was resumed, and pushed towards completion. Harrison had forwarded Kentucky troops from Cincinnati, and on April 12 he himself arrived at Fort Meigs. He had been informed on the way of the frequent appearance of Indian scouts near the rapids, and little skirmishes with what he supposed to be the advance of a more powerful force. Expecting to find Fort Meigs invested by the British and Indians, he took with him all the troops on the Auglaize and St. Mary's rivers. He was agreeably disappointed to find on his arrival that no enemy was near in force. They soon appeared, however. Proctor, at Fort Malden, had formed plans for an early invasion of the Maumee Valley. Ever since the massacre at Frenchtown he had been active in concentrating a large Indian force for the purpose at Amherstburg. He so fired the zeal of Tecumtha and the Prophet by promises of future success in the schemes for an Indian confederation that at the beginning of April the great Shawnoese warrior was at Fort Malden with one thousand five hundred Indians. Full six hundred of them were drawn from the country between Lake Michigan and the Wabash. On the 23d of April, Proctor, with white and dusky soldiers, more than two thousand in number, left Amherstburg on a brig and smaller vessels, and, accompanied by two gunboats and some artillery, arrived at the mouth of the Maumee, twelve miles from Fort Meigs, on the 26th, where they landed. One of

UP THE MAUMEE VALLEY, FROM FORT MEIGS.

the royal engineers (Captain Dixon) was sent up with a party to construct works on the left bank of the Maumee, opposite Fort Meigs. On the 28th of April Harrison was informed of the movement of Proctor and his forces. He knew that General Green Clay was on the march with Kentuckians, and he despatched Captain William Oliver with an oral message urging him to press forward by forced marches. Meanwhile Proctor and his forces had arrived, and on the morning of May 1, 1813, he opened a cannonade and bombardment from the site of Maumee City upon Fort Meigs, and continued, with slight intermission, for five days, but without much injury to the fort and garrison. The fire was returned occasionally by eighteen-pounders. The Americans had built a strong traverse athwart the fort, behind which they were sheltered. Their ammunition was scarce, and it was used sparingly; but they had an abundant supply of food and water for a long siege. Still Harrison felt anxious. He looked hourly up the Maumee for the appearance of Clay with reinforcements. The latter had heard the cannonading at the fort, and had pressed forward as rapidly as possible. Proctor had thrown a force of British and Indians across the river to gain the rear of the fort, and these the vanguard of Clay encountered. When the latter officer drew near he received explicit orders from Harrison to detach eight hundred men from his brigade, to be landed on the left bank of the river, a mile and a half above Fort Meigs, to attack the British batteries, spike their guns, destroy their carriages, and then cross the river to the fort; the remainder of Clay's troops to fight their way to the fort. These orders met Clay as he was descending the Maumee in boats (May 5, 1813). Colonel Dudley was appointed to lead the expedition against the British batteries. The work was successfully performed; but a band of riflemen, under Captain Leslie Combs, being attacked by some Indians in ambush, Dudley led reinforcements to them. The Indians were soon put to flight, but Dudley, unmindful of his instructions, pushed on in pursuit, leaving Colonel Isaac Shelby in charge of the batteries. Both the British and Indians were reinforced; the batteries were retaken; and after a sharp fight, in which Shelby's troops participated, Dudley's whole command was put to flight, and dispersed in great confusion. A great part of them were killed or captured. Dudley was slain and scalped, and Combs and many companions were marched to Fort Miami below as prisoners. (See *Running the Gauntlet.*) Of the eight hundred who landed from the boats only one hundred and seventy escaped to Fort Meigs. While these scenes were occurring on the left bank of the Maumee, there was a desperate struggle on the fort side. A part of the remainder of Clay's command, under Colonel W. E. Boswell, having landed a short distance above the fort, were ordered to fight their way in. They were soon attacked by a body of British and Indians, but were joined by a sallying party from the fort; and while a sharp struggle was going on there, Harrison ordered a helpful sortie from the fort to attack some works cast up by the enemy near a deep ravine. This was done by three hundred and fifty men, under Colonel John Miller, of the regulars. They found a motley force there, eight hundred and fifty strong, but they were soon driven away and their cannons spiked. The fight was desperate, the Americans being surrounded at one point by four times their own number. The victors returned to the fort with forty-three captives. Boswell in the meantime had utterly routed the force before him at the point of the bayonet. Fort Meigs was saved. The result of that day's fighting, and the ill-success of all efforts to reduce the fort, caused Proctor's Indian allies to desert him, and the Canadian militia to turn their faces homeward. The Prophet had been promised by Proctor the whole territory of Michigan as his trophy, and Tecumtha was to have the person of General Harrison, whom he had intensely hated since the battle at the Tippecanoe (which see), as his. These promises were unfulfilled, and the Indians left in disgust. Only Tecumtha's commission and pay of a brigadier in the British army secured his further services.

Fort Mercer. On the New Jersey shore of the Delaware, not far below Philadelphia, was a strong work called Fort Mercer, with a garrison under the command of Colonel Christopher Greene, of Rhode Island. After Howe had taken possession of Philadelphia (September, 1777), he felt the necessity of strengthening his position; so, in the middle of October, he ordered General Sir Henry Clinton to abandon the forts he had captured in the Hudson Highlands (see *Forts Clinton and Montgomery*), and send six thousand troops to Philadelphia. He had just issued this order, when news of the surrender of Burgoyne and his army reached him. He then perceived that he must speedily open the way for his brother's fleet to ascend the Delaware to Philadelphia, or all would be lost. He ordered Count Donop to take twelve hundred picked Hessian soldiers, cross the Delaware at Philadelphia, march down the New Jersey shore, and take Fort Mercer by storm. He obeyed, and at the same time the British vessels-of-war in the river opened a furious cannonade on Fort Mifflin, opposite. Already the works at Billingsport, below, had been captured, and a narrow channel had been opened through obstructions above. This admitted British vessels to approach near enough to cannonade the two forts. On the approach of Donop (Oct. 22, 1777), Greene abandoned the outworks of Fort Mercer, and retired into the principal redoubt. At the edge of a wood, within cannon-shot of the fort, Donop planted a battery of ten heavy guns, and late in the afternoon he demanded the instant surrender of the fort, threatening that, in case of refusal and resistance, no quarter would be given. Colonel Greene had only four hundred men back of him, but he gave an instant and defiant refusal, saying, "We ask no quarter, nor will we give any." Then the besiegers opened their heavy guns, and, under their fire, pressed up to storm the fort. They were received by terrible volleys of musketry and grape-shot from cannons, while two concealed American galleys smote them with a severe enfilading fire. The slaughter of the assailants was fearful. Count Donop instantly fell, and many of his officers were slain or mortally wounded. At twilight the invaders withdrew, after a loss of two hundred men. The Americans lost thirty-seven, killed and wounded. Donop died three days after the battle. He said, "I die a victim to my ambition and the avarice of my sovereign." (See *German Mercenaries.*)

Fort Mifflin. The firing of the first gun upon Fort Mercer (which see) was the signal for British vessels to approach and attack Fort Mifflin, opposite. They had made their way through the obstructions near Billingsport. The *Augusta*, ship-of-war, and other armed vessels, came up the river, but were kept at bay by American galleys and floating-batteries. The attack was deferred until the morning after (Oct. 23) the assault on Fort Mercer. A heavy cannonade was brought to bear on the British fleet by the American flotilla, and at the same time an equally heavy fire was kept up by the royal vessels on Fort Mifflin, the little garrison of which was commanded by Lieutenant-colonel Smith, of Maryland. Smith made a gallant defence. A hot shot from the fort set fire to the *Augusta*, and she blew up. After an engagement of several hours, the British fleet retired, and the Americans remained masters of the Delaware a short time longer. Finally the British erected batteries on Province Island, that commanded Fort Mifflin, and brought up a large floating-battery and four 64-gun ships and two 40-gun ships to attack the fort. On the 10th of November (1777) the British opened their batteries on land and water. Lieutenant-colonel Smith, with his garrison of three hundred men, sustained the siege six consecutive days. When every gun was dismounted, and the fort was almost a ruin, the garrison left in the night (Nov. 16), after firing the remains of the barracks, and escaped to Fort Mercer, which Colonel Greene, despairing of relief, evacuated Nov. 20, 1777. During the siege of Fort Mifflin, about two hundred and fifty men of the garrison were killed and wounded. The British loss is not known.

Fort Mims, MASSACRE AT. In the autumn of 1812, Tecumtha and the Prophet (which see) went among the Creeks to stir them up to make war upon the white people. They were divided in sentiment, for many of them preferred peace and friendship with the Americans, and civil war was engendered. The white settlers among them were in great peril, and in the spring of 1813 they were led to expect an exterminating blow. They knew that a British squadron was in the Gulf, and on friendly terms with the Spaniards at Pensacola. They prepared to defend themselves as well as they might. They learned that British agents at Pensacola were distributing supplies among the Creeks. Very soon hostilities began here and there, and the white people fled to secret places for refuge—some in the thick swamps not far above the junction of the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers. There they were joined by wealthy half-blood families, and the house of Samuel Mims, an old and wealthy inhabitant, was strongly stockaded with heavy pickets. Several other buildings were enclosed within the acre of ground stockaded, and the whole was known as Fort Mims. Major Beasley was placed in command, and authorized to receive any citizens who would assist in defence of the station, and issue soldiers' rations to them. Its dimensions were soon too small for the people who flocked to it for protection against the impending storm, and a new enclosure was built. At the close of August Indians were seen prowling around Fort Mims; but Major Beasley was confident that he could "maintain the post against any number of Indians." The 30th of August was a beautiful day, and no sense of danger was felt at the fort. It contained five hundred and fifty—men, women, and children. The midday drum was beaten for dinner. The soldiers were loitering listlessly around, or were playing cards; almost one hundred children were playing around, and young men and maidens were dancing. At that moment a thousand almost naked Creek warriors lay in a ravine not more than four hundred yards from the fort, ready, like famished tigers, to spring upon their prey. They were led by Weathersford, a famous Creek chief. The first tap of the dinner-drum was the signal for the barbarians to rise from their cover and rush to the fort; and the first intimation of their presence was a horrid yell, that filled the air as they came streaming over a field towards an open gate of the fort. Beasley flew to close it, and the soldiers rushed with their arms to the portholes. The unarmed men and the women and children, pale with terror, huddled within the houses and cabins of the enclosure. Beasley was too late. He was felled by clubs and tomahawks, and over his dead body the terrible torrent rushed into the new enclosure. The soldiers made a gallant fight for three hours. They were nearly all slain. The unarmed people were in the old enclosure, with a picket between them and the slaughter. The Indians became weary, and slackened their fire. The people in the main fort hoped the savages were about to depart. They were disappointed. Weathersford was not a man to accept half a victory when a whole one was attainable. His people, who had begun to carry away plunder, were rebuked by him, and exhorted to complete the work. The horrid task was resumed. The few soldiers left made stout resistance, when the barbarians sent fire on the wings of arrows to the roof of Mims's house, and it burst into a flame. Very soon the whole "fort" was in flames. The Indians pressed into the main fort. With the most horrid cruelties they murdered the defenceless. Weathersford begged his warriors to spare the women and children, but they refused. He had raised the storm, but was not able to control it. At sunset four hundred of the inmates of Fort Mims lay dead. Not a white woman or child escaped. Twelve of the soldiers cut their way through the cordon of barbarians and escaped. Most of the negroes were spared, and were made slaves of the Indians. A negro woman, who had received a ball in her breast, escaped to the river, seized a canoe, and paddling down to Fort Stoddart, gave to General Claiborne there the first tidings of the horrible tragedy. The contest lasted from twelve o'clock until five. The barbarians had suffered severely, for not less than four hundred Creek warriors were killed or wounded, as the victims had sold their lives as dearly as possible.

Fort Motte, CAPTURE OF (1781). This fort was simply the fine residence of Rebecca Motte, which the British had fortified. Mrs. Motte was the widowed mother of six children. She was an ardent Whig, and had been turned out of her house, and taken refuge at her farm-house on a hill near by. Marion and Lee approached with a considerable force, but having no artillery, could not dislodge the garrison of Fort Motte. What was to be done had to be done quickly, for other posts required their attention. Only by setting the house on fire could the British be driven out. To this method Mrs. Motte gave her cheerful assent. She brought an Indian bow and arrows. To the latter lighted combustibles were affixed, and an expert fired the arrows into the roof of the dwelling. It was soon in a blaze, when the garrison were compelled to sally out and surrender. The patriotic owner then regaled both American and British officers at her table. Lee then pushed towards the Savannah River, to assist Pickens and Clarke in holding the country between Fort Ninety-six and Augusta, to prevent the garrison of either place joining the other.

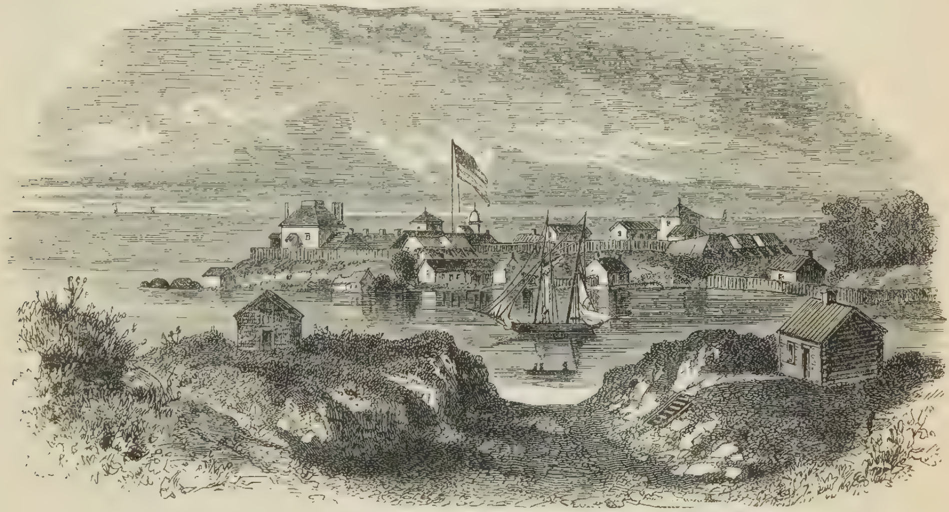
FORT MOTTE.

Fort Moultrie, SEIZURE OF (1860). Major Anderson abandoned weaker Fort Moultrie, and went to stronger Fort Sumter, on the evening of Dec. 26, 1860. (See *Anderson in Fort Sumter.*) He left officers and men to spike the guns, burn the carriages, and cut down the flag-staff, that no secession banner might occupy the place of the national flag. The bewildered citizens of Charleston saw the smoke of the burning carriages at dawn, and when they knew its origin, the disunionists were greatly exasperated. The Secession Convention requested Governor Pickens to take possession of the government property in and around Charleston. The arsenal, into which Floyd had crowded arms, was seized in the name of the State of South Carolina, and thus seventy thousand stand of arms and a vast amount of stores, valued at $500,000, were placed in the hands of the enemies of the government. Men of Charleston, equipped with these weapons, went in two armed steam-vessels and seized Castle Pinckney (which was surrendered by its faithless commander, N. L. Coste), and took possession of dismantled Fort Moultrie in the name of "the sovereign State of South Carolina." The fort was strengthened, new breastworks were constructed, and heavy guns were mounted.

Fort Necessity. During his march towards Fort Duquesne, Washington, at a point on the Monongahela River less than forty miles from his destination, heard of the approach of a party of French and Indians to intercept him. He fell back to a rich, fertile bottom called The Great Meadows, about fifty miles from Cumberland, where he hastily erected a stockade, which he appropriately called Fort Necessity. While engaged in this work, scouts had observed the stealthy approach of French soldiers. Word to this effect was sent to Washington by a friendly sachem known as Half-king, who stated that the detachment was very near his camp. Putting himself at the head of forty men, he set off, in the intense darkness, at nine o'clock at night, for the encampment of Half-king. The rain fell in torrents, and they did not reach the friendly Indians until just before sunrise (May 28, 1754). Half-king and his warriors joined Washington's detachment, and when they found the enemy, in a secluded spot among the rocks, they immediately attacked them. A sharp skirmish ensued. Jumonville, who led the French, and ten of his men, were killed, and twenty-two were made prisoners. This was the first blood shed in the French and Indian War. Washington had one man killed, and two or three were wounded. It was afterwards ascertained that Jumonville was the bearer of a summons for the surrender of Fort Necessity. Two days later Colonel Fry died at Cumberland. Troops hastened forward to join Washington at Fort Necessity. On him the chief command now devolved. Reinforced, he proceeded towards Fort Duquesne with four hundred men. At the same time M. de Villiers, brother of Jumonville, was marching, at the head of one thousand Indians and a few Frenchmen, to avenge his kinsman's death. Hearing of this, Washington fell back to Fort Necessity, where, on the 3d of July, he was attacked by about fifteen hundred of the foe. After a conflict of about ten hours, De Villiers proposed an honorable capitulation. Washington signed it on the morning of the 4th of July. Then the troops marched out with the honors of war, and departed for their homes.

Fort Niagara is on the east side of Niagara River, near its mouth. Its building was begun as early as 1673, when La Salle (which see) enclosed a small spot there with palisades. In 1687 De Nonville (which see) constructed a quadrangular fort there, with four bastions. It was enlarged to quite a strong fortification by the French in 1725. It was taken from them, in 1759, by Sir William Johnson. It then covered eight acres. During the Revolution it was the rendezvous of British troops, Tories, and Indians, who desolated central New York, and sent predatory bands into Pennsylvania. "Then," says De Veaux, "civilized Europe revelled with savage Americans, and ladies of education and refinement mingled in the society of those whose only distinction was to wield the bloody tomahawk and the scalping-knife. Then the squaws of the forests were raised to eminence, and the most unholy unions between them and officers of highest rank were smiled upon and countenanced." Fort Niagara remained in possession of the British until the frontier posts were given up to the Americans, in 1796. It was captured by the British in the War of 1812–15.

Fort Niagara, Bombardment of (1812). Fort Niagara, on the right bank of the Niagara River, at its mouth, was garrisoned by the Americans, commanded by Lieutenant-colonel George McFeely. The British had raised breastworks in front of the village of Newark, opposite the fort, at intervals, all the way up to Fort George, and placed behind them several mortars and a long train of battering cannons. These mortars began a bombardment of Fort Niagara on the morning of Nov. 21, 1812, and at the same time a cannonade was opened at Fort George and its vicinity. From dawn until twilight there was a continuous roar of artillery from the line of batteries on the Canada shore; and during the day two thousand red-hot shot were poured upon the American works. The mortars sent showers of destructive bomb-shells. Buildings in the fort were set on fire several times, and were extinguished by great exertions. Meanwhile the garrison returned the assault gallantly. Newark was set on fire by shells several times; so, also, were buildings in Fort George, and one of its batteries was silenced. Shots from an outwork of Fort Niagara (the Salt Battery) sunk a British sloop in the river. Night ended this furious artillery duel.



FORT NIAGARA, FROM FORT GEORGE, IN 1812.

Fort Niagara captured (1813). When McClure abandoned Fort George and laid Newark in ashes (see *Newark*), in December, 1813, the exasperated British determined on retaliation. They crossed the Niagara River on the black, cold night of Dec. 18, about one thousand strong, regulars and Indians, under Colonel Murray. Gross negligence or positive treachery had exposed the fort to easy capture. It was in command of Captain Leonard. When, at three o'clock in the morning, a British force approached to assail the main gate, it was standing wide open. Leonard had left the fort on the evening before, and spent the night with his family, three miles distant. With a competent and faithful commander at his post, the fort, with its garrison of nearly four hundred effective men, might have been saved. The fort was entered without resistance, when the occupants of a blockhouse within and invalids in the barracks made a stout fight for a while. This conflict was over before the remainder of the garrison were fairly awake, and the fort in possession of the British. The victory might have been almost bloodless, had not a spirit of revenge, instigated by the black ruins of Newark, prevailed. A large number of the garrison, part of them invalids, were bayoneted after resistance had ceased. This horrid work was performed on Sunday morning, Dec. 19, 1813. The loss of the Americans was eighty killed—many of them hospital patients—fourteen wounded, and three hundred and forty-four made prisoners. The British loss was six men killed, and Colonel Murray, three men, and a surgeon wounded. The British fired a signal-cannon, announcing their success, which put in motion a detachment of regulars and Indians at Queenston for further work of destruction. They crossed the river to Lewiston, and plundered and laid waste the whole New York frontier to Buffalo.

Fort Orange (Albany). In 1614 Captain Christiansen, who, in the interest of trade, went up the Hudson River to the head of navigation, built a fortified trading-house on an island just below the site of Albany, which he called Castle

Island. The spring floods made the place untenable, and in 1617 a new fort was built at the mouth of the Tawasentha ("place of many dead"), or Norman's Kill, on the west side of the river. There a treaty of friendship and alliance was made with the Five Nations, the first ever made between the Indians and Hollanders. The situation of the new fort proving to be inconvenient, a more permanent fortification was built a few miles farther north, and called Fort Orange, in compliment to the Stadtholder, or chief magistrate, of Holland. Some of the Walloons settled there, and held the most friendly relations with the Indians. Near the fort Killian van Rensselaer, a wealthy pearl merchant of Amsterdam, purchased from the Indians a large tract of land in 1630, sent over a colony to settle upon it, and formed the "Colonie of Rensselaerswyck." (See *Patroons.*) A settlement soon grew around Fort Orange, and so the foundations of Albany were laid.

Fort Pickens, on Santa Rosa Island, commanded the entrance to the harbor of Pensacola Bay. Nearly opposite, but a little farther seaward, on a low sand-spit, was Fort McRee. Across from Fort Pickens, on the main, was Fort Barrancas, built by the Spaniards, and taken from them by General Jackson. Nearly a mile eastward of the Barrancas was the navy-yard, then in command of Commodore Armstrong. Before the Florida Ordinance of Secession was passed (Jan. 10, 1861) the governor of the state (Perry) made secret preparations with the governor of Alabama to seize all the national property within the domain of Florida—namely, Fort Jefferson, at the Garden Key, Tortugas; Fort Taylor, at Key West; Forts Pickens, McRee, and Barrancas, and the navy-yard near Pensacola. Early in January the commander of Fort Pickens (Lieutenant Adam J. Slemmer), a brave Pennsylvanian, heard rumors that the fort was to be attacked, and he took immediate measures to save it and the other forts near. He called on Commodore Armstrong (Jan. 7) and asked his co-operation, but, having no special order to do so, he declined. On the 9th Slemmer received instructions from his government to use all diligence for the protection of the forts, and Armstrong was ordered to co-operate with Slemmer. It was feared that the small garrison could not hold more than one fort, and it was resolved that it should be Pickens. It was arranged for Armstrong to send the little garrison at the Barrancas on a vessel to Fort Pickens. Armstrong failed to do his part, for he was surrounded by disunion officers who were plotting with Secessionists. But Slemmer, with great exertions, had the troops of Barrancas carried over to Pickens, with their families and much of the ammunition. The guns bearing upon Pensacola Bay at the Barrancas were spiked; but the arrangement for the vessels of war *Wyandot* and *Supply* to anchor near Fort Pickens was not carried out. To Slemmer's astonishment, these vessels were ordered away to carry coal and stores to the home squadron on the Mexican coast. On the 10th the navy-yard near Pensacola was surrendered to Florida and Alabama troops, and these prepared to bring guns to bear upon Pickens from Fort Barrancas. (See *Navy-yard at Pensacola Seized.*) Slemmer was now left to his own resources. His was the strongest fort in the Gulf, but his garrison consisted of only eighty-one souls, officers and men. These labored unceasingly to put everything in working order. Among the workers were the heroic wives of Lieutenants Slemmer and Gilmore—refined and cultivated women—whose labors at this crisis form a part of the history of Fort Pickens. On the 12th Captain Randolph, Major Marks, and Lieutenant Rut-

FORTS PICKENS AND McREE.

ledge appeared, and, in the name of the governor of Florida, demanded a peaceable surrender of the fort. It was refused. "I recognize no right of any governor to demand the surrender of United States property," said Slemmer. On the 15th Colonel William H. Chase, a native of Massachusetts, in command of all the insurgent troops in Florida, accompanied by Farrand, of the navy-yard near Pensacola, appeared, and, in friendly terms, begged Slemmer to surrender, and not be "guilty of allowing fraternal blood to flow." The tempter did not succeed. On the 18th Chase demanded the surrender of the fort, and it was refused. Then began the siege of Fort Pickens (which see).

Fort Pickens, SIEGE OF. Lieutenant Slemmer had held Fort Pickens firmly against all hostile forces and specious persuasions, supported by a loyal little garrison. Insurgent forces threatening it continually increased. On Jan. 18, 1861, Colonel Chase, commander of the insurgents near Pensacola, had demanded the surrender of Fort Pickens, and it had been refused. Its commandant, Lieutenant Slemmer, had not been able to get reinforcements from the government. When the new administration came into power (March 4, 1861) a new line of policy was adopted. The government resolved to reinforce with men and supplies both Sumter and Pickens. (See *Relief of Fort Sumter.*) Between the 6th and 9th of April the chartered steamers *Atlantic* and *Illinois* and the United States steam frigate *Powhatan* left New York for Fort Pickens with troops and supplies. Lieutenant John L. Worden (see *Monitor and Merrimac*) was sent by land with an order to Captain Adams, of the *Sabine*, then in command of a little squadron off Fort Pickens, to throw reinforcements into that work at once. Captain Braxton Bragg, late of the United States Army, was now in command of all the insurgent forces in the vicinity, with the commission of brigadier-general; and Captain Ingraham, late of the United States Navy, was in command of the navy-yard near Pensacola. Bragg had arranged with a treasonable sergeant of the garrison to betray the fort on the night of the 11th of April, for which service he was to be rewarded with a large sum of money and a commission in the Confederate army. He had seduced a few of his companions into complicity in his scheme. A company of one thousand insurgents were to cross over in a steamboat and escalade the fort when the sergeant and his confederates would be on guard. The plot was revealed to Slemmer by a loyal man in the insurgent camp named Richard Wilcox, and the catastrophe was averted by the timely reinforcement of the fort by marines and artillerymen under Captain Vogdes. A few days afterwards the *Atlantic* and *Illinois* arrived with several hundred troops under the command of Colonel Henry Brown, with ample supplies of food and munitions of war; and Lieutenant Slemmer and his almost exhausted little garrison were sent to Fort Hamilton, New York, to rest. By May 1 there was a formidable force of insurgents menacing Fort Pickens, numbering nearly seven thousand, arranged in three divisions. The first, on the right, was composed of Mississippians, under Colonel J. R. Chalmers; the second was composed of Alabamians and a Georgia regiment, under Colonel Clayton; and the third was made up of Louisianians, Georgians, and a Florida regiment—the whole commanded by Colonel Gladdin. There were also five hundred troops at Pensacola, and General Bragg was commander-in-chief. Reinforcements continued to be sent to Fort Pickens, and in June Wilson's Zouaves, from New York, were encamped on Santa Rosa Island, on which Fort Pickens stands. During the ensuing summer nothing of great importance occurred in connection with Fort Pickens, and other efforts afterwards made by the insurgents to capture it failed.

Fort Pillow, CAPTURE OF (1864). This fort was garrisoned by about five hundred and fifty men, including two hundred and sixty colored soldiers, under the command of Major L. F. Booth. Forrest approached Fort Pillow on the morning of April 13, 1864, drove in the pickets, and began an assault. A sharp battle ensued. About nine o'clock Major Booth was killed, and the command devolved on Major Bradford. The whole force was now called within the fort, and the fight was maintained until past noon. Meanwhile the gunboat *New Era*, of the Mississippi squadron, lying near, had taken part in the defence of the fort, but the height of the bank prevented her doing much execution. Forrest sent a flag to demand an instant surrender. While negotiations were going on Forrest sent large numbers of his troops to favorable positions for attack, which could not have been gained while the garrison was free to fight. By this trick he gained a great advantage. Bradford refused to surrender, and Forrest gave a signal, when his men sprang from their hiding-places, which they had gained by treachery, and, with a cry of "No quarter!" pounced upon the fort at different points, and in a few moments were in possession of it. Generals Forrest and Chalmers entered the fort simultaneously from opposite sides. The surprised and overwhelmed garrison threw down their arms. Some of them attempted to escape down the steep bank of the river or to find concealment in the bushes. The conquerors followed and butchered the defenceless men, who begged for quarter. Within the fort like scenes were exhibited. Soldiers and civilians—men, women, and children, white and black—were indiscriminately slaughtered. The massacre continued until night, and was renewed in the morning. Full three hundred were murdered in cold blood. Major Bradford, who was a native of a slave-labor state, was a special object of Forrest's hatred. He regarded him as "a traitor to the South." While on his way towards Jackson, Tenn., as a prisoner of war, the day after the Confederates left Fort Pillow, the major was taken from the line of march and deliberately murdered. So testified one of Forrest's cavalry before a Congressional committee. Forrest had determined to strike terror in the minds of colored troops and their leaders. This seemed to be his chosen method.

Major Charles W. Gibson, of Forrest's command, said to the writer, "Forrest's motto was, *War means fight, and fight means kill*—we want but few prisoners."

Fort Pitt Threatened. This was the most important military post of the English west of the Alleghanies. They had launch-boats to bear the Englishmen to the country of the Illinois. For some time the bitter foes of the English—the Mingoes and Delawares—had been seen hovering around the post. On May 27, 1763, they exchanged a large quantity of skins with the English traders for powder and lead, and then suddenly disappeared. Towards midnight Delaware chiefs warned the garrison that danger hovered around them, and warned them to fly, offering to keep the property safe. But the garrison preferred to remain in their strong fort; and the Indians, after murdering a whole family near the fort and leaving a tomahawk as a declaration of war, withdrew and threatened Fort Ligonier. (See *Pontiac's War.*)

Fort Pownall, ERECTION OF. Governor Pownall, of Massachusetts, took possession of the country around the Penobscot River in 1759, and secured it by the erection of a fort there. It was done by four hundred men granted by Massachusetts for the purpose, at a cost of about $15,000, and named Fort Pownall.

Fort Pulaski, CAPTURE OF. At the close of 1861 the National authority was supreme along the coasts from Wassaw Sound, below the Savannah River, to the North Edisto, well up towards Charleston. General T. W. Sherman directed his chief-engineer, General Q. A. Gillmore, to reconnoitre Fort Pulaski and report upon the feasibility of a bombardment of it. It had been seized by the Secessionists early in the year. Gillmore reported that it might be done by planting batteries of rifled guns and mortars on Big Tybee Island. A New York regiment was sent to occupy that island, and explorations were made to find a channel by which gunboats might get in the rear of the fort. It was found, and land-troops under General Viele went through it to reconnoitre. Another expedition went up to the Savannah River by way of Wassaw Sound, and the gunboats had a skirmish with Tatnall's "Mosquito Fleet." (See *Port Royal.*) Soon afterwards the Nationals erected batteries that effectually closed the Savannah River in the rear of Pulaski, and at the close of February, 1862, it was absolutely blockaded. General Gillmore planted siege-guns on Big Tybee that commanded the fort; and on April 10, 1862, after General Hunter (who had succeeded General Sherman) had demanded its surrender, and it had been refused, thirty-six heavy rifled cannons and mortars were opened upon it, under the direction of Generals Gillmore and Viele. It was gallantly defended until the 12th, when, so battered as to be untenable, it was surrendered. This victory enabled the Nationals to close the port of Savannah against blockade-runners.

BREACH IN FORT PULASKI.

Fort Schuyler, SIEGE OF (1777). On the site of the village of Rome, Oneida Co., N. Y., General Stanwix built a fort which received his name. After the war for independence began it was named Fort Schuyler. In the Revolution it was on the western borders of civilization. There was a small garrison there in the summer of 1777, commanded by Colonel Peter Gansevoort. It stood as a sort of barrier against hostile tribes of the Six Nations. The little garrison had been reinforced by the regiment of Colonel Marinus Willett, and was well provisioned. Burgoyne had sent Colonel St. Leger with Canadians, Tories, and Indians, by way of Lake Ontario, to penetrate the Mohawk Valley and make his way to Albany, there to meet the general. St. Leger appeared before Fort Schuyler on Aug. 3, 1777. The Tories in his train were commanded by Colonels Johnson, Claus, and Butler, and the Indians by Brant. On receiving news that General Herkimer was coming to the aid of the garrison with the Tryon County militia (see *Battle of Oriskany*), a larger portion within the fort made a sortie. They fell upon the camp of Johnson's "Greens" (see *Sir John Johnson*) so suddenly and furiously that they were dispersed in great confusion, Sir John not having time to put on his coat. Papers, clothing, stores, and other spoils of his camp sufficient to fill twenty wagons fell into the hands of the Americans. A part of the "Greens" had gone to oppose the advance of Herkimer, approaching at that moment. St. Leger continued the siege. Colonel Willett stealthily left the fort at night with a message to Schuyler, then near the mouth of the Mohawk, asking for relief. Schuyler called for a volunteer leader to go to the relief of Fort Schuyler. General Arnold responded, and beat up for recruits. The next day (Aug. 15) eight hundred strong men were following Arnold up the Mohawk Valley. At Fort Dayton he pardoned a young Tory prisoner condemned to death, on condition that he should go into the camp of St. Leger's savages with a friendly Oneida Indian, represent the approaching Americans as exceedingly numerous, and so frighten away the Indians. It was done. The Tory had several shots fired through his clothing. Almost breathless, he and the Oneida entered the camp, and told of a terrible fight they had just had with the Americans, who were as numerous as the leaves on the trees. The alarmed Indians immediately fled as fast as their legs could carry them towards the western wilds, followed by the Canadians and Tories pell-mell in a race towards Oswego. So ended the siege, and so did Burgoyne receive a paralyzing blow.

Fort Schuyler, TREATY AT (1784). While the British retained possession of the western frontier posts it was difficult to fix by treaty the Indian boundaries and open the western lands to settlers. But a treaty made at Fort Schuyler (formerly Fort Stanwix) by commissioners of the United States and the chiefs and warriors of the Six Nations gave some facilities in that direction. By this treaty the Mohawks, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas who had adhered to the British during the war consented to a peace and a release of prisoners. At the same time they ceded all their territory west of Pennsylvania.

Fort Stanwix Built. In 1758, when returning with a detachment of provincial troops from Oswego, Brigadier-general Stanwix constructed a fort on the Mohawk, at the camping-place between that river and Wood Creek, that empties into Oneida Lake, for the security of the Indians in the neighborhood who adhered to the English. It occupied a portion of the site of Rome, in Oneida County. In honor of the commander, it was named Fort Stanwix. After its relief from capture in August, 1777, through the exertions of General Schuyler, it was named Fort Schuyler.

Fort Stanwix, TREATY AT (1768). Fort Stanwix was built by General Stanwix, with the assistance of Colonel Bradstreet on his return from the capture of Fort Frontenac in 1758. (See *Frontenac.*) After the French and Indian War there were various projects for settlements beyond the mountains. On the 5th of November, 1768, a treaty was held at Fort Stanwix, at which the Six Nations, in consideration of the payment of a little over $50,000, ceded to the crown all their country south of the Ohio as far as the Cherokee or Tennessee River. So much of this region as lay south of the Great Kanawha was claimed by the Cherokees as their hunting-ground.

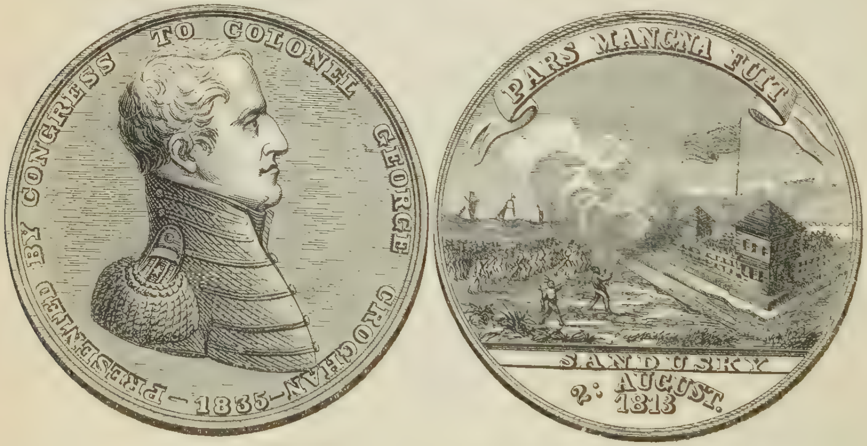
Fort Steadman. (See *Petersburg, Final Struggle at.*) Lee assigned to the duty of assaulting Fort Steadman the two divisions of Gordon's command, with the larger portion of Bushrod R. Johnston's command in support. Behind these he massed about twenty thousand men to break through the National line if the attack should prove successful. They were supplied with provisions and ammunition for a long struggle. The assault began at four o'clock in the morning (March 25, 1865). Its garrison, composed of the Fourteenth New York Artillery, had no suspicion of danger near. The fort was in front of the Ninth Corps, forming a salient, not more than one hundred yards from the Confederate intrenchments. The surprise was so complete that the assailants met with no resistance. A part of the garrison fled; the remainder were made prisoners. A brigade of the Ninth Corps met the same fate, and abandoned their guns. Now was the moment when Lee's army might have passed through the National line. It did not, and the golden moment was lost forever. The Confederates attacked Fort Haskell, near, but were repulsed. Confederate columns pressing through the gap were assailed by a murderous fire of artillery; and an assault by General Hartranft's division of the Ninth Corps, with an enfilading fire of artillery, caused the surrender of nineteen hundred men. Fort Steadman was recovered, and at the same time a strongly intrenched picket-line of the Confederates was seized and permanently held. Lee was disheartened by the failure and losses.

Fort Stephenson, DEFENCE OF. At Lower Sandusky (now Fremont), Ohio, was a regular earthwork, with a ditch, circumvallating pickets, bastions, and block-houses, called Fort Stephenson. It was garrisoned by one hundred and sixty men, under the command of Major George Croghan, of the regular army, then only twenty-one years of age. Tecumtha had urged Proctor to renew the siege of Fort Meigs, but that timid officer hesitated a long while. Finally, late in July, he appeared before the fort (in command of General Clay) with his own

GEORGE CROGHAN.

and Tecumtha's followers, about four thousand strong. Satisfied that he could not take the fort, Proctor and his white troops embarked, with their stores (July 28, 1813) for Sandusky Bay, with the intention of attacking Fort Stephenson. The Indians marched across the heavily wooded country to assist in the siege. Croghan was vigilant. He had been advised by his superiors to evacuate the fort when it was known that an overwhelming force of the enemy was approaching. He preferred to remain, and did so, in half disobedience of orders. The British arrived in their boats on the 31st, when Croghan perceived that the woods were swarming with Indians. Tecumtha had concealed about two thousand of them in the forest to watch the roads along which reinforcements for the fort might approach. Proctor at once made a demand for the surrender of the fort, accompanied by the usual threat of massacre by the Indians in case of a refusal. Croghan defied him, and immediately a cannonade and bombardment were commenced from the gunboats and from howitzers which the British had landed. It was then four o'clock in the afternoon. All night long the great guns assailed the fort with very little effect, and were answered occasionally by a solitary six-pounder cannon, which was all the ordnance possessed by the little garrison. It was shifted from one block-house to another to make the enemy believe the fort was well armed with several great guns. During the night the British dragged three six-pounder cannons to a point higher than the fort, and early in the morning (Aug. 1) there opened fire on the works. This continued several hours, the garrison remaining silent. Proctor became impatient, and his barbarian allies were becom-

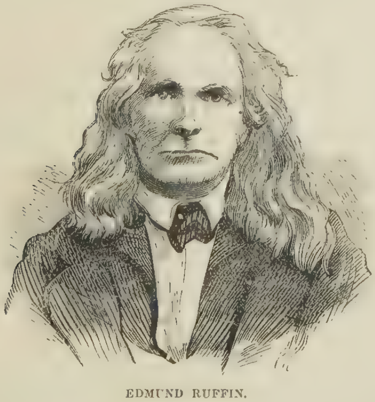
SITE OF FORT STEPHENSON, FREMONT, OHIO, IN 1860.



GOLD MEDAL AWARDED TO COLONEL CROGHAN.

ing uneasy, for there were rumors of reinforcements on the way to relieve the fort. Proctor determined to storm it, and at five o'clock in the afternoon, while a thunder-storm was approaching, the British marched in two columns to assail the fort; at the same time British grenadiers made a wide circuit through the woods to make a feigned attack at another point. As the two columns advanced the artillery played incessantly upon the fort, and under cover of this fire they reached a point within fifteen or twenty paces of the pickets before they were discovered. The garrison consisted mostly of Kentucky sharpshooters. These now opened a deadly fire with their rifles. The British lines wavered, but soon rallied; and the first, led by Lieutenant-colonel Short, pushed over the glacis, leaped into the ditch, and were about to obey their commander, who shouted, "Cut away the pickets, my brave boys, and show the damned Yankees no quarter!" when the six-pounder cannon, mounted and masked in a block-house that commanded the moat, opened a terrible storm of slugs and grape-shot, which swept along the living wall with awful effect. The second column, led by Lieutenant Gordon, leaped into the ditch, and met with a similar reception. Both leaders and many of their followers were slain, and a precipitate and confused retreat followed. The cowardly Indians, who were always afraid of cannons, had not joined in the assault. The loss of the British in killed and wounded was one hundred and twenty-one men; the garrison lost one man killed and several wounded. For this gallant defence Croghan received many honors. The ladies of Chillicothe, Ohio, presented him with an elegant sword. Congress gave him the thanks of the nation then, and twenty-two years afterwards awarded him a gold medal. This gallant defence had a powerful effect on the enemy.

Fort Sumter, First Gun fired at. Edmund Ruffin, a Virginian, seventy-five years of age, with long, white, flowing locks, was at the battery on Morris Island when the attack on Fort Sumter began. (See *Fall of Sumter.*) At his own request he was permitted to fire the first shot. Of this feat he boasted much, but did not appear prominently anywhere else during the war. He survived the conflict, in which he lost all his property. On Saturday, June 17, 1865, he committed suicide by blowing off the top of his head with a gun at the residence of his son, near Danville, Va. He left a note in which he said: "I cannot survive the liberty of my country." The wretched man was then almost eighty years of age.



EDMUND RUFFIN.

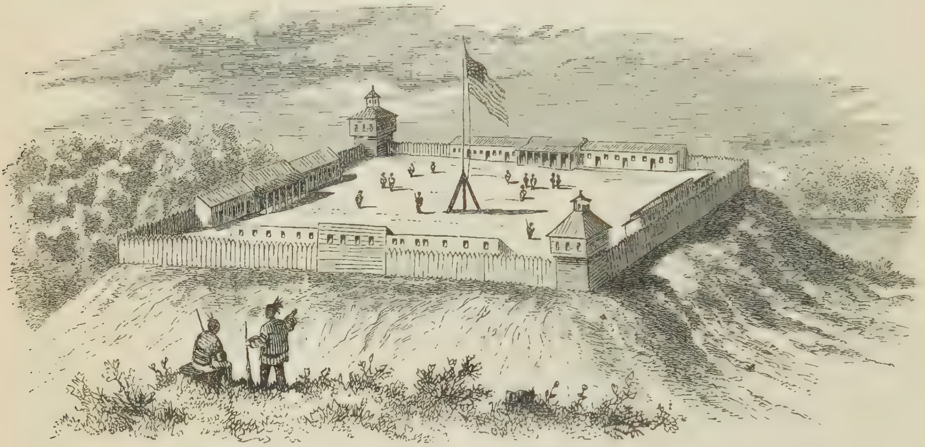
Fort Sumter, First Reinforcement of. When the wife of Major Anderson (a daughter of General D. L. Clinch) heard of the perilous position of her husband in Fort Sumter, surrounded by foes, and uncertain of the fidelity of many of his garrison, she was very anxious that he should have a tried and faithful servant with him. She was then in New York city and an invalid; but she resolved to take an old and tried sergeant, who had served her husband in the war with Mexico, into Fort Sumter. His name was Peter Hart, and she heard that he was somewhere in New York city. After searching for him among all the Harts whose names were in the city directory, she found him connected with the police. At her request he called upon her, accompanied by his wife. After telling him of Major Anderson's peril, she said, "I want you to go with me to Fort Sumter." Hart looked towards his young wife, a warm-hearted Irishwoman, for a moment, and then said, "I will go, madam." "But I want you to *stay* with the major." Hart looked inquiringly towards his Margaret, and replied, "I will go, madam." "But, Margaret," said Mrs. Anderson, "what do *you* say?" "Indade, ma'am, it's Margaret's sorry she can't do as much for you as Pater can," was the good woman's reply. "When will you go, Hart?" asked Mrs. Anderson. "To-night, madam, if you wish." "To-morrow night at six o'clock I will be ready," said Mrs. Anderson. At that hour, in spite of the remonstrances of her physician, the devoted wife left New York, on Thursday evening, June 3, 1861, for Charleston, accompanied by Peter Hart in the character of a servant, ready at all times to do her bidding. None but her physician knew her destination. They travelled without intermission, and arrived at Charleston late on Saturday night. She had neither eaten, drunk, nor slept during the journey, for she was absorbed with the subject of her errand. From Wilmington to Charleston she was the only woman on the train. Therein, and at the hotel in Charleston, she continually heard her husband cursed and threatened. She knew Governor Pickens personally, and the next morning she sought from him a permit for herself and Hart to go to Fort Sumter. He could not allow a man to be added to the garrison. Regarding with scorn the suggestion that the addition of one man to a garrison of seventy or eighty, when thousands of armed men were in Charleston, could imperil the "sovereign State of South Carolina," Mrs. Anderson sent a message to the governor, saying, "I shall take Hart with me, with or without a pass." Her words of scorn and her message were repeated to the governor, and he, seeing the absurdity of his objection, gave a pass for Hart. At ten o'clock on Sunday morning, Jan. 6, accompanied by a few personal friends, Mrs. Anderson and Peter Hart went in a boat to Fort Sumter. As she saw the banner over the fort she exclaimed, "The dear old flag!" and burst into tears. It was the first time emotion had conquered her will since she left New York. As her friends carried her from the boat to the sally-port, her husband ran out, caught her in his arms, and exclaimed, in a vehement whisper, "My glorious wife!" and carried her into the fort. "I have brought you Peter Hart," she said. "The children are well. I return to-night." In her husband's quarters she took some refreshment. The tide served in the course of two hours, and she returned to Charleston. She had *reinforced Fort Sumter* with Peter Hart, a more efficient power at the right hand of Major Anderson at that critical moment than a hundred soldiers would have been, for he was ever vigilant, keen, faithful, judicious, and brave, and was the major's trusted friend on all occasions. On a bed placed in the cars, and accompanied by Major Anderson's brother, the devoted wife started for New York on Sunday evening. She was insensible when she reached Washington. A dear friend carried her into Willard's Hotel. Forty-eight hours afterwards she started for New York, and there she was for a long time threatened with brain fever. This narrative, in more minute detail, is from the lips of Mrs. Anderson.

RUINS OF FORT TICONDEROGA, IN 1848.

Fort Ticonderoga, Capture of (1775). When it became apparent that war was inevitable, the importance of the strong fortresses of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, and their possession, became subjects of earnest consultation among patriots. The subject was talked of in the Connecticut Legislature after the affair at Lexington, and several gentlemen formed the bold design of attempting their capture by surprise. With this view, about forty volunteers set out for Bennington to engage the co-operation of Ethan Allen, a native of Connecticut, and the brave leader of the "Green Mountain Boys" (which see). He readily seconded their views. They had been joined at Pittsfield, in western Massachusetts, by Colonels Easton and Brown, with about forty followers. Allen was chosen the leader after the whole party reached Castleton, at twilight, on the 7th of May (1775). Colonel Easton was chosen to be Allen's lieutenant, and Seth Warner, of the "Green Mountain Boys," was made third in command. At Castleton Colonel Arnold joined the party. He had heard the project spoken of in Connecticut just as he was about to start for Cambridge. He proposed the enterprise to the Massachusetts Committee of Safety, and was commissioned a colonel by the Provincial Congress, and furnished with means and authority to raise not more than four hundred men in western Massachusetts and lead them against the forts. On reaching Stockbridge, he was disappointed in learning that another expedition was on the way. He hastened to join it, and claimed the right to the chief command by virtue of his commission. It was emphatically refused. He acquiesced, but with a bad grace. On the evening of the 9th they were on the shore of Lake Champlain, opposite Ticonderoga, and at dawn the next morning the officers and eighty men were on the beach a few rods from the fortress, sheltered by a bluff. A lad familiar with the fort was their guide. Following him, they ascended stealthily to the sally-port, where a sentinel snapped his musket and retreated into the fort, closely followed by the invaders, who quickly penetrated to the parade. With a tremendous shout the New-Englanders awakened the sleeping garrison, while Allen ascended the outer staircase of the barracks to the chamber of the commander (Captain Delaplace), and beating the door with the handle of his sword, cried out with his loud voice, "I demand an instant surrender!" The captain rushed to the door, followed by his trembling wife. He knew Allen, and recognized him. "Your errand?" demanded the commander. Pointing to his men, Allen said, "I order you to surrender." "By what authority do *you* demand it?" inquired Delaplace. "By the authority of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress!" answered Allen, with emphasis, at the same time flourishing his broadsword over the head of the terrified commander. Delaplace surrendered the fort and its dependencies, and a large quantity of precisely such munitions of war as the colonists needed — one hundred and twenty iron cannons, fifty swivels, two mortars, a howitzer, a cohorn, a large quantity of ammunition and other stores, and a warehouse full of naval munitions, with forty-eight men, women, and children, who were sent to Hartford. Two days afterwards (May 12) Colonel Seth Warner made an easy conquest of Crown Point. So, at the outset, the colonists obtained the control of Lake Champlain, the open door through which to enter Canada.

Fort Washington, Capture of (1776). On the day of the Battle of White Plains (which see), General Knyphausen, with six German regiments, crossed the Harlem River and encamped on the flat below Fort Washington and King's Bridge. That fort was a strong work, supported by outlying redoubts. It was on the highest point of land on Manhattan Island. When Washington heard of the peril that menaced it, he advised General Greene, in whose charge both it and Fort Lee, on the top of the palisades on the west side of the river, opposite, had been left, to withdraw the garrison and stores, but left the matter to that officer's discretion. When he arrived there (Nov. 15, 1776) he was disappointed in not finding his wishes gratified. Greene desired to hold the fort as a protection to the river; the Congress had ordered it to be held till the last extremity, and Colonel Robert Magaw, its commander, said he could hold out against the whole British army until December. Washington was not satisfied of its safety, but yielded his judgment, and returned to Hackensack. There, at sunset, he received a copy of a bold reply which Magaw had made to a summons to surrender sent by Howe, accompanied by a threat to put the garrison to the sword in case of a refusal. Magaw had protested against the savage menace, and refused compliance. Washington went immediately to Fort Lee. Greene had crossed over to the island. Starting across the river in a small boat, Washington met Greene and Putnam returning; and being informed that the garrison were in fine spirits, and could defend themselves, he went back to Fort Lee. Early on the morning of the 16th (November) Howe opened a severe cannonade from the heights on the Westchester shore. Under its cover the attack was made in four columns. Knyphausen, with his Germans, moved up from the flats along the rough hills nearest the Hudson. At the same time Lord Percy led a division of English and German troops to attack the lines on the south. General Mathews, supported by Lord Cornwallis, crossed the Harlem near King's Bridge, with guards, light infantry, and grenadiers; while Colonel Sterling, with Highlanders, crossed at a point a little above the present High Bridge. The outworks of the fort were defended on the north by Colonel Rawlings, with Maryland riflemen and militia from Mercer's Flying Camp, under Colonel Baxter. The lines towards New York were defended by Pennsylvanians, commanded by Colonel Lambert Cadwalader. Magaw commanded in the fort. Rawlings and Baxter occupied redoubts on heavily wooded hills. By a simultaneous attack at all points, the battle was very severe outside of the fort. The British and German assailants pressed hard upon the fort, and both Howe and Knyphausen made a peremptory demand for its surrender. Resistance to pike, ball, and bayonet, wielded by five thousand veterans, was in vain, and Magaw yielded. At half-past one o'clock (Nov. 17, 1776) the British flag waved in triumph over Fort Washington. The Americans lost in killed and wounded not more than one hundred men, while the British lost almost one thousand. The garrison that surrendered, with militia, numbered about two thousand five hundred, of whom more than two thousand were disciplined regulars. Washington, standing on the brow of the palisades at Fort Lee, with Thomas Paine, author of *Common Sense*, saw the surrender. The name of the fortification was changed to Fort Knyphausen. Its garrison soon filled the prisons on land and water at New York. (See *Prisons and Prison-ships.*) Recent discoveries show that the fall of Fort Washington was accomplished through the agency of treason. See Edward F. Delancey's paper on Fort Washington, read before the New York Historical Society in 1878.

Fort Wayne, Attack upon (1812). Forts Wayne and Harrison, the former at the junction of the St. Joseph's and St. Mary's rivers, where they form the Maumee, and the latter on the Wabash, were strongholds of the Americans in the northwest. General Proctor, in command at Fort Malden, resolved to reduce them, with the assistance of Tecumtha, whom Brock had commissioned a brigadier-general. Major Muir, with British regulars and Indians, were to proceed up the Maumee Valley to co-operate with other Indians, and the 1st of September was appointed as the day when they should invest Fort Wayne. The garrison consisted of only seventy men, under Captain James Rhea. The Indians prosecuted raids in other directions to divert attention from Forts Wayne and Harrison, and prevent their being reinforced. A scalping-party fell upon the "Pigeon-roost Settlement" in Scott County, Ind. (Sept. 3, 1812), and during the twilight they killed three men, five women, and sixteen children. Similar atrocities were committed by these savage allies of the British preparatory to the investment of Fort Wayne. For several days the Indians had been seen hovering in the woods around the fort, and on the night of Sept. 5 they attacked the sentinels. The treacherous Miamis, who, since the massacre at Chicago (which see), had resolved to join the British, kept up a zealous pretence of friendship for the Americans, hoping by this to get possession of the fort by surprise. They joined the other Indians in an attack on the fort on the night of the 6th, supposed to have been six hundred strong. They attempted to scale the palisades, but were driven back. Then, under the direction of a half-breed, they formed two logs into the shape of cannons, and demanded the instant surrender of the fort, which would be battered down in case of a refusal. The troops were not frightened. They knew friends were on their way to relieve them. The besiegers kept up assaults until the 12th, when they fled precipitately on the approach of a delivering force that night which saved the fort. The Indians had destroyed the live-stock, crops, and dwellings outside of the fort. The city of Fort Wayne stands near the spot.

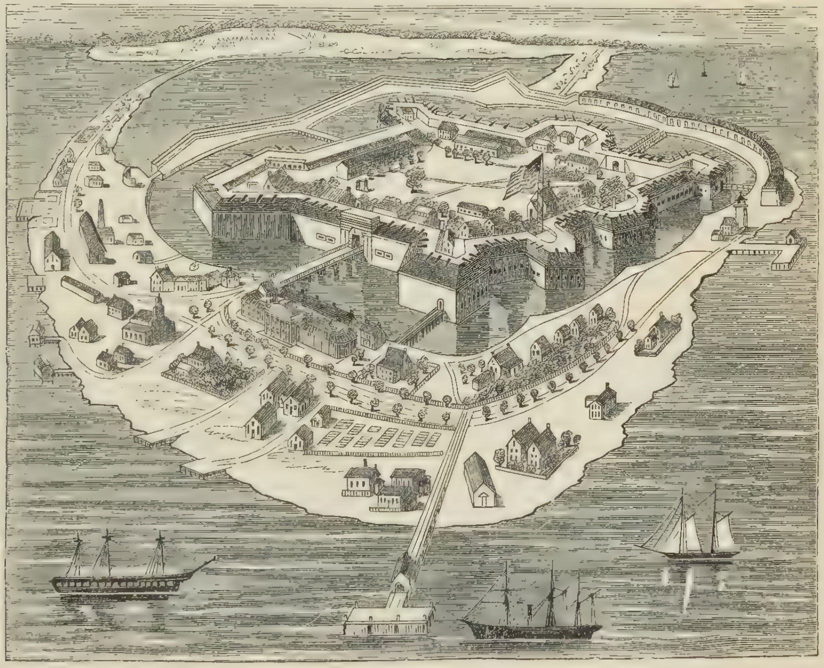

FORT WAYNE IN 1812.

Fort William Henry, SIEGE AND CAPTURE OF (1757). Montcalm left Ticonderoga towards the close of July, 1757, with nearly nine thousand men, of whom about two thousand were Indians, and moved against Fort William Henry, built by Sir William Johnson, at the head of Lake George. It was garrisoned by about three thousand troops, under Colonel Munro, a brave English officer, who felt strong in his position because of the close proximity of four thousand English troops, under General Webb, at Fort Edward, only fifteen miles distant. Webb was Munro's commanding general. When Montcalm demanded (Aug. 1, 1757) the surrender of the post and garrison, the colonel refused, and sent an express to General Webb for aid. For six days Montcalm continued the siege, and daily expresses were sent to Webb asking aid, but none was furnished. One day General Johnson, with a corps of provincials and Putnam's Rangers, had marched a few miles in that direction, when they were recalled, and Webb sent a letter to Munro advising him to surrender. This letter was intercepted, and Montcalm sent it to Munro, with a peremptory demand for his instant surrender. Perceiving further resistance to be useless, for his ammunition was exhausted, he yielded, Montcalm agreeing to an honorable surrender, and a safe escort of the troops to Fort Edward. The Indians were disappointed, for they expected blood and booty. When the English had entered the woods a mile from Fort William Henry, the savages fell upon them, and slew a large number of men, women, and children, before Montcalm could stay the slaughter. The Indians pursued the terrified garrison (plundering them in their flight) to within about cannon-shot of Fort Edward. Then Fort William Henry and all its appendages were destroyed, and it was never rebuilt. Now (1880) the Fort William Henry Hotel stands upon its site. The fall of that fort caused greater alarm in the colonies than the loss of Oswego the year before. Montcalm retired to Canada.

Fortifications, FIRST, ORDERED BY CONGRESS. When the question of taking measures for the defence of the colonies was proposed in Congress, a discussion arose that was long and earnest, for many members yet hoped for reconciliation. On the very day that a British reinforcement at Boston, with Howe, Clinton, and Burgoyne, entered that harbor, Duane, of New York, moved, in the Committee of the Whole, the opening a negotiation, in order to accommodate the unhappy disputes existing between Great Britain and the colonies, and that this be made a part of the petition to the king. But more determined spirits prevailed, and a compromise was reached late in May (25th), when directions were given to the Provincial Congress at New York to preserve the communications between that city and the country by fortifying posts at the upper end of New York Island, near King's Bridge, and on each side of the Hudson River, on the Highlands. They were also directed to establish a fort at Lake George and sustain the position at Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, which the "Green Mountain Boys" (which see) and others had seized a fortnight before. (See *Ticonderoga.*)

Fortifications for Harbors, FIRST AUTHORIZED. A bill for this purpose was reported (March 4, 1794) by a committee of one from each state, while the bill for the construction of a navy was under consideration. The act authorized the President to commence fortifications at Portland, Portsmouth, Gloucester, Salem, Boston, Newport, New London, New York, Philadelphia, Wilmington, Baltimore, Alexandria, Norfolk, Ocracoke Inlet, Cape Fear River, Georgetown, Charleston, Savannah, and St. Mary's. Annapolis was added by a subsequent act. For this purpose only $136,000 were appropriated. The President was authorized to purchase 200 cannons for the armament of the new fortifications, and to provide 150 extra gun-carriages, with 250 tons of cannon-balls, for which purpose $96,000 were appropriated. Another act appropriated $81,000 for the establishment of arsenals and armories in addition to those at Springfield and Carlisle, and $340,000 for the purchase of arms and stores. The exportation of arms was prohibited for one year, and all arms imported during the next two years were to come in free of duty.

Fortress Monroe, in 1861, was the most extensive military work in the United States. Its construction was begun in 1819, and was completed at a cost of $2,500,000. It was named in honor of President Monroe. Its walls, faced with heavy blocks of granite, were thirty-five feet in thickness and casemated below, and were entirely surrounded by a deep moat filled with water. It stands upon a peninsula known as Old Point Comfort, which is connected with the main by a narrow isthmus of sand and by a bridge in the direction of the village of Hampton. There were sixty-five acres of land within its walls, and it was armed with almost four hundred great guns when the war broke out. It had at that time a garrison of only three hundred men, under Colonel Justin Dimick, of the regular army. Its possession was coveted by the insurgents, but Dimick had turned some of its cannons landward. These taught the Confederates, civil and military, prudence, wisdom, and discretion. General B. F. Butler, having been appointed commander of the Department of Virginia (see *Baltimore in Possession of National Troops*), with his headquarters at Fortress Monroe, arrived there on May 22, 1861, and took the chief command, with troops sufficient to insure its safety against any attacks of the insurgents. Butler's first care was to ascertain the practicability of a march upon and seizure of Richmond, then the seat of the Confederate government. Its capture was desired by the National government, but no troops could then be spared from Washington. Fortress Monroe was firmly held by the Nationals during the war. It was an important post, for it was the key to the principal waters of Virginia.



FORTRESS MONROE IN 1861.

Forts Clinton and Montgomery, CAPTURE OF (1777). While Burgoyne was contending with Gates on the upper Hudson, Sir Henry Clinton was attempting to make his way up the river, to join him or to make a diversion in his favor. Among the Hudson Highlands were three forts of considerable strength, but with feeble garrisons — Fort Constitution, opposite West Point, and Forts Clinton and Montgomery, on the west side of the river at the lower entrance to the Highlands, standing on opposite sides of a creek, with high, rocky shores. From Fort Montgomery, on the northern side of the stream, to Anthony's Nose, opposite, the Americans had stretched a boom and chain across the river to prevent the passage of hostile vessels up that stream. Forts Clinton and Montgomery were under the immediate command of Governor George Clinton and his brother, General James Clinton. Tories had informed Sir Henry Clinton of the weakness of the garrisons, and as soon as expected reinforcements from Europe had arrived, he prepared transports to ascend the river. He sailed (Oct. 4, 1777) with more than three thousand troops, in many armed and unarmed vessels, commanded by Commodore Hotham, and landed them at Verplanck's Point, a few miles below Peekskill, then the headquarters of General Putnam, the supreme commander of the Highland posts. He deceived Putnam by a feigned attack on Peekskill, but the more sagacious Governor Clinton believed he designed to attack the Highland forts. Under cover of a dense fog, on the morning of the 6th, Sir Henry re-embarked two thousand troops, crossed the river, and landed them on Stony Point, making a circuitous march around the Dunderberg to fall upon the Highland forts. At the same time, his armed vessels were ordered to anchor within point-blank-shot distance of these forts, to beat off any American vessels that might appear above the boom and chain. Sir Henry divided his forces. One party, led by General Vaughan, and accompanied by the baronet (about two hundred strong), went through a defile west of the Dunderberg, to strike Fort Clinton, while another party (nine hundred strong), led by Colonel Campbell, made a longer march, back of Bear Mountain, to fall on Fort Montgomery at the same time. Vaughan had a severe skirmish with troops sent out from Fort Clinton, on the borders of Lake Sinnipink, near it; at the same time the governor sent a messenger to Putnam for aid. The messenger, instead, deserted to the British. Campbell and his men appeared before Fort Montgomery at five o'clock P.M. and demanded the surrender of both forts. It was refused, when a simultaneous attack by both divisions and by the vessels in the river was made. The garrison (chiefly militia) made a gallant defence until dark, when they were overpowered and sought safety in a scattered retreat to the adjacent mountains. The governor fled across the river, and at midnight was in the camp of Putnam, planning future operations. His brother, badly wounded, made his way over the mountains to his home at New Windsor. Some American vessels lying above the boom, unable to escape, were burned by their crews. By the light of this conflagration the fugitive garrisons found their way through the mountains to settlements beyond.

Forts Jackson and St. Philip, SURRENDER OF. Although Farragut had passed these forts, and the Confederate flotilla had been destroyed, the fortifications were still firmly held by the insurgents. The mortar-fleet under Porter was yet below them. General Butler, who had accompanied the gunboats on their perilous passage (see *Naval Battle on the Mississippi*) on the *Saxon*, had returned to his transports, and in small boats his troops, under the general pilotage of General Godfrey Weitzel, passed through bayous to the rear of Fort St. Philip. When he was prepared to assail it, the garrison was surrendered without resistance (April 28), for they had heard of the destruction of the Confederate flotilla. The commander of Fort Jackson, fearing that all was lost, accepted generous terms of surrender from Commodore Porter. The prisoners taken in the forts and at the quarantine numbered about 1000. The entire loss of the Nationals from the beginning of the contest until New Orleans was taken was 40 killed and 177 wounded.

Forts Jefferson and Taylor. At the Garden Key, one of the Tortugas Islands, off the extremity of the Florida Peninsula, was Fort Jefferson; and at Key West was Fort Taylor. Neither of these forts was quite finished at the beginning of 1861. The Secessionists early contemplated their seizure, but the laborers employed on them by the United States government were chiefly slaves, and their masters wished to reap the fruit of their labor as long as possible. It was believed these forts might be seized at any time by the Floridians. Captain Brannan, with a company of artillery, occupied barracks about half a mile from Fort Taylor. Some of the military and civil officers there were Secessionists, and they determined to oppose Captain Brannan if he should attempt to take possession of that fort. Finally Captain Brannan succeeded by a stratagem in gaining possession. The steamer *Wyandot* lay near the fort, and her guns commanded the bridge that connected it with the island. One Sunday morning, while the inhabitants were at church, Captain Brannan marched his men by a back road, crossed the bridge, and entered the fort. Supplies had already been forwarded by water. Both forts were strengthened and were lost to the Confederates.

Forts Morgan and Gaines Seized. On the night of Jan. 3, 1861, Colonel J. B. Todd, under orders of Governor Moore, embarked on a steamboat, with four companies of insurgent volunteers, for Fort Morgan, at the entrance to Mobile harbor, about thirty miles below the city. They reached the fort at about three o'clock in the morning. The garrison seems to have been disloyal, for they made no resistance, and cheered the flag of Alabama when it was put in the place of the banner of the United States. At five o'clock the fort was in the hands of the insurgents. One of the captors wrote: "We found here about five thousand shot and shell; and we are ready to receive any distinguished strangers the government may see fit to send on a visit to us." Fort Gaines, on Dauphin Island, opposite Fort Morgan, shared the fate of the latter. That morning (Jan. 4, 1861) the United States revenue cutter *Lewis Cass* was surrendered to the collector of the port of Mobile.

Foster, JOHN G., was born in New Hampshire in 1823; died at Nashua, N. H., Sept. 2, 1874. He graduated at West Point in 1846, entering the engineer corps. He served in the war with Mexico and was breveted captain for meritorious services. For two years (1855–57) he was professor of engineering at West Point; made captain in the United States Army in July, 1860; major in March, 1863, and lieutenant-colonel in 1867. Captain Foster was one of the garrison of Fort Sumter during the siege, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers in October, 1861. He took a leading part in the capture of Roanoke Island, early in 1862, and of New Berne, N. C., of which he was made governor in July. He was promoted to major-general of volunteers, and became commander of the Department of North Carolina, and defended that region with skill. In July, 1863, he was made commander of the Department of Virginia and North Carolina, with his headquarters at Fortress Monroe. He was afterwards in command of the Department of Ohio, of which he was relieved on account of wounds in January, 1864. He afterwards commanded the departments of South Carolina and Florida. He was breveted major-general of the United States Army for services during the Civil War.

Fouchet, JEAN ANTOINE JOSEPH, Baron, was born at St. Quentin, France, in 1763. He was a law student at Paris when the Revolution broke out, and published a pamphlet in defence of its principles. Soon afterwards he was appointed a member of the executive council of the revolutionary government, and was French ambassador to the United States in 1794–95. Here his behavior was less offensive than that of "citizen" Genet, but it was not satisfactory, and he was succeeded by Adet, a more prudent man. After he left the United States, the French Directory appointed him a commissioner to St. Domingo, which he declined. Under Bonaparte he was prefect of Var, and in 1805 he was the same of Ain. Afterwards he was created a baron and made commander of the Legion of Honor. He remained in Italy until the French evacuated it in 1814. On Napoleon's return from Elba Fouchet was made prefect of the Gironde. The date of his death is not known.

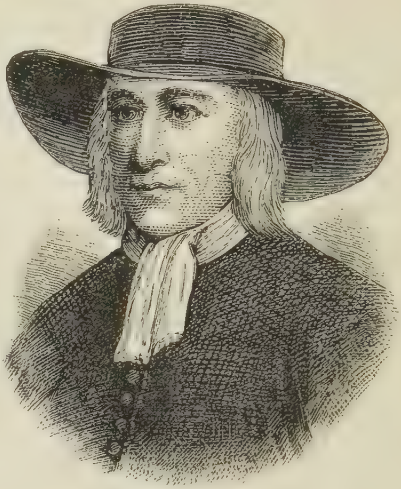
Four New Provinces in North America. After the Treaty of Paris, the King of England, with the advice and consent of the Privy Council (which see), granted letters patent, under the great seal, to erect four distinct and separate governments, styled Quebec, East Florida, West Florida, and Grenada. The government of Quebec was bounded on the Labrador coast by the River St. John; thence by a line drawn from the head of that river to the south end of Lake Nepissing, where the line, crossing the River St. Lawrence and Lake Champlain, in 45° north latitude, passes along the highlands which divide the streams that empty, respectively, into the St. Lawrence and the sea; along the coast of the Bay de Chaleurs and the coast of the Gulf of St. Lawrence to Cape Rosiers, and thence crossing the mouth of the St. Lawrence, at the west end of Anticosti Island, to the place of beginning at the River St. John. East Florida was bounded on the west by the Gulf of Mexico and the Appalachicola River; on the north by a line drawn from that part of the Appalachicola where the Chattahoochee and Flint rivers meet, to the south of the St. Mary's River, and by the course of that stream to the Atlantic Ocean; and eastward and southward by the Gulf of Florida, including all islands within six leagues of the sea-coast. West Florida was bounded on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, including all islands within six leagues of the coast, from the Appalachicola to Lake Pontchartrain; westward, by that lake, the Lake Maurepas, and the Mississippi River; northward, by a line drawn due east of that part of the Mississippi which lies in 31° north latitude, to the Appalachicola, and to the eastward by that river. The government of Grenada was declared to "comprehend the island of that name, together with the Grenadines, and the islands of Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago." At the same time the whole coast from the River St. John to Hudson's Strait, together with the islands of Anticosti and Madelaine, and all other smaller islands upon that coast, were put under the care of the governor of Newfoundland. The islands of St. John and Cape Breton, with lesser islands adjacent, were annexed to Nova Scotia; and all the lands between the rivers Altamaha and St. Mary were annexed to Georgia. Power was given to all these new colonies to call assemblies, and exercise political functions, similar to those of other English-American colonies.

Fourteenth Amendment of the Constitution. On June 13, 1866, the following Amendment to the National Constitution was adopted by Congress, by joint resolution: "ARTICLE XIV., *Section* 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the state wherein they reside. No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws. *Section* 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several states according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each state, excluding Indians not taxed; but when the right to vote at any election for the choice of Electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a state, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such state (being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States), or in any way abridged except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such state. *Section* 3. No person shall be a Senator or Representative in Congress, or Elector, or President, or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any state, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any state, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid and comfort to the enemies thereof; but Congress may, by a vote of two-thirds of each House, remove such disability. *Section* 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pensions and bounties, for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned; but neither the United States nor any state shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave. But all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void. *Section* 5. Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article." On July 20, 1868, the Secretary of State proclaimed that the requisite number of states had ratified this Amendment.

Fourth of July, FIRST ANNIVERSARY OF INDEPENDENCE ON THE. The first anniversary of the Declaration of Independence was celebrated in Philadelphia, by the members of Congress and patriotic citizens, in 1777. The bells of the city rang out joyfully nearly all day and all the evening. On the Delaware vessels displayed the just-adopted flag of the inchoate nation; and at three o'clock there was a dinner at the city tavern, at which were the members of Congress and officers of the civil government of Pennsylvania. Patriotic toasts were uttered, and the band of the Hessians captured at Trenton gave stirring music for the occasion. There were military parades during the day, and at night the city was made glorious by fireworks and a general illumination. The day was celebrated in Boston, Annapolis, Charleston, and smaller towns. Three months afterwards Philadelphia was in possession of the British troops.

Fowle, DANIEL, was born at Charlestown, Mass., in 1715; died at Portsmouth, N. H., in June, 1787. He learned the art of printing, and began business in Boston in 1740, where, from 1748 to 1750, he was joint partner with Gamaliel Rogers in publishing the *Independent Advertiser*. They had published the *American Magazine* from 1743 to 1746, and were the first in America to print the New Testament. (See *First Bible printed in America*.) Mr. Fowle settled in Portsmouth, N. H.; and there, in October, 1756, began the publication of the *New Hampshire Gazette*.

Fox, GEORGE, founder of the Society of Friends, or Quakers, was born at Drayton, Leicestershire, England, in July, 1624; died in London, Jan. 13, 1691. His father, a Presbyterian, was too poor to give his son an education beyond reading and writing. The son, who was grave and contemplative in temperament, was apprenticed to a shoemaker, and made the Scriptures his constant study. The doctrines he afterwards taught were gradually fashioned in his mind (see *Quakers*), and believing himself to be called to disseminate them, he abandoned his trade at the age of nineteen, and began his spiritual work, leading a wandering life for some years, living in the woods, and practising rigid self-denial. He first appeared as a preacher at Manchester, in 1648, and he was imprisoned as a disturber of the peace. Then he travelled over England, meeting the same fate everywhere, but gaining many followers. He warmly advocated all the Christian virtues, simplicity in worship, and in manner of living. Brought before a justice at Derby, in 1650, he told the magistrate to "quake before the Lord," and thereafter he and his sect were called Quakers. Taken before Cromwell, in London, that ruler not only released him, but declared his doctrines were salutary, and he afterwards protected him from persecution; but after the Restoration he and his followers were dreadfully persecuted by the Stuarts. He married the widow of a Welsh judge in 1669, and in 1672 he came to America, and preached in Maryland, Long Island, and New Jersey, visiting Friends wherever they were seated. Fox afterwards visited Holland and parts of Germany. His writings upon the subject of his peculiar doctrine—that the "light of Christ within is given by God as a gift of salvation"—occupied, when first published, three folio volumes.



GEORGE FOX.

Fox, GEORGE, IN NEW ENGLAND. The founder of the sect called Friends, or Quakers, visited New England in 1672, but being more discreet than others of his sect, he went only to Rhode Island, avoiding Connecticut and Massachusetts. Roger Williams, who denied the pretensions to spiritual enlightenment, challenged Fox to a disputation. Before the challenge was received, Fox had departed, but three of his disciples at Newport accepted it. Williams went there in an open boat, thirty miles from Providence, and, though over seventy years of age, rowed the vessel himself. There was a three days' disputation, which at times was a tumultuous quarrel. Williams published an account of it, with the title of *George Fox digged out of his Burrowes;* to which Fox replied in a pamphlet entitled, *A New England Firebrand Quenched.* Neither was sparing in sharp epithets.

France, GOOD NEWS FROM. In the winter of 1780 Lafayette was in France, urging the government to send ample and speedy aid to the struggling Americans. He had been received in Paris, on his return from the United States, with intense enthusiasm, for his fame as a soldier was universally known. His personal magnetism was wonderful, and his influence at court marvellous. By persevering efforts, he obtained a promise of not only a supply of arms and clothing, but also that a French land and naval force should be sent speedily to the assistance of the Americans. Old Count Maurepas, who was at the head of the French ministry, said, "It is fortunate for the king that Lafayette did not take it into his head to strip Versailles of its furniture to send to his dear America, as his majesty would have been unable to refuse it." The good tidings of French aid was brought to America on his return (April, 1780). Supplies for the army were then urgently needed, for there was almost a famine in the American camp.

France, RELATIONS WITH. The French government was pleased when the breach between Great Britain and her colonies began, and sought to widen it. England had stripped France of her possessions in America, and France sought to dismember the British empire, and cause it a greater loss, by the achievement of the independence of the colonies. Arthur Lee, of Virginia, being in London soon after the breaking-out of hostilities, made such representations to the French ambassador there that the Count de Vergennes, the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, sent Caron de Beaumarchais, a well-known political intriguer and courtier (see *Beaumarchais*), to concert measures with Lee for sending to the Americans arms and military stores to the amount of $200,000. An open breach with the English was not then desirable, and the French minister, to cover up the transaction, gave it a mercantile feature, by having Beaumachais transmit the supplies under the fictitious firm-name of Rodrique Hortales & Co. Before the matter was completed, Silas Deane, sent by the Committee of Secret Correspondence (which see), arrived in Paris (May, 1776), in the disguise of a private merchant. He was received kindly by Vergennes, and introduced to Beaumarchais. It was agreed that Hortales & Co. should send the supplies by way of the West Indies, and that Congress should pay for them in tobacco and other American products. When the arrangement was completed, Beaumarchais despatched vessels from time to time, with valuable cargoes, including two hundred cannons and mortars, and a supply of small-arms from the French arsenals; also four thousand tents, and clothing for thirty thousand men. Deane was suspected of some secret connection with the French government, and was closely watched by British agents; and the French court would trust none of its secrets to the Congress, for its most private deliberations (the sessions were always private) leaked out, and became known to the British ministry. The business was done by the Secret Committee. Soon after the declaration of independence, a plan of treaties with foreign nations had been reported by a committee and accepted by Congress, and Franklin, Deane, and Jefferson were appointed (Sept. 28, 1776) commissioners to the court of France. Jefferson declined the appointment, and Arthur Lee was substituted. They were directed to live in a style "to support the dignity of their public character" (see *Diplomacy of the Revolution*), and provision was made for their maintenance. Franklin arrived at Paris, and was joined by Deane and Lee in December. The commissioners were courteously received by Vergennes, privately, but without any recognition of their diplomatic character. France was secretly strengthening her navy, and preparing for the inevitable war which her aid to the revolted colonies would produce. The commissioners received from the French government a quarterly allowance of $400,000, to be repaid by the Congress, with which they purchased arms and supplies for troops, and fitted out armed vessels—a business chiefly performed by Deane, who had been a merchant, and managed the transactions with Beaumarchais. Out of these transactions grew much embarrassment, chiefly on account of the misrepresentations of Arthur Lee, which led Congress to believe that the supplies forwarded by Beaumarchais were gratuities of the French monarch. This belief prevailed until the close of 1778, when Franklin, on inquiry of Vergennes about the matter, was informed that the king had furnished nothing; he simply permitted Beaumarchais to be provided with articles from the arsenals upon condition of replacing them. The matter becoming a public question, the startled Congress, unwilling to compromise the French court, declared (January, 1779) that they "had never received any species of military stores as a present from the court of France." Then Beaumarchais claimed payment from the Congress for every article he had forwarded. This claim caused a lawsuit that lasted about fifty years. It was settled in 1835, by the payment by the United States government to the heirs of Beaumarchais of over $200,000.

Francis, JOHN WAKEFIELD, M.D., LL.D., a physician and biographer, was born in New York city, Nov. 17, 1789; died there, Feb. 8, 1861. He graduated at Columbia College in 1811. He began business life as a printer, but commenced the study of medicine, in 1808, under Dr. Hosack, and was his partner until 1820. From 1810 until 1814 they published the *American Medical and Philosophical Register.* He occupied the chair of

Materia Medica in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and, visiting Europe, was a pupil of the celebrated Abernethy. After filling various professorships until 1826, he devoted himself to the practice of his profession and to literary pursuits. Dr. Francis was probably the author of more biographies and memoirs than any American of his time, and was active, as one of the founders, in the promotion of the objects of the New York Historical Society and of other institutions. He was the first president of the New York Academy of Medicine, and was a member of numerous scientific and literary societies.

Franking Privilege, THE, was a privilege of sending and receiving letters post free given to members of the British Parliament and of the Congress of the United States, and to certain public functionaries. This privilege was abused, and it was abolished in Great Britain in 1840. It was abolished in the United States in 1873. The mails were thus greatly relieved of a dead weight, and money was saved to the government amounting to at least $2,250,000 annually.

Frankland. In 1784, North Carolina ceded her western lands to the United States. The people of East Tennessee, piqued at being thus disposed of, and feeling the burdens of state taxation, alleging that no provision was made for their defence or the administration of justice, assembled in convention at Jonesborough, to take measures for organizing a new and independent state. The North Carolina Assembly, willing to compromise, repealed the act of cession the same year, made the Tennessee counties a separate military district, with John Sevier brigadier-general, and also a separate judicial district, with proper officers. But ambitious men urged the people forward, and at a second convention, at the same place (Dec. 14, 1784), they resolved to form an independent state, under the name of Frankland. A provisional government was formed; Sevier was chosen governor (March, 1785); the machinery of an independent state was put in motion, and the governor of North Carolina (Martin) was informed that the counties of Sullivan, Washington, and Greene were no longer a part of the State of North Carolina. Martin issued a proclamation, exhorting all engaged in the movement to return to their duty; and the Assembly passed an act of oblivion as to all who should submit. But the provisional constitution of Frankland, based upon that of North Carolina, was adopted (November, 1785) as a permanent one, and the new state entered upon an independent career. Very soon rivalries and jealousies appeared. Parties arose, and divided the people, and at length a third party, favoring adherence to North Carolina, led by Colonel Tipton, showed much and increasing strength. The new state sent William Cocke as a delegate to the Congress, but he was not received, while the North Carolina party sent a delegate to the Legislature of that state. Party spirit ran high. Frankland had two sets of officers, and civil war was threatened. Collisions became frequent. The inhabitants of southwestern Virginia sympathized with the revolutionists, and were inclined to secede from their own state. Finally an armed collision between men under Tipton and Sevier took place. The latter were defeated, and finally arrested, and taken to prison in irons. Frankland had received its deathblow. The Assembly of North Carolina passed an act of oblivion, and offered pardon for all offenders in Frankland in 1788, and the trouble ceased. Virginia, alarmed by the movement, hastened to pass a law subjecting to the penalties of treason any person who should attempt to erect a new state in any part of her territory without previous permission obtained of her Assembly.

Franklin and Governor Shirley. At the beginning of the French and Indian War (1754) the colonists, as well as the royal governors, saw the necessity of a colonial union in order to present a solid front of British subjects to the French. Dr. Franklin labored earnestly to this end, and in 1755 he went to Boston to confer with Governor Shirley on the subject. At the governor's house they discussed the subject long and earnestly. Shirley was favorable to union, but he desired it to be effected by the fiat of the British government and by the spontaneous act of the colonists. Franklin, on the contrary, animated by a love of popular liberty, would not consent to that method of forming a colonial union. He knew the true source of power was lodged with the people, and that a good government should be formed by the people for the people; and he left Shirley in disappointment. Shirley not only condemned the idea of a popular colonial government, but assured Franklin that he should immediately propose a plan of union to the ministry and Parliament, and also a tax on the colonies.

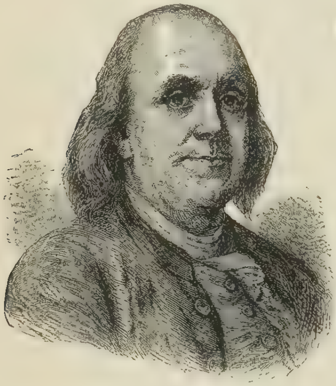
Franklin and the Chess-player. Franklin, in England in 1774, was a perfect enigma to the British ministry. They were perplexed with doubts of the intentions of the defiant colonists. They believed Franklin possessed the coveted secret, and tried in vain to draw it from him. He was an expert chess-player, and well known as such. Lord Howe (afterwards admiral on our coast) was intimate with leading ministers. His sister-in-law, Mrs. Howe, was also an expert chess-player and an adroit diplomatist. She sent Franklin an invitation to her house to play chess, with the hope that in the freedom of social conversation she might obtain the secret. He went; was charmed with the lady's mind and manners; played a few games; and accepted an invitation to repeat the visit and the amusement. On his second visit, after playing a short time, they entered into conversation, when Mrs. Howe put questions adroitly to the sage, calculated to elicit the information she desired. He answered without reserve and with apparent frankness. He was introduced to her brother, Lord Howe, and talked freely with him on the subject of the great dispute; but, having early perceived the designs of the diplomatists, his usual caution had never allowed him to betray a single secret worth preserving. At the end of several interviews, enlivened by chess-playing, his questioners were no wiser than at the beginning.

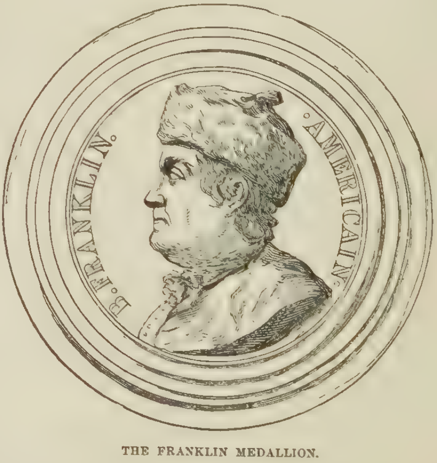
Franklin, BATTLE OF (1864). General Thomas had sent General Schofield southward to confront Hood's invasion of Tennessee (which see), and he took post south of Duck River, hoping to fight the invaders there. But two divisions under A. J. Smith, coming from Missouri, had not arrived, and Schofield fell back, first to Columbia, and then to Franklin, not far below Nashville, General Stanley saving his train from seizure by Forrest after a sharp fight with the guerilla chief. At Franklin, Schofield disposed his troops in a curved line south and west of the town, his flanks resting on the Harpeth River. He cast up a line of light intrenchments along his entire front. His cavalry, with Wood's division, were posted on the north bank of the river, and Fort Granger, on a bluff, commanded the gently rolling plain over which Hood must advance in a direct attack. Schofield had about 18,000 men. At four o'clock on the afternoon of Nov. 30, 1864, Hood advanced to the attack with all his force. A greater part of his cavalry, under Forrest, was on his right, and the remainder were on his left. The Confederates fell fiercely upon Schofield's centre, composed of the divisions of Ruger and Cox, about 10,000 strong. Their sudden appearance was almost a surprise. Schofield was at Fort Granger, and the battle, on the part of the Nationals, was conducted by General Stanley. By a furious charge Hood hurled back the Union advance in utter confusion upon the main line, when that, too, began to crumble. A strong position on a hill was carried by the Confederates, where they seized eight guns. They forced their way within the second line and planted a Confederate flag upon the intrenchments. All now seemed lost to the Nationals, who, as their antagonists were preparing to follow up their victory, seemed about to break and fly, when Stanley rode forward and ordered Opdyke to advance with his brigade. Swiftly they charged the Confederate columns and drove them back. Conrad, close by, gave assistance. The works and the guns were recovered; 300 prisoners and ten battle-flags were captured; and the Union line was restored, and not again broken, though Hood hurled strong bodies of men against it. The struggle continued until long after dark; it was almost midnight when the last shot was fired. The advantage lay with the Nationals. The result was disastrous to Hood. His men were dispirited, and he lost 6253 soldiers, of whom 1750 were killed and 702 made prisoners. Schofield's loss was 2326, of whom 180 were killed and 1104 missing. The Nationals withdrew from Franklin a little after midnight, and fell back to Nashville.

Franklin before the House of Commons. In February, 1766, Dr. Franklin was examined before the House of Commons relative to the Stamp Act (which see). At that examination he fairly illustrated the spirit which animated the colonies. When asked, "Do you think the people of America would submit to the stamp duty if it was moderated?" he answered, "No, never, unless compelled by force of arms." To the question, "What was the temper of America towards Great Britain before the year 1763?" he replied, "The best in the world. They submitted willingly to the government of the crown, and paid, in their courts, obedience to the acts of Parliament. Numerous as the people are in the old provinces, they cost you nothing, in forts, citadels, garrisons, or armies, to keep them in subjection. They were governed by this country at the expense only of a little pen, ink, and paper; they were led by a thread. They had not only a respect but an affection for Great Britain—for its laws, its customs, and manners, and even a fondness for its fashions that greatly increased the commerce. Natives of Britain were always treated with peculiar regard. To be an 'Old England man' was of itself a character of some respect, and gave a kind of rank among us." It was asked, "What is their temper now?" and Franklin replied, "Oh, very much altered." He declared that all laws of Parliament had been held valid by the Americans, excepting such as laid internal taxes; and that its authority was never disputed in levying duties to regulate commerce. When asked, "Can you name any act of assembly or public act of your governments that made such distinction?" Franklin replied, "I do not know that there was any; I think there never was occasion to make such an act till now that you have attempted to tax us; *that* has occasioned acts of assembly declaring the distinction, on which, I think, every assembly on the continent, and every member of every assembly, have been unanimous." This examination was one of the causes which led to a speedy repeal of the Stamp Act.

Franklin before the Privy Council. The exposure of the letters of Hutchinson and his political friends (see *Hutchinson's Letters*) created great excitement in England. Franklin, to protect innocent parties from being suspected of revealing them, frankly took upon himself the whole responsibility of the act of sending them to America. A petition for the recall of Hutchinson followed. It was sent to Franklin to present to the king. His request to do so was not granted, but it reached the monarch through Lord Dartmouth. The king laid it before the Privy Council. There was then hot indignation against Franklin in court circles. He was summoned before the council (Jan. 8, 1774) to consider the petition. He appeared with counsel. A crowd was present—not less than thirty-five peers. Wedderburn, the Solicitor-general (of whom the king said, at his death, "He has not left a greater knave behind him in my kingdom"), abused Franklin most shamefully with unjust and coarse invectives, while not an emotion was manifested in the face of the abused statesman. The ill-bred lords of that day seconded Wedderburn's abuse by derisive laughter, instead of treating Franklin with decency. At the end of the solicitor's ribald speech the petition was dismissed as "groundless, scandalous, and vexatious." "I have never been so sensible of the power of a good conscience," Franklin said to Dr. Priestley, with whom he breakfasted the next morning. When he went home from the council he laid aside the suit of clothes he wore, making a vow that he would never put them on again until he should sign the degradation of England by a dismemberment of the British empire and the independence of America. He kept his word, and, as commissioner for negotiating peace almost ten years afterwards, he performed the act that permitted him to wear the garments again.

Franklin, BENJAMIN, LL.D., was born in Boston, Jan. 17, 1706; died in Philadelphia, April 17, 1790. His father was from England; his mother was a daughter of Peter Folger, the Quaker poet of Nantucket. He learned the art of printing with his brother; but they disagreeing, Benjamin left Boston when seventeen years of age, sought employment in New York, but, not succeeding, went to Philadelphia and there found it. He soon attracted the attention of Governor Keith as a very bright lad, who, making him a promise of the government printing, induced young Franklin, at the age of eighteen, to go to England to purchase printing material. He was deceived, and remained there eighteen months, working as a journeyman printer in London. He returned to Philadelphia late in 1726, and in 1729 established himself there as a printer. He started the *Pennsylvania Gazette*, and married Deborah Read, a young woman whose husband had absconded. For many years he published an Almanac under the assumed name of Richard Saunders. It became widely known as "Poor Richard's Almanac," as it contained many wise and useful maxims, mostly from the ancients. Franklin was soon marked as a wise, prudent, and sagacious man, full of well-directed public spirit. He was the chief founder of the Philadelphia Library in 1731. He became clerk of the Provincial Assembly in 1736, and postmaster of Philadelphia the next year. He was the founder of the University of Pennsylvania (which see) and the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia in 1744, and was elected a member of the Provincial Assembly in 1750. In 1753 Franklin was appointed deputy postmaster for the English-American colonies; and in 1754 he was a delegate to the Colonial Congress of Albany (which see), in which he prepared a plan of union for the colonies, which was the basis of the Articles of Confederation (which see) adopted by Congress more than twenty years afterwards. Franklin had begun his investigations and experiments in electricity, by which he demonstrated its identity with lightning, so early as 1746. The publication of his account of these experiments procured for him membership in the Royal Society, the Copley gold medal, and the degree of LL.D. from Oxford and Edinburgh in 1762. Harvard and Yale colleges had previously conferred upon him the degree of Master of Arts. Franklin was for many years a member of the Assembly and advocate of the rights of the people in opposition to the claims of the proprietaries; and in 1764 he was sent to England as agent of the popular legislature, in which capacity he afterwards acted for several other colonies. His representation to the British ministry, in 1765–66, of the temper of the Americans on the subject of taxation by Parliament did much in effecting the repeal of the Stamp Act. He tried to avert the calamity of a rupture between Great Britain and her colonies; but, failing in this, he returned to America in 1775, after which he was constantly employed at home and abroad in the service of his countrymen struggling for political independence. In Congress, he advocated, helped to prepare, and signed the Declaration of Independence; and in the fall of 1776 he was sent as ambassador to France, as the colleague of Silas Deane and Arthur Lee. To him was chiefly due the successful negotiation of the treaty of alliance with France (which see); and he continued to represent his country in that kingdom until 1785, when he returned home. While Dr. Franklin was in France, and residing at Passy in 1777, a medallion likeness of him was made in the red clay of that region. The engraving of it here given is about half the size of the original. He took an important part in the negotiation of the treaties of peace.


BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

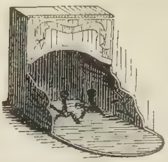


THE FRANKLIN MEDALLION.

In 1786 he was elected governor of Pennsylvania, and served one term; and he was a leading member in the convention, in 1787, that framed the National Constitution. His last public act was the signing of a memorial to Congress on the subject of slavery by the Abolition Society of Pennsylvania, of which he was the founder and president. Dr. Franklin performed extraordinary labors of usefulness for his fellow-men. In addition to scientific and literary institutions, he was the founder of the first fire-company in Philadelphia in 1738; organized a volunteer military association for the defence of the province in 1744; and was colonel of a regiment, and built forts for the defence of the frontiers in 1755. He was the inventor of the Franklin fireplace, which, in modified forms, is still in use. He was also the inventor of the lightning-rod. Franklin left two children—a son and a daughter.

Franklin sent to the French Court. Late in the autumn of 1776 Dr. Franklin was sent as a diplomatic agent to France in the ship *Reprisal*. The passage occupied thirty days, during which that vessel had been chased by British cruisers and had taken two British brigantines as prizes. He landed at Nantes on Dec. 7. Europe was surprised, for no notice had been given of his coming. His fame was world-wide. The courts were filled with conjectures. The story was spread in England that he was a fugitive for safety. Burke said, "I never will believe that he is going to conclude a long life, which has brightened every hour it has continued, with so foul and dishonorable a flight." On the Continent it was rightly concluded that he was on an important mission. To the French people he spoke frankly, saying that twenty successful campaigns could not subdue the Americans; that their decision for independence was irrevocable; and that they would be forever independent states. On the morning of Dec. 28 Franklin, with the other commissioners (Silas Deane and Arthur Lee), waited upon Vergennes, the French Minister for Foreign Affairs, when he presented the plan of Congress for a treaty. (See *Treaty with France proposed.*) Vergennes spoke of the attachment of the French nation to the American cause; requested a paper from Franklin on the condition of America; and that, in future, intercourse with the sage might be in secret, without the intervention of a third person. Personal friendship between these two distinguished men became strong and abiding. He told Franklin that as Spain and France were in perfect accord, he might communicate freely with the Spanish minister, the Count de Aranda. With him the commissioners held secret but barren interviews, for Spain was indifferent. Aranda would only promise the freedom of Spanish ports to American vessels. (See *France, Relations with.*)

Franklin Stove, The. The manufacture of apparatus for heating and cooking is an important item in our industrial operations. The first iron fireplace for heating rooms was invented by Dr. Benjamin Franklin about the year 1740, and is known as the "Franklin Stove" to this day. It is an open fireplace constructed of iron, and portable, so that it may be used in any room with a chimney. It was made for the purpose of better warming and for saving fuel. He refused the offer of a patent for it by the governor of Pennsylvania, as he held that, as we profit by the inventions of others, so we should freely give what we may for the comfort of our fellow-men. He gave his models to Robert Grace, one of his early friends in London, who had an iron-foundery, and he made much money by casting these stoves. They were in general use in all the rural districts of the country until about fifty years ago, when anthracite coal began to take the place of wood as fuel and required a different kind of stove.



THE FRANKLIN STOVE.

Franklin, William, only son of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, was the last royal governor of New Jersey. He was born in Philadelphia in 1729, an illegitimate son; died in England, Nov. 17, 1813. It is not known who his mother was. About a year after his birth Franklin was married, took this child into his own house, and brought him up as his son. He held a captain's commission in the French War (1744–48). From 1754 to 1756 he was controller of the Colonial Post-office, and clerk to the Provincial Assembly. He went to London with his father in 1757, and was admitted to the bar in 1758. In 1762 he was appointed governor of the Province of New Jersey, remaining loyal to the crown when the Revolution broke out, and in January, 1776, a guard was put over him at his residence at Perth Amboy. He gave his parole that he would not leave the province. In June (1776) he called a meeting of the Legislature of New Jersey, for which offence—defiance of public opinion—he was arrested and sent to Connecticut, where for more than two years he was strictly guarded, when, in November, 1778, he was exchanged. He remained in New York, and was active as President of the Board of Associated Loyalists (which see) until 1782, when he sailed for England, where he was allowed by the government $9000 and a pension of $4000 a year. His father willed him lands in Nova Scotia and forgave him all his debts, nothing more. In his will, Dr. Franklin observed concerning this son, from whom he was estranged: "The part he acted against me in the late war, which is of public notoriety, will account for my leaving him no more of an estate he endeavored to deprive me of."

Franklin, William Buel, was born at York, Penn., Feb. 27, 1823, and graduated at West Point in 1843. In the engineer service, he was actively engaged when the war with Mexico broke out. He served on the staff of General Taylor at the battle of Buena Vista (which see), and was breveted first lieutenant. Serving as professor of natural and experimental philosophy at West Point for four years, he occupied the same chair, and that of civil engineering, in the New York City Free Academy in 1852. In May, 1861, he was appointed colonel of a new regiment, and in July was assigned the command of a brigade in Heintzelman's division. He was in the hottest of the fight at Bull's Run; made a brigadier of volunteers in September, and appointed to the command of a division of the Army of the Potomac. Franklin did excellent service in the campaign of the Virginia Peninsula, and on July 4, 1862, was promoted to major-general. He served under McClellan in Maryland, and under Burnside at Fredericksburg, and in 1863 was assigned to the Department of the Gulf, under Banks. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general of the United States Army, and resigning in March, 1866, engaged in the vocations of civil life.

WILLIAM BUEL FRANKLIN.

Franklin's Courage and Magnanimity. A Duel. Late in 1773 Dr. Franklin presented to Lord Dartmouth, to be laid before the king, a petition from Massachusetts for the removal of Governor Hutchinson and Chief-justice Oliver from office. They were charged with conspiracy against the colony, as appeared by certain letters which had been published. (See *Hutchinson's Letters.*) A rumor found utterance in the newspapers that the letters had been dishonestly obtained through John Temple, who had been permitted to examine the papers of the deceased Mr. Whately, to whom the letters were addressed. That permission had been given by William Whately, brother and executor of the deceased. Whately never made a suggestion that Temple had taken the letters away, but he published such an evasive card that it seemed not to relieve Temple from the implication. The latter challenged Whately to mortal combat. They fought, but were unhurt. Another duel was likely to ensue, when Dr. Franklin, to prevent bloodshed, publicly said: "I alone am the person who obtained and transmitted to Boston the letters in question." This frank and courageous avowal drew upon him the wrath of the ministry. (See *Franklin and the Privy Council.*)

Franklin's First Mission to England. The Pennsylvania Assembly, yielding to the urgency of public affairs in the midst of war, voted a levy of $500,000 without insisting upon their claim to tax the proprietary estates. They protested that they did it through compulsion; and they sent Franklin to England (1752) as their agent to urge their complaint against the proprietaries.

Franklin's Frankness. Mr. Strahan, of London, had been a sort of go-between through whom Dr. Franklin had communicated with Lord North. On July 5, 1776, Franklin wrote to him: "You are a member of Parliament, and one of that majority which has doomed my country to destruction. You have begun to burn our towns and murder our people. Look upon your hands; they are stained with the blood of your relations! You and I were long friends; you are now my enemy, and I am yours.—B. Franklin."

Franklin's Hints. While the Continental Congress was in session in the fall of 1774, much anxiety was felt in political circles in England concerning the result, and the real intention of the Americans. The ministry, in particular, were anxious to know. (See *Franklin and the Chess-player.*) It was believed that Franklin was a depositary of the important secret, and he was solicited by persons high in authority to promulgate the extent of the demands of his countrymen. So urgent were these requests, that, without waiting to receive a record of the proceedings of the Congress, he prepared a paper entitled *Hints for Conversation upon the Subject of Terms that may probably produce a durable Union between Britain and the Colonies,* in seventeen propositions. The substance of the whole was, that the colonies should be reinstated in the position which they held in relation to the imperial government before the obnoxious acts then complained of became laws, by a repeal, and by a destruction of the whole brood of enactments in reference to America hatched since the accession of George III. In a word, he proposed that English subjects in America should enjoy all the essential rights and privileges claimed as the birthright of subjects in England. Nothing came of the "Hints."

Franklin's Motion for Prayers. In the convention that framed the National Constitution very slow progress towards anything definite was made for some time. There were such diversities of opinion that it seemed, after being several days in session, the convention must, of necessity, dissolve without accomplishing anything. Some proposed a final adjournment, and a part of the New York delegation, disgusted, withdrew and went home. At this momentous crisis Dr. Franklin arose and said to the President: "How has it happened, sir, that while groping so long in the dark, divided in our opinions, and now ready to separate without accomplishing the great objects of our meeting, we have hitherto not once thought of humbly applying to the Father of Lights to illuminate our understandings? In the beginning of the contest with Great Britain, when we were sensible of danger, we had daily prayers in this room for divine protection. Our prayers, sir, were heard, and graciously answered." After a few more remarks, he moved that "henceforth, prayers, imploring the assistance of Heaven and its blessings on our deliberations, be held in this assembly every morning before we proceed to business." The convention, excepting three or four members, thought prayers were unnecessary, because in this case they would be merely formal. Objections were also made because there were no funds to defray the expenses of such clerical services. The motion was not adopted.

Franklin's Volunteer Militia. Franklin proposed a plan, which was adopted, to raise a military force to protect the provinces when threatened by the Indians in 1747. He was the sole author of two lotteries that raised more than £6000 in money to pay the cost of erecting batteries on the river; and by a volunteer system he caused the raising of one hundred and twenty companies of militia, of which Philadelphia raised ten, of one hundred men each. The women were so zealous that they furnished ten pairs of silk colors, wrought with various mottoes. Many of the Quakers admitted the propriety of self-defence, and approved Franklin's measures. This was the first military organization ever formed in Pennsylvania.

Fraser, SIMON, a British brigadier-general, was born in Scotland and killed in the first battle on Bemis's Heights in September, 1777. He had served with distinction in Germany, and was appointed brigadier by Governor Carleton Sept. 6, 1776. He gained a victory over the Americans at Hubbardton (which see) in July, 1777. He was shot by one of Morgan's riflemen.

Fredericksburg, BATTLE AT. Lee's evacuation of Maryland after the battle on Antietam Creek occurred on the 19th and 20th of September, 1862. Lee rested a few days on the Virginia side of the Potomac, and then marched leisurely up the Shenandoah Valley. McClellan did not pursue, but, after twice calling for reinforcements, he declared his intention to stand where he was, on the defensive, and "attack the enemy should he attempt to recross into Maryland." The government and the loyal people, impatient of delay, demanded an immediate advance. On Oct. 6 the President instructed McClellan to "cross the Potomac and give battle to the enemy, or drive him South. Your army must now move," he said, "while the roads are good." Twenty-four days were spent in correspondence before the order was obeyed, the general complaining of a lack of men and supplies to make it prudent to move forward. At length, when beautiful October had nearly passed by and Lee's army was thoroughly rested and reorganized, and communications with Richmond were re-established, the Army of the Potomac began to cross the river (Oct. 26), 100,000 strong. The Nationals were led on the east side of the Blue Ridge, but failed to strike the retreating Confederates over the mountain in flank or to get ahead of them; and Lee pushed Longstreet's troops over the Blue Ridge to Culpepper Court-house, between the Army of the Potomac and Richmond, ready to dispute the advance of the Nationals. Quick and energetic movements were now necessary to sever and defeat, in detail, Lee's army. On Nov. 5 McClellan was relieved of command, and General Burnside was put in his place. A sense of responsibility made the latter commander exceedingly cautious. Before he moved he endeavored to get his 120,000 men well in hand. Aquia Creek was made his base of supplies, and he moved the army towards Fredericksburg on Nov. 10. Sumner led the movement down the left bank of the Rappahannock By the 20th a greater portion of Burnside's forces were opposite Fredericksburg, and their cannons commanded the town. Sumner demanded the surrender of the city (Nov. 21). It was refused. The bridges had been destroyed. A greater portion of the inhabitants now fled, and the town was occupied by Confederate troops. Lee's army, 80,000 strong, was upon and near the Heights of Fredericksburg by the close of November, and had planted strong batteries there. The army lay in a semicircle around Fredericksburg, each wing resting upon the Rappahannock, its right at Port Royal and its left six miles above the city. Pontoons for the construction of bridges across the Rappahannock were not received by Burnside until the first week in December. Then 60,000 National troops under Sumner and Hooker lay in front of Fredericksburg, with 150 cannons, commanded by General Hunt. The corps of Franklin, about 40,000 strong, was encamped about two miles below. On the morning of Dec. 11 the engineers went quietly to work to construct five pontoon bridges for the passage of the National army. Sharpshooters assailed the engineers. The heavy ordnance of the Nationals on Stafford Heights opened upon the town, set it on fire, and drove out many troops. The sharpshooters remained. They were dislodged by a party that crossed the river in boats, the bridges were rebuilt, and by the evening of the 12th a greater portion of the National army occupied Fredericksburg, and on the morning of the 13th made a simultaneous assault all along the line. The Confederates, with 300 cannons, were well posted on the heights and ready for action. The battle was begun by a part of Franklin's corps — Meade's division — supported by Gibbon's, with Doubleday's in reserve. Meade soon silenced a Confederate battery, but very soon a terrible storm of shells and canister-shot, at near range, fell upon him. He pressed on, and three of the assailing batteries were withdrawn. Jackson's advanced line, under A. P. Hill, was driven back and 200 men made prisoners, with several battle-flags as trophies. Meade still pressed on, when a fierce assault by Early compelled him to fall back. Gibbon, who came up, was repulsed, and the shattered forces fled in confusion; but the pursuers were checked by General Birney's division of Stoneman's corps. The Nationals could not advance, for Stuart's cavalry, on Lee's right, strongly menaced the Union left. Finally, Reynolds, with reinforcements, pushed back the Confederate right to the Massaponax, where the contest continued until dark. Meanwhile, Couch's corps had occupied the city, with Wilcox's between his and Franklin's. At noon Couch attacked the Confederate front with great vigor. Kimball's brigade, of French's division, led, Hancock's following. Longstreet was posted on Marye's Hill, just back of the town. Upon his troops the Nationals fell heavily, while missiles from the Confederate cannons made great lanes through their ranks. After a brief struggle, French was thrown back, shattered and broken, nearly one half of his command disabled. Hancock advanced, and his brigades fought most vigorously. In fifteen minutes, Hancock, also, was driven back. Of 5000 veterans whom he led into action, 2013 had fallen, and yet the struggle was maintained. Howard's division came to the aid of French and Hancock; so also did those of Sturgis and Getty. Finally, Hooker crossed the river with three divisions. He was so satisfied of the hopelessness of any further attacks upon the strong position of the Confederates that he begged Burnside to desist. He would not yield. Hooker sent 4000 men in the track of French, Hancock, and Howard, to attack with bayonets only. These were hurled back by terrific volleys of rifle-balls, leaving 1700 of their number prostrate on the field. Night soon closed the awful conflict, when the Army of the Potomac had 15,000 less of effective men than it had the day before. Burnside, intent on achieving a victory, proposed to send his old corps (the Ninth) against the fatal barrier (a stone wall) on Marye's Hill, but Sumner dissuaded him, and, on the 14th and 15th, his troops were withdrawn to the north side of the Rappahannock, with all his guns, taking up his pontoon bridges. Then the Confederates reoccupied Fredericksburg.

SCENE IN FREDERICKSBURG ON THE MORNING ON DEC. 12, 1862.

Free Negroes. The alarm expressed in debates on the act prohibiting the slave-trade, in 1809, because of the increase and influence of free negroes, was manifested in the legislation of several states immediately afterwards. Indeed, such fears had existed earlier. In 1796 North Carolina passed an act prohibiting emancipation, except for meritorious services, and by allowance of the county courts. South Carolina had passed a similar act in 1800; also another act the same year, declaring it unlawful for any number of free negroes, mulattoes, or mestizos to assemble together, even though in the presence of white persons, "for mental instruction or religious worship." There had been two alarms of insurrection in Virginia (1799 and 1801), and in 1805 the freedom of emancipation, allowed by an act in 1782, was substantially taken away, by a provision that, thenceforward, emancipated slaves remaining in the state one year after obtaining their freedom should be apprehended and sold into slavery for the benefit of the poor of the county. Overseers of the poor, binding out black or mulatto orphans as apprentices, were forbidden to require their masters to teach them reading, writing, and arithmetic, as in the case of white orphans; and free blacks coming into the state were to be sent back to the places whence they came. The Legislature of Kentucky in 1808 passed a law that free negroes coming into that state should give security to depart within twenty days, and on failure to do so should be sold for one year, the same process to be repeated, if, at the end of the year, they should be found in the state twenty days afterwards. This law remained in force until the breaking-out of the late Civil War.

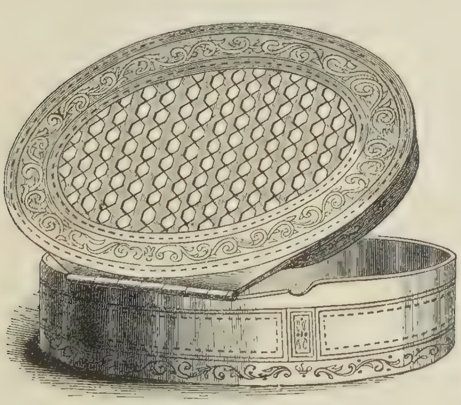
Free Postage for Ex-Presidents. Congress bestowed upon Washington, on his retirement from the office of President of the Republic, the privilege of receiving his letters free of postage for the remainder of his life. This privilege has been extended to all subsequent presidents, and also to their widows.

Free School, The First, in Charleston. Several benevolent persons having, by their last wills, left sums of money for the foundation of a free school for the use of the inhabitants of the province of South Carolina, the Assembly passed an act in 1712 for erecting a free school in Charleston; for which purpose the governor, with fifteen other persons, were incorporated as commissioners.

Free Schools in Maryland. In 1694 a law was passed by the Legislature of Maryland, assembled at Annapolis, the new capital, for establishing free schools in that province. They appropriated towards their endowment sundry imposts on negroes and spirits imported, and on skins, furs, beef and pork exported.

Freedmen's Bureau. Early in 1865 Congress established a Bureau of Freedmen, Refugees, and Abandoned Lands, attached to the War Department; and early in May General O. O. Howard was appointed Commissioner or head of this bureau. He appointed eleven assistant commissioners, all army officers; namely—for the District of Columbia, General John Eaton, Jr.; Virginia, Colonel O. Brown; North Carolina, Colonel E. Whittlesey; South Carolina and Georgia, General R. Saxton; Florida, Colonel T. W. Osborne; Alabama, General W. Swayne; Louisiana, first the Rev. T. W. Conway, and then General A. Baird; Texas, General E. M. Gregory; Mississippi, Colonel S. Thomas; Kentucky and Tennessee, General C. B. Fiske; Missouri and Arkansas, General J. W. Sprague. The bureau took under its charge the freedmen, the refugees, and the abandoned lands in the South, for the purpose of protecting the freedmen and the refugees in their rights, and returning the lands to their proper owners. In this work right and justice were vindicated. To make the operations of the bureau more efficient and beneficent, an act was passed (Feb. 19, 1866) for enlarging its powers. President Johnson interposed his veto, but it became a law, and performed its duties well so long as they were required.

Freedom of a City. The conferring of all the privileges of a citizen upon a stranger, or one not entitled to such privileges because of non-residence, is an ancient way of conferring honors upon one for meritorious services. When the eminent lawyer of Pennsylvania, Andrew Hamilton, who ably defended the liberty of the press in the case of John Peter Zenger (which see), the corporation of the city of New York conferred the freedom of that city upon him. The certificate of such honor is usually enclosed in a gold box, bearing on the underside of the lid an inscription indicative of the event. I give the form of such a document in a copy of the certificate of freedom which the corporation of the city of New York gave to General Jacob Brown, after the battles of Chippewa and Lundy's Lane, in the summer of 1814, as follows:



GENERAL BROWN'S GOLD BOX.

"To all to whom these presents shall come, De Witt Clinton, Esq., Mayor, and the Aldermen of the city of New York, send greeting: At a meeting of the Common Council, held at the Common Council chamber in the City Hall of the city of New York, the following resolutions were unanimously agreed to: 'Whereas the Corporation of the city entertains the most lively sense of the late brilliant achievements of General Jacob Brown on the Niagara frontier, considering them as proud evidences of the skill and intrepidity of the hero of Chippewa and his brave companions in arms, and affording ample proof of the superior valor of our hardy farmers over the veteran legions of the enemy, *Resolved*, That, as a tribute of respect to a gallant officer and his intrepid associates, who have added such lustre to our arms, the freedom of the city of New York be presented to General Jacob Brown, that his portrait be obtained and placed in the gallery of portraits belonging to this city, and that the thanks of this corporation be tendered to the officers and men under his command.' Know ye that Jacob Brown, Esquire, is admitted and allowed a freeman and a citizen of the said city, to have, to hold, to use, and enjoy the freedom of the city, together with all the benefits, privileges, franchises, and immunities whatsoever granted or belonging to the said city. By order of the mayor and aldermen. In testimony whereof the said mayor and aldermen have caused the seal of the said city to be hereunto affixed. Witness: De Witt Clinton, Esquire, Mayor, the fourth day of February, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and fifteen, and of the independence and sovereignty of the United States the thirty-ninth. DE WITT CLINTON."

Freedom of Speech and of the Press. The first amendment to the National Constitution, ratified in December, 1791, after forbidding Congress to make any law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, says, "or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people to peaceably assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances." This secures the invaluable right of utterance of opinions, and reserves to all citizens the privilege of making their grievances known to the National government.

Freedom of the Press in Massachusetts. The controversies carried on through pamphlets in Massachusetts in discussions of the subjects of paper-money, the small-pox, and the quarrels between the governor (Shute) and the representatives, had exhibited so much freedom that James Franklin was encouraged to set up a newspaper at Boston, called the *New England Courant*. The first number was dated Aug. 6, 1721. It was designed as a medium of public discussion, to take the place of pamphlets, and was the first newspaper in America that aspired to this eminence. Its freedom of speech made the authorities uneasy; and one of its articles, in relation to the fitting-out of a vessel to cruise against pirates, was construed as contempt of the General Court, for which Franklin was imprisoned. His brother Benjamin, then a youth of sixteen, published in it some mild essays on religious hypocrisy, which gave greater offence. It was charged that the paper had a "tendency to mock religion;" that it profanely abused the Holy Scriptures; injuriously reflected upon the ministers of the Gospel and "on his majesty's government," and disturbed the peace and good order of the province. James Franklin was forbidden to publish a newspaper, pamphlet, or anything else unless it should be approved and licensed by the colonial secretary. This order was evaded by the *Courant* being published in the name of his brother Benjamin, but the caution necessary to be used made contributors shy. They gradually ceased to write, and the paper, losing interest, finally perished for lack of support. Such was the fate of the first nominally free press in America.

Freedom of the Press Vindicated. (See *Zenger's Trial.*)

Free-soil Party, THE, was founded in 1848 upon the principle of the non-extension of the slave system in the territories. It was an outgrowth of the Liberty Party of 1846. The immediate cause of its organization was the acquisition of new territory at the close of the war with Mexico, which would, if not prevented, become slave territory. In a bill appropriating money for the negotiation of peace with Mexico, submitted to Congress in 1846, David Wilmot, a Democratic member from Pennsylvania, offered an amendment, "*Provided* that there shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in any territory on the continent of America which shall hereafter be acquired by or annexed to the United States by virtue of this appropriation, or in any other manner, except for crime," etc. It was carried in the House, but failed in the Senate; and in the next session it was defeated in both branches. This was the famous *Wilmot Proviso* (which see). Resolutions to this effect were offered in both the Democratic and Whig conventions in 1846, but were rejected. A consequence of such rejection was a considerable secession of prominent men, and many others, from both parties, especially in Massachusetts, New York, and Ohio. In New York the seceding Democrats were called "Barnburners," and the two classes of seceders combined were called "Free-soilers." The two combined, and at a convention held at Buffalo, Aug. 9, 1848, they formed the *Free-soil Party.* The convention was composed of delegates from all the free-labor states, and from Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and the District of Columbia. They nominated Martin Van Buren for President of the United States, and Charles Francis Adams for Vice-President. The ticket received a popular anti-slavery vote of two hundred and ninety-one thousand, but did not receive a single electoral vote. The Free-soil Convention at Pittsburgh in 1852 nominated John P. Hale for President, and George W. Judson for Vice-President, who received a popular vote of one hundred and fifty-seven thousand. The compromise measures of 1850, and the virtual repeal of the Missouri Compromise (which see), in the act for the creation of the territories of Kansas and Nebraska in 1854, greatly increased the strength of the Free-soil party, and it formed the nucleus of the historical Republican party in 1856, when the Free-soilers, as a distinct party, disappeared.

Free-stone State. A name sometimes given to Connecticut because of its free-stone quarries. It is also called the "Land of Steady Habits" and the "Nutmeg State." It received the first of the latter names in allusion to the moral character of the inhabitants, and the second because of the ingenuity and shrewdness of the people, who were jocosely charged with making and selling nutmegs made of wood for genuine ones.

Free-thinkers in America. The freedom of thought and expression on theological subjects which now happily prevails did not exist in the last century. Then a person who openly opposed the accepted tenets of orthodoxy was ostracized, and hence it is that, even in this day, Franklin and Jefferson are sometimes spoken of as infidels (that is, opposers of the Christian religion)—a charge cruelly unjust. They were simply free-thinkers—men who indulged in the exercise of reason in dealing with the theology of the day. The first American free-thinker was Jeremiah Dummer, for many years colonial agent in England of Connecticut, and author of the *Defence of the New England Charters.* Franklin was one of his converts, yet never carried his views so far as to deny, as Dummer did, the supernatural origin of the Christian religion. Franklin was no propagandist of his peculiar theological views. He thought religion necessary for the good of individuals and society, ostensibly adhered to the Church of England, and never countenanced attacks upon current religious ideas. The first work of a free-thinker published in America was Ethan Allen's *Oracles of Religion.* From passages in his *Notes on Virginia,* published in London, 1787, it is evident that Jefferson was of similar mind in many things, yet his views of the necessity and goodness of the Christian religion were similar to those of Franklin. Paine was of a different stamp, and ought not to be mentioned in association with Franklin and Jefferson. He made coarse attacks upon the Christian religion, and nothing was too sacred in the later years of his life, when his mind became imbruted by intemperance, to escape the wrath of his pen. His indecent attack upon Washington, and his scoffing essay against Christianity, left his otherwise bright name under a cloud.

Free-trade between New England and Canada Proposed. D'Aulnay, in Acadia, claimed for the Company of New France the country east of Pemaquid, and had his trading-house on the east side of the Penobscot, near (present) Castine. (See *La Tour.*) In consequence of D'Aulnay's jealous exclusion of the English colonists from the French territory, a messenger was sent (1651) by the commissioners of the United Colonies to the Governor of Canada at Quebec to propose free-trade between that province and New England. Two Canadian priests brought a reply, after long delay, but it was evident that they were more intent on obtaining assistance in a bloody war with the Five Nations, in which Canada was then engaged, than in arrangements for prosecuting the arts of peace. They asked permission for war parties of converted Indians to pass through the territories of the United Colonies on their way against the Five Nations. These envoys appealed to the New-Englanders as "fellow-Christians," and with this endearing epithet, and touching descriptions of the distress of their Indian converts and the danger to the Jesuit missions, they tried to persuade the Puritans to assist them in their war with the great Indian confederacy. Trade was hardly alluded to by them. There was no sympathy between Puritans and Jesuits, and the envoys were dismissed with a civil refusal. This was the first communication on record between New England and Canada.

Free-trade in Negroes (1750). To completely enslave the English-American colonies, the British Parliament, in 1750, gave liberty to trade in negroes, as slaves, to and from any part of Africa between Sallee, in South Barbary, and the Cape of Good Hope, to all the subjects of the King of England. This was designed to fill the colonies with slaves, who should neither trouble Great Britain with fears of encouraging political independence nor compete with their industry with British workshops; neither would they leave their employers the entire security that might enable them to prepare a revolt.

Frelinghuysen, FREDERICK, was born in New Jersey, April 13, 1753; died April 13, 1804. He graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1770, and became an eminent lawyer. He was a member of the Continental Congress much of the time during the war, and served as a captain in the army. Afterwards he filled various state and county offices, and in 1790 was appointed by Washington to lead an expedition against the western Indians, with the rank of major-general. In 1793 he was chosen United States Senator, and served three years.

Frelinghuysen, THEODORE, LL.D., was born at Millstone, N. J., March 28, 1787; died at New Brunswick, N. J., April 12, 1862. He graduated at the College of Princeton, in 1804, and was admitted to the bar in 1808. In the War of 1812–15 he commanded a company of volunteers, and in 1817 became attorney-general of New Jersey, which post he held until 1829, when he was chosen a United States Senator. In 1838 he was chosen Chancellor of the University of New York, and made his residence in that city; and in 1844 he was nominated for Vice-President of the United States, with Henry Clay for President. Mr. Frelinghuysen left the University of New York in 1850 to become President of Rutgers College (which see), in his native state, which position he held until his death.

Frémont in Missouri (1861). John C. Frémont was in Europe when the Civil War broke out. He was commissioned major-general of volunteers (May 14, 1861), and leaving Europe on receiving notice of his appointment, he returned home, bringing with him arms for his government. He arrived in Boston on June 27, and July 6 he was appointed to the command of the Western Department (which see), just created. He arrived at St. Louis July 26, where he made his headquarters. He found disorder everywhere. The terms of enlistment of Home Guards, or three-months' men, were expiring, and they were unwilling to re-enlist. He had very little money or arms at his disposal, and was unable to send aid to General Lyon, in the southwestern portion of the state, battling with the insurgents. He resolved to assume grave responsibilities. He applied to the United States Treasurer at St. Louis for a portion of $300,000 in his hands, but was refused. He was about to seize $100,000 of it, when the officer yielded; and with the money Frémont secured the reenlistment of many of the Home Guards. He strongly fortified St. Louis, and prepared to place the important post at Cairo in a position of absolute security. With nearly four thousand troops on steamers, he proceeded to Cairo with such a display that the impression was general that he had twelve thousand. Although large bodies of Confederate troops in Kentucky and Missouri were gathered for the purpose of seizing Cairo and Bird's Point, Frémont was not molested in this mission, and Prentiss, at the former place, was amply strengthened. Pillow and Thompson and Hardee, who had advanced in that direction, fell back (see *Army of Liberation in Missouri*), and became very discreet. Frémont returned to St. Louis on Aug. 4, having accomplished his wishes and spread alarm among the Confederates. Polk, at Memphis, ordered Pillow to evacuate New Madrid with his men and heavy guns, and hasten to Randolph and Fort Pillow, on the Tennessee shore. When news of the battle at Wilson's Creek and the death of Lyon reached St. Louis, the Secessionists were jubilant. (See *Wilson's Creek.*) Frémont immediately proclaimed martial law, and appointed a provost-marshal. Some of the most active Secessionists were arrested, and the publication of newspapers charged with disloyalty was suspended. But the condition of public affairs in Missouri was becoming more and more alarming. The provisional government was almost powerless. Frémont took all authority into his own hands. Secessionists were arrested and imprisoned, and disloyalty of every kind felt the force of his power. He proclaimed that the property, real and personal, of all persons in Missouri who should be proven to have taken an active part with the enemies of the government in the field should be confiscated to the public use, and their slaves, if they had any, should thereafter be free men. As he acted promptly in accordance with his proclamation, great consternation began to prevail. At that moment his hand was stayed. Because of his avowed determination to confiscate the property and free the slaves of the disloyalists, a storm of indignation suddenly arose in the border slave-states, which alarmed the national government, and the President, wishing to placate the rebellious spirit of those states, requested Frémont to modify his proclamation on those points. He declined to do so, when the President, at Frémont's request, issued an order for such a modification. Frémont could not, for it would imply that he thought the measure wrong, which he did not.

Frémont, JOHN CHARLES, was born in Savannah, Ga., Jan. 21, 1813, and graduated at Charleston College in 1830. His father was a Frenchman, and his mother a Virginian. He was instructor in mathematics in the United States Navy from 1833 to 1835. Engaged in surveying the Cherokee country in the winter of 1837–38, he began his famous explorations, first in the country between the Missouri River and the British possessions. He had been appointed second lieutenant of Topographical Engineers in July. In 1841 he married a daughter of Senator Thomas H. Benton, and in May, 1842, he began, under the authority of the government, the exploration of an overland route to the Pacific Ocean. He ascended the highest peak of the Wind River Mountains, which was afterwards named "Frémont's Peak." He explored the Great Salt Lake region in 1843, and penetrated to the Pacific near the mouth of the Columbia River. In 1845 he explored the Sierra Nevada, in California, and in 1846 became involved in hostilities with the Mexicans on the Pacific coast. He assisted in the conquest of California, was appointed its military governor, and, after its admission as a state, became one of its first United States Senators. He had continued his explorations after the war. For his scientific researches, Frémont received, in 1850, a gold medal from the King of Prussia, and another from the Royal Geographical Society of London. He had already received from his countrymen the significant title of "The Pathfinder." At his own expense he made a fifth exploration, in 1853, and found a new route to the Pacific. In 1856, the newly formed Republican party nominated him for the Presidency of the United States, and he received 114 electoral votes against 174 given for Buchanan. Returning from Europe in May, 1861, on being appointed major-general in the United States Army, he was assigned to command the Western Department; but, through the intrigues of ambitious politicians, was removed from the command in the course of six months, while successfully prosecuting a campaign he had planned. He was in command of another department, but resigned in 1862, declining to serve under an officer inferior to him in rank. Radical Republicans nominated him for the Presidency in 1864, after which he took leave of political life; but he became active in promoting the construction of a transcontinental railway.

JOHN CHARLES FRÉMONT.

Frémont, JOHN C., IN CALIFORNIA. Captain Frémont was sent by his government, in the spring of 1845, to explore the great basin and the maritime region of Oregon and California. He crossed the Sierra Nevada, in the dead of winter, from Great Salt Lake into California, with between sixty and seventy men, to obtain supplies. Leaving them in the Valley of the San Joaquin, he went to Monterey, then the capital of the province of California, to obtain permission from the Mexican authorities to continue his explorations. It was given, but was almost immediately withdrawn, and he was peremptorily ordered to leave the country without delay. He refused, when General de Castro, the Mexican governor, mustered the forces of the province to expel him. At length he was permitted to go on with his explorations without hinderance. On May 9, 1846, he received despatches from his government, directing him to watch the movements of the Mexicans in California, who seemed disposed to hand the province over to the British government. It was also rumored that General de Castro intended to destroy all the American settlements on the Sacramento River. Frémont hurried back to California, and found De Castro on the march against the settlements. The settlers flew to arms, and joined Frémont's camp, and, under his leadership, these settlements were not only saved, but the Mexican authorities were driven out of California. Frémont and his followers met General de Castro and his forces, strong in numbers, when Frémont retired about thirty miles, to a mountain position, where he called around him the American settlers in that region. With these he captured a Mexican post at Sonoma Pass (June 15, 1846), with nine cannons and two hundred and fifty muskets. De Castro was routed, and on the 5th of July the Americans in California declared themselves independent, and elected Frémont governor of the province. He then proceeded to join the American naval forces at Monterey, under Commodore Stockton, who had lately arrived, with authority from Washington to conquer California. Frémont appeared there with one hundred and sixty mounted riflemen. On Aug. 17 (1846), Stockton and Frémont took possession of the city of Los Angelos (city of the angels), now the capital of Los Angelos County, Cal.; and at that place General Kearney, who had just taken possession of New Mexico, joined Stockton and Frémont, Dec. 27, 1846. Kearney would not sanction the election of Frémont as governor of California, and on Feb. 8, 1847, assuming that office himself, he declared the annexation of California to the United States. Frémont refused to obey General Kearney, his superior officer, who sent him to Washington under arrest, where he was tried by a court-martial, which sentenced him to be dismissed from the service, but recommended him to the clemency of the President. The penalty was remitted, and in October, 1848, Frémont entered upon his fourth exploration among the far western mountains. He was the real liberator of California. The Legislature of that state elected him one of its first United States Senators.

Frémont's Embarrassments. Frémont was censured for his failure to reinforce Colonel Mulligan at Lexington. The public knew very little of his embarrassments at that time. Pressing demands came for reinforcements from General Grant at Paducah. At various points in his department were heard cries for help, and a peremptory order came from General Scott for him to forward five thousand troops immediately to Washington city, notwithstanding McClellan numbered seventy-five thousand within easy call of the capital. Frémont's force, never exceeding fifty-six thousand, was scattered over his department. Chafing under unjust complaints, he proceeded to put into execution his plan of ridding the Mississippi Valley of Confederates. (See *Frémont's Plan.*) More than twenty thousand soldiers were set in motion (Sept. 27, 1861) southward (five thousand of them cavalry), under the respective commands of Generals Hunter, Pope, Sigel, McKinstry, and Asboth, accompanied by eighty-six heavy guns. These were moving southward early in October; and on the 11th, when his army was thirty thousand strong, he wrote to his government: "My plan is, New Orleans straight; I would precipitate the war forward, and end it soon victoriously." He was marching with confidence of success, and his troops were winning little victories here and there, when, through the influence of men jealous of him and his political enemies, Frémont's career was suddenly checked. False accusers, public and private, caused General Scott to send an order for him to turn over his command to General Hunter, then some distance in the rear. Hunter arrived just as the troops were about to attack Price. He took the command, and countermanded Frémont's orders for battle; and nine days afterwards General H. W. Halleck was placed in command of the Department of Missouri. The disappointed and disheartened army were turned back, and marched to St. Louis in sullen sadness. Soon afterwards an elegant sword was presented to Frémont, inscribed, "To the Pathfinder, by the Men of the West."

Frémont's Plan. When General Frémont took charge of the Western Department (which see), he formed a plan for ridding not only Missouri, but the whole Mississippi Valley, of armed insurgents, and for opening the navigation of this great river, then obstructed by Confederate batteries at Memphis and elsewhere. His plan contemplated the capture or dispersion of troops under General Price in Missouri, and the seizure of Little Rock, Ark. By so doing, Frémont expected to turn the position of Pillow and others in the vicinity of New Madrid (see *Army of Liberation*), cut off the supplies from the southwest, and compel them to retreat, at which time a flotilla of gunboats, then building near St. Louis, might descend the Mississippi, and assist in military operations against the batteries at Memphis. In the event of this movement being successful, he proposed to push on towards the Gulf of Mexico with his army, and take possession of New Orleans.

French and English Settlers in South Carolina. There were warm collisions between the French and English settlers in South Carolina, mostly on political grounds, until 1696, when the refugees, or Huguenots, there were admitted to full citizenship on certain conditions, among them that of taking the oath of allegiance to King William. After that, the people of those two nationalities lived in peace and harmony.

French and Indian War. A fourth intercolonial war between the English and French colonies in America was begun in 1754, in which the Indians, as usual, bore a conspicuous part. The English population (white) in the colonies was then a little more than one million, planted along the seaboard. The French were one hundred thousand strong, and occupied the regions of Nova Scotia, the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and a line of trading-posts in the Valley of the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. The latter, as chiefly traders, had gained great influence over many of the Indian tribes. There was outward peace, but inward war, between the colonists, and it needed only a small matter to kindle a flame of hostilities. After the capture of Louisburg (1745), the French had taken measures to extend and strengthen their dominion in America. Their power became aggressive, and early in 1754 it was evident that they intended to hold military possession of the Ohio and the region around its head-waters. The English attempted to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio. The French seized the post, and completed the fortification. (See *Fort Duquesne.*) Washington led provincial troops to recapture it, but was unsuccessful. The colonists appealed to the British government, and received promises of its aid in the impending war; and in 1755 General Edward Braddock was sent with regular troops to command any forces that might be raised in America to resist the French and their Indian allies. Three separate expeditions were planned—one against Fort Duquesne, another against forts on or near Lake Ontario, and a third against French forts on Lake Champlain. An expedition against Acadia was also undertaken. The three expeditions failed to accomplish their full purposes. In May, 1756, England declared war against France, and sent Lord Loudoun as chief commander in the colonies, with General Abercrombie as his lieutenant. Expeditions similar to those of 1755 were planned, but failed in the execution. The skilled soldier the Marquis de Montcalm, commanding the French and Indians, captured Oswego, on the southern shore of Lake Ontario. Loudoun proposed to confine the campaign of 1757 to the capture of Louisburg, on Cape Breton. (See *Louisburg.*) Going there with a large land and naval armament, he was told that the French were too strong for him. He believed it, withdrew, and returned to New York. Meanwhile Montcalm had strengthened Fort Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, and captured and destroyed the English fort, William Henry, at the head of Lake George (August, 1757); and so ended the campaign and the leadership of the inefficient Lord Loudoun. William Pitt took the chief control of public affairs in England, and prepared to prosecute the war in America with vigor. General James Abercrombie was placed in chief command in America in 1758, and Admiral Boscawen was sent with a fleet to co-operate. Louisburg, Fort Ticonderoga, and Fort Duquesne were to be attacked. Louisburg was captured, but Abercrombie, who led the troops towards Lake Champlain, was unsuccessful in his attack on Ticonderoga. The French fort Frontenac, at the foot of Lake Ontario, was captured; so, also, was Fort Duquesne, and its name was changed to Fort Pitt, in compliment to the great prime-minister. These successes so alarmed the Indians that they agreed, in council, not to fight the English any more. Pitt now resolved to conquer Canada. General Amherst was placed in chief command in America in the spring of 1759, and a land and naval force was sent over from England. Again three expeditions were put in motion—one to go up the St. Lawrence, to capture Quebec; another to drive the French from Lake Champlain, and force them back to Canada; and a third to attack Fort Niagara, at the mouth of the Niagara River. General Wolfe commanded the expedition against Quebec, General Amherst led the troops against the French on Lake Champlain, and General Prideaux commanded the expedition against Fort Niagara. Prideaux was killed in besieging Fort Niagara, but it was captured under the lead of Sir William Johnson, his lieutenant, in July. Amherst drove the French from Lake Champlain into Canada, and they never came back; and he built the strong fortress on Crown Point, whose picturesque ruins still attract the attention of the tourist. Wolfe attacked Quebec, and at the moment of victory he was killed. Montcalm, the commander of the French, also perished on the field. In 1760 the French tried to recapture Quebec, but were unsuccessful. Early in September Amherst went down the St. Lawrence and captured Montreal. The conquest of Canada was now completed, and the French and Indian War was essentially ended. The last act in it was a treaty of peace, concluded in Paris in 1763.

French and Spanish Fleets in English Waters. The French and Spanish armada, composed of about fifty ships-of-war, appeared off the English coast in August, 1779. The English fleet to oppose them consisted of not more than forty ships of the line, commanded by Sir Charles Hardy. The combined fleets were commanded by French and Spanish leaders respectively, and therefore lacked the unity necessary for perfect co-operation. On Aug. 16 they appeared off Plymouth, but did not attack the town. Two days later a gale drove the armada westward; when it ceased, the scattered ships were rallied, and, sailing up the channel, made the English fleet retreat before them. The French and Spanish officers could not agree upon a line of action, and there was delay. Then a deadly malady ravaged the French ships and infected the Spaniards, and the French returned to port, where they remained. The Spanish vessels sailed for Cadiz, cursing their allies. Not even English merchant-vessels on return voyages had been harmed by this immense armament. The whole scheme of invading England was a failure. Hoping to produce a revolt in discontented Ireland, both Vergennes and Blanca sent agents there; the latter to the Irish Roman Catholics. His emissary was a priest, who was promised a bishopric if he should succeed in creating a revolt. Vergennes relied more upon the Presbyterians in Ireland than upon the Roman Catholics. But neither party in Ireland could be relied upon as allies of France and Spain.

French Army, DEPARTURE OF (1782). The headquarters of the American army were at Verplanck's Point at the beginning of autumn, 1782, where (about ten thousand strong) it was joined by the French army on its return from Virginia, in September. The latter encamped on the left of the Americans, at Crompond, about ten miles from Verplanck's Point. They had received orders to proceed to Boston and there embark for the West Indies. They left their encampment near Peekskill Oct. 22, and marched by way of Hartford and Providence. Rochambeau there left the army in charge of Baron de Viomenil and returned to Washington's headquarters on his way to Philadelphia. The French troops reached Boston the first week in December. On the 24th they sailed from Boston, having been in the United States two and a half years. Rochambeau sailed from Annapolis for France, Jan. 11, 1783.

French Consuls Warned. As the French consuls and vice-consuls to whom the French Republic, through "citizen" Genet, committed the functions of admiralty courts, were disposed to continue the exercise of their admiralty jurisdiction, after the positive action of the United States government against them, a circular letter was issued (Sept. 7) threatening to revoke the exequatur, or recognition of a consul, of any officer who might persist in such usurpation. The French consul at Boston defied the menace, and, with the help of a French frigate at anchor in the harbor, he had the insolence to rescue out of the hands of the United States marshal a vessel brought in as a French prize, but upon which process had been served at the suit of the British owners, who claimed that she had been illegally captured within the waters of the United States. The friends of the French cause thwarted all attempts to obtain an indictment against the deposed consul.

French Creek, AFFAIR AT (1813). The troops collected by Wilkinson on Grenadier Island (see *Expedition down the St. Lawrence*) suffered much, for storm after storm swept over Lake Ontario, and snow fell to the depth of ten inches. A Canadian winter was too near to allow delays on account of the weather, and on Oct. 29 General Brown, with his division, moved forward in boats, in the face of great peril, in a tempest. He landed at French Creek (now Clayton) and took post in a wood. The marine scouts from Kingston discovered Brown on the afternoon of Nov. 1, and two brigs, two schooners, and eight gunboats, filled with infantry, bore down upon him, at sunset. Brown had planted a battery of three 18-pounders on a high wooded bluff on the western shore of French Creek, at its mouth, and with it the assailants were driven away.

The conflict was resumed at dawn the next morning, with the same result. The British lost many men; the Americans only two killed and four wounded. Meanwhile, troops were coming down the river from Grenadier Island, and there landed on the site of Clayton. Wilkinson arrived there on Nov. 3, and on the morning of the 5th the army, in three hundred bateaux and other boats, moved down the river.

MOUTH OF FRENCH CREEK.

French Cruisers, Depredations of (1811). While discussions were yet in progress concerning the repeal (arrest) of the French decrees, privateers of that nation on the North Sea and the Baltic were as active against American commerce as ever. They captured every American vessel found in these waters, in the hope of effecting a ransom or a compromise. The conduct of the few French national vessels then at sea was no better. Some French frigates, bound to the Mauritius, robbed in succession three innocent American vessels, burning two of them and sparing the third only as a means of getting rid of their prisoners. These acts were aggravated by the refusal of Napoleon to make any compensation for the robberies under the Rambouillet Decree (which see).

French Decrees. The presence of Jay in England to make a treaty with Great Britain aroused the French to a sense of the importance of observing its own treaty stipulations with the United States, which had been utterly disregarded since the war with England began. On Jan. 4, 1795, a new decree was issued, giving full force and effect to those clauses of the treaty of commerce (1778) with the United States respecting contraband and the carriage of enemies' goods. When news of the failure of the Americans to elect Jefferson President reached France, the Directory issued a decree (March 2, 1797) purporting to define the authority granted to French cruisers by a former decree. It was intended to annihilate American commerce in European waters. The treaty with America was declared to be so modified as to make American vessels and their cargoes liable to capture for any cause recognized as lawful ground of capture by Jay's treaty. They also decreed that any Americans found serving on board hostile armed vessels should be treated as pirates, even though they might plead imprisonment and compulsion as an excuse; in other words, American seamen, impressed by the British, were made liable to be hanged by the French. On Jan. 18, 1798, a sweeping decree against American commerce was promulgated by the French Directory. It declared to be good prizes all vessels having merchandise on board the production of England or her colonies, whoever the owner of the merchantman might be; and forbade, also, the entrance into any French port of any vessel which, at any previous part of her voyage, had touched at any English possession.

French Depredations. On Feb. 27, 1797, the Secretary of State laid before Congress a full exhibit of the wrongs inflicted by the French on American commerce. Skipwith, American consul-general in France, had presented to the Directory (which see) one hundred and seventy claims, many of them for provisions furnished, examined, and allowed; for one hundred and three vessels embargoed at Bordeaux, for which promised indemnity had never been paid; and to these wrongs were added enormous depredations then going on in the West Indies, seizing and confiscating the property of Americans without restraint. American vessels were captured and their crews treated with indignity and cruelty. Encouraged by the accession of Spain to their alliance and the victories of Bonaparte in Italy, the French Directory grew every day more insolent. They were countenanced by a great party in the United States, which had failed by only two votes to give a President to the American Republic.

French Domain in America, How Divided. On the 7th of October, 1763, the King of England (George III.), by proclamation, erected out of the territory acquired from the French by the Treaty of Paris three provinces on the continent—namely, East Florida, West Florida, and Quebec; and an insular province styled Grenada. East Florida was bounded on the north by the St. Mary's River, the intervening region thence to the Altamaha being annexed to Georgia. The boundaries of West Florida were the Appalachicola, the Gulf of Mexico, the Mississippi, and lakes Pontchartrain and Maurepas; and on the north by a line due east from the mouth of the Yazoo River, so as to include the French settlements near Natchez. The boundaries of the Province of Quebec were in accordance with the claims of New York and Massachusetts, being a line from the southern end of Lake Nepissing, striking the St. Lawrence at 45° north latitude and following that parallel across the foot of Lake Champlain to the head-waters of the Connecticut River, and thence along the highlands which form the water-shed between the St. Lawrence and the sea. Grenada was composed of the islands of St. Vincent, Dominica, and Tobago.

French Emissary in America. Vergennes, the French minister, felt very anxious to know the exact state of public opinion in America, and in 1775 he employed De Bouvoloir, a French gentleman of great discretion, who had been in the colonies. He was despatched with the consent of the king; and this was the beginning of French intervention in the affairs of the Americans during the old war for independence. De Bouvoloir was introduced to Franklin and other members of Congress at the close of 1775. With them he held several conferences, by night. The members inquired of him whether France was disposed to aid the Americans, and at what price; and whether it would be prudent to send a plenipotentiary to the French court. Bouvoloir replied that France was well disposed towards the Americans; that if she should give them her aid, it would be on just and equitable conditions. "Make your proposals," he said, "and I will present them." He thought it would be precipitate, and even hazardous, to make any arrangements just then, "for," he said, "what passes in France is known in London." Bouvoloir reported to Vergennes that the Americans were united in loud complaints against the injustice of the British government, and almost wholly so in a determined opposition to its rule.

French Fleet, Arrival of (1778). In accordance with the spirit of the treaty of alliance with France (Feb. 6, 1778), a French fleet was speedily fitted out at Toulon. It consisted of twelve ships of the line and four frigates, commanded by the Count D'Estaing. This fleet arrived in the Delaware on July 8, 1778, bearing four thousand French troops. With it came M. Gerard, the first French minister accredited to the United States. Silas Deane also returned from his mission in France in the same vessel (the *Languedoc*), the flag-ship. Having sent his passengers up to Philadelphia in a frigate, D'Estaing sailed for Sandy Hook, and came to anchor off the harbor of New York. Lord Howe, who had fortunately for himself left the Delaware a few days before D'Estaing's arrival, was now with his fleet in Raritan Bay, whither the heavy French vessels could not safely follow. On July 22 he sailed, with his squadron, to co-operate with General Sullivan against the British in Rhode Island.

French Fleet, Attempted Interception of. When vessels left England with Braddock's troops, the French, ever vigilant, sent a fleet with four thousand soldiers, under the Baron Dieskau, to reinforce their army on the St. Lawrence. Admiral Boscawen was sent with an English fleet to intercept the French armament. They came together south of Newfoundland. "Are we at peace or war?" asked the French commander. He was answered by the thunder of Boscawen's cannons, and two of the French vessels were captured; the remainder escaped, and passed into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, through the Strait of Belle Isle. Dieskau was accompanied by Vaudreuil, the successor of Duquesne as governor of Canada. The French fleet had left one thousand soldiers at Louisburg. The hostile movements of the English caused the French ambassador at London to be recalled. To this the English retorted by issuing letters of marque and reprisal. These and other irritations caused a declaration of war between the two countries the next year.

French Fleet, The, and Arnold. At the solicitation of Washington, the French fleet at Newport sailed for the Virginia waters to assist in capturing Arnold, then marauding in Virginia. The fleet was to co-operate with Lafayette, whom Washington had sent to Virginia for the same purpose. The British blockading squadron, which had made its winter-quarters in Gardiner's Bay, at the eastern end of Long Island, pursued the French vessels, and off the capes of Virginia a sharp naval engagement occurred, in which the latter were beaten and returned to Newport. This failure on the part of the French fleet caused Lafayette to halt in his march at Annapolis, Md. Two of the French vessels, taking advantage of a storm that disabled the blockading squadron, entered Chesapeake Bay (February, 1781). Thus threatened by land and water, Arnold withdrew to Portsmouth, so far up the Elizabeth River as to be out of the reach of the French ships. There he was reinforced by troops under General Phillips, of the Convention troops, who had been exchanged for General Lincoln. The French ships soon returned to Newport, after making some prizes.

French Forces, Arrival of (1780). On the 10th of July, 1780, a powerful French fleet, commanded by the Chevalier de Ternay, arrived at Newport, R. I. It was composed of seven ships of the line, besides frigates and transports. The latter bore a French army, six thousand strong, commanded by Lieutenant-general the Count de Rochambeau. This was the first division intended for the American service, and was the first-fruit of Lafayette's persistent personal efforts at the French court. With wise forethought the official relations between Washington and Rochambeau had been settled by the French government. In order to prevent any difficulties in relation to command between the French and American officers, the French government commissioned Washington a lieutenant-general of the empire. This allowed him to take precedence of Rochambeau and made him commander of the allied armies. On all points of precedence and etiquette the French officers were to give place to the American officers. (See *Newport, French Fleet and Army at.*)

French Forts in the West. The French, for the security of the interior territory of America, built a fort in the Illinois country, in latitude 41° 30′, as a check upon the several tribes of the Sioux who were not in alliance with them. They also built a fort at the junction of the Illinois and a large tributary, and five other forts from the junction of the Missouri and Mississippi rivers to Kaskaskia. The fort at the latter place was regarded as of great importance, because it was "the pass and outlet of the convoys of Louisiana and of the traders and hunters of the post at Detroit, and that of the greater part of the savage nations." Another, on the banks of the Ohio, opposite the mouth of the Tennessee River, was considered "the key of the colony of Louisiana," and would obstruct the designs of the English in alienating the Indians of the Ohio. It would also, Vaudreuil thought, restrain the incursions of the Cherokees on the Wabash and Mississippi rivers, check the Chickasaws, and by this means secure the navigation of the Mississippi and a free communication between Louisiana and Canada. There were at that time about sixty forts in Canada, most of which had around them fine self-supporting settlements; and the establishments, posts, and settlements in Louisiana at that time (1756) employed about two thousand soldiers.

French Interest in the American Union. When, on the 2d of June, 1779, the Legislature of Virginia unanimously ratified the treaties of alliance and commerce between France and the United States, and the governor had informed the French minister at Philadelphia of the fact, that functionary at once notified his government. Vergennes, on September 27, instructed the minister at Philadelphia (Luzerne) in these words: "During the war it is essential, both for the United States and for us, that their union should be as perfect as possible. When they shall be left to themselves, the general confederation will have much difficulty in maintaining itself, and will, perhaps, be replaced by separate confederations. Should this revolution take place, it will weaken the United States, which have not now, and never will have, real and respectable strength except by their union. But it is for themselves alone to make these reflections. We have no right to present them for their consideration, and we have no interest whatever to see America play the part of a power. The possibility of a dissolution of the general confederation (see *Disunion threatened*), and the consequent suppression of Congress, leads us to think that nothing can be more conformable to our political interest than separate acts by which each state shall ratify the treaties concluded with France; because in this way every state will be found separately connected with us, whatever may be the fortune of the general confederation." The policy of the French, as well as the Spaniards, towards the United States was purely selfish from beginning to end. The two Bourbon monarchs hated republicanism, and feared the revolution as menacing thrones; and the chief motive in favoring the Americans, especially of France, was to injure England, humble her pride, and weaken her power.

French Mills, AMERICAN ARMY IN WINTER-QUARTERS AT. After the battle at Chrysler's Field (which see) the American army went into winter-quarters at French Mills, on the Salmon River. The waters of that stream were freezing, for it was late in November (1813). General Brown proceeded to make the troops as comfortable as possible. Huts were constructed, yet, as the winter came on very severe, the soldiers suffered much; for many of them had lost their blankets and extra clothing in the disasters near Grenadier Island, at the beginning of their voyage down the St. Lawrence, and in the battle at Chrysler's Field. Until the huts were built, even the sick had no shelter but tents. Provisions were scarce, and the surrounding country was a wilderness. They were in the midst of the cold of a Canadian winter, for they were on the 45th degree of north latitude. In their distress they were tempted by British emissaries, who circulated placards among the soldiers containing the following words: "NOTICE.—All American soldiers who may wish to quit the unnatural war in which they are at present engaged will receive the arrears due them by the American government, to the extent of five months' pay, on their arrival at the British outposts. No man shall be required to serve against his own country." It is believed that not a single soldier of American birth was enticed away by this allurement. In February, 1814, the army began to move away

LANDING-PLACE OF TROOPS ON THE SALMON RIVER.

from their winter encampment. The flotilla was destroyed and the barracks were burned. Brown, with a larger portion of the troops, marched for Sackett's Harbor, and the remainder accompanied Wilkinson, the commander-in-chief, to Plattsburg.

French Neutrals. (See *Acadians*, and *Acadia, English Settlers in.*)

French Politics in America. The progress of the French Revolution, decisively begun at the meeting of the States-General (May 5, 1789) was contemporaneous with the organization of the American Republic under the new Constitution. The Americans naturally sympathized with the French people avowedly struggling to obtain political freedom; and the influence of that sympathy was speedily seen in the rapid development of the Republican party in the United States. The supposed advent of Liberty in France had been hailed with enthusiasm in America, but common-sense and a wise prudence caused many thinking Americans to doubt the genuineness of French democracy. This tended to a more distinct defining of party lines between the Federalists and Republicans. This enthusiasm was shown by public festivals in honor of the French revolutionists. At a celebration in honor of the temporary conquest of the Austrian Netherland by Dumouriez (1792), held in Boston, Jan. 24, 1793, a select party of three hundred sat down to a feast in Faneuil Hall, over which Samuel Adams, then Lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, presided. Speeches, toasts, music — all were indicative of sympathy for the French cause. The children of the Boston schools were paraded in the streets, and to each one was given a cake imprinted with the words "Liberty and Equality." Similar celebrations were held in other places; and the public feeling in favor of the French was intensified by the arrival of M. Genet as representative of the French Republic. That was on the 9th of April, 1793. He brought with him news of the declaration of war against England. It had reached New York five days before. More fiercely than ever the two parties were arrayed against each other; and now the Federalists were first called the "British party," and the Republicans the "French party." So long as the French Republic, so miscalled, lasted, the politics of France exerted marked influence in the United States. (See *Genet in the United States.*)

French Privateers. On the arrival of Citizen Genet at Charleston, S. C., he fitted out privateers to depredate on British commerce, issued commissions for their commanders, and conferred authority upon French consuls each to create himself into an admiralty court to decide upon the disposition of prizes brought into port by French cruisers. Genet had commissioned two, when the United States government interfered. He persisted, in defiance of the government, and very soon quite a number were afloat — namely, *Sans Culotte, Citizen Genet, Cincinnatus, Vainqueur de la Bastile, L'Embuscade, Anti-George, Carmagniole, Roland,* and *Concord.* *L'Embuscade*, the frigate that brought Genet to America, and the *Genet*, were both fitted out as privateers at Charleston. The others went out of the ports of Savannah, Boston, and Philadelphia. These captured more than fifty English vessels, quite a number of them within American waters. After Genet had been warned that the fitting-out of privateers in American ports was a violation of law, he had the *Little Sarah* (a vessel captured by one of the privateers and sent to Philadelphia) made into a letter-of-marque under the very eyes of the government, and called the vessel *The Little Democrat.* Governor Mifflin prepared to seize the vessel before it should leave port, when Jefferson, tender towards the French minister, waited on Genet in person to persuade him not to send the vessel to sea. Genet stormed, and declared his crew would resist. He finally promised that the vessel should only drop down the river a little way. That "little way" was far out of the reach of militia or other forces. Very soon afterwards, in violation of his solemn assurance, Genet ordered *The Little Democrat* to go to sea, and others followed. In the last year of John Adams's administration, and before there was a final settlement of difficulties with France, quite a large number of French privateers yet at sea fell into the hands of American cruisers. These, with others previously taken, made the number captured about fifty. There were also recaptures of numerous merchant vessels which had been previously taken by the French.

French Refugees in America. The colony of Huguenots planted in America by Coligni (see *Huguenots in America*) disappeared, but the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (which see) in 1685 caused another and larger emigration to America. The refugees in England had been kindly assisted there, and after the accession of William and Mary Parliament voted $75,000 to be distributed "among persons of quality and all such as, through age or infirmity, were unable to support themselves." The king sent a large body of them to Virginia, and lands were allotted them on the James River; others purchased lands of the proprietaries of Carolina, and settled on the Santee River; while others —merchants and artisans—settled in Charleston. These Huguenots were a valuable acquisition to the colonies. In the South they planted vineyards and made wine. A large number of them settled in the province of New York, chiefly in Westchester and Ulster counties, and in the city of New York. (See *Leisler.*)

French Settlements in the West. Callières, who succeeded Frontenac as governor of Canada in 1699, sent messages to the Five Nations with the alternative of peace or an exterminating war, against which, it was alleged, the English could not render them assistance. Their jealousy had been excited against the latter by a claim of Bellomont to build forts on their territory, and they were induced to send a deputation to a grand assembly at Montreal of all the Indian allies of the French. There a treaty of friendship was concluded; and so the

French, who had been restrained by the hostility of the Iroquois Confederacy, secured a free passage towards the Mississippi. Almost immediately one hundred settlers, with a Jesuit leader, were sent to take possession of the strait between lakes Erie and St. Clair. They built a fort, and called the spot Detroit, the French name for a strait or sound. It soon became the favorite settlement of western Canada. Villages of French settlers soon grew up around the Jesuit missionary stations at Kaskaskia and Cahokia, on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, between the mouths of the Illinois and Ohio. These movements occasioned no little alarm to the English in New York and New England.

French Spoliations. The United States made claims upon the government of France from time to time for depredations committed upon American commerce under the rule of the Directory (which see), the First Consul, and the Empire. Negotiations to this end had been long continued by various ministers from the United States, but nothing satisfactory had been obtained or definitely settled. The change in the government of France by the Revolution of 1830 was a favorable time for Mr. Rives, the American minister to France, to again propose a settlement. The French had set up a counterclaim of the non-fulfilment of the treaty of 1778; but the American government argued that subsequent events had exonerated the United States from all demands under that treaty. Mr. Rives succeeded in negotiating a treaty by which the long-pending controversy was closed. By it the French government agreed to pay to the United States, in complete satisfaction of all claims of American citizens for spoliations, nearly $5,000,000, in six annual instalments, $300,000 to be allowed by the American government to France for French citizens for ancient supplies (see *Beaumarchais*), accounts, or other claims. The United States Senate ratified the treaty, but the French Chamber of Deputies refused to make the appropriation to carry it out, and an unpleasant dispute arose between the two governments. The matter was finally settled on the basis of the treaty in 1836.

French, THE, AND THE CHICKASAWS. For a long time the Chickasaws, who were friendly with the English, and obstinately opposed the progress of the French up the Mississippi River, presented the only obstacle to a regular communication between Louisiana and Canada. In 1736 an expedition, consisting of two hundred Frenchmen and four hundred Indians, was sent from Canada to meet a party from New Orleans for the purpose of extirpating the Chickasaws. The party from below not coming up in time, and the party from Canada, looking with contempt upon the Chickasaws, began the war on their own account by attacking the Chickasaw towns. Three hundred warriors instantly gathered, gave battle to their assailants, and completely defeated them. Full forty Frenchmen and eight of their Indian allies were killed, and the remainder were made prisoners and afterwards tortured at the stake.

French, THE, FIRST COLLISION OF, WITH NEW-ENGLANDERS. Nova Scotia (see *Acadia*), granted to Sir William Alexander, passed into the hands of a joint-stock association of French merchants, called "The Hundred Associates, or Company of New France," at the head of which was Cardinal Richelieu. In 1629, by the aid of a fleet under Sir David Kertk, who captured Quebec (see *Canada, Conquest of*), Sir William gained temporary possession of Nova Scotia; but it, with Canada and Cape Breton, was restored to the French (1632) by treaty. The Hundred Associates sent a governor to rule Nova Scotia, or Acadia, whose western limits were undefined. Meanwhile enterprising Plymouth colonists had obtained a grant on the Kennebec, and were carrying on a profitable trade with the Indians. Thus encouraged, they pushed eastward and established a trading-post on the Penobscot, and another still farther east, at Machias. The French regarded this movement as an intrusion, and sent a pinnace to the Penobscot to "displant" the English there. The people of Plymouth sent two armed vessels to recover the post, but failed. The same fate overtook the one at Machias the next year (1633). The French gave bills on France for the goods, but drove away the settlers. The New-Englanders were notified by the French commander that they would not be allowed to trade eastward of Pemaquid Point, a promontory about halfway between the Kennebec and the Penobscot. (See *Pemaquid.*) Too feeble to resist, the Plymouth people withdrew.

French Treaties Declared Void. The French republic having repeatedly violated the treaties between France and the United States made in 1778, the Congress, by act passed July 6, 1798, declared those treaties void.

French Vessels Captured (1747). A fleet of thirty-eight sail was sent from France, under M. de la Jonquiere, a part of which was appointed to convoy six East India ships, and the rest, with transports and merchantmen full of stores, goods, and merchandise, were destined for Canada and Nova Scotia. English fleets, under Admirals Anson and Warren, that sailed in pursuit of the French vessels, fell in with them on May 3, and, after a sharp battle, captured six of the French men-of-war, all their merchant vessels, and took nearly five thousand prisoners. About seven hundred of the French and five hundred of the English were killed and wounded. The treasure taken by these admirals was afterwards conveyed in twenty wagons to the Bank of England. The estimated loss of the French was over $7,000,000.

French West Indies, BRITISH MAKE WAR UPON THE. Canada conquered, the British turned their arms against the French West India islands, in which the colonies participated. Guadeloupe had already been taken. General Monckton, after submitting his commission as governor to the Council of New York, sailed from that port (January, 1762) with two line-of-battle ships, one hundred transports, and twelve hundred regulars and colonial troops. Major Gates (afterwards adjutant-general of the Continental army) went with Monckton as aide-de-camp, and carried to England the news of the capture of Martinique. Richard Montgomery (afterwards a general in the Continental army) held the rank of captain in this expedition. The Colonial troops were led by General Phineas Lyman. (See *Lake George, Battle of.*) Grenada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent's—indeed, every island in the Caribbean group possessed by the French—fell into the hands of the English. (See *Treaty of Paris.*) The French fleet was ruined, and French merchantmen were driven from the seas. British vessels, including those of New York and New England, now obtained the carrying-trade of those islands; also, under safe conducts and flags of truce, that of Santo Domingo.

Frenchtown (Raisin River), MASSACRE AT. In the middle of December, 1812, General Harrison wrote to the War Department that if no political or other necessity existed for the recovery of Michigan and the invasion of Canada, the enormous expense of transportation and the sufferings of men and beasts in the task pleaded for a remission of efforts to attain that recovery until spring. He was directed to use his own judgment in the matter, and was assured that immediate measures would be taken for recovering the control of Lake Erie to the Americans. He was instructed, in case he should penetrate Canada, not to offer the inhabitants anything but protection; and, secondly, not to make temporary acquisitions, but to proceed so surely that he might hold fast any territory he should acquire. Other troops having arrived, Harrison resolved to attempt the capture of Fort Malden. His whole effective force did not exceed six thousand three hundred men. He designated the brigades from Pennsylvania and Virginia, and one from Ohio, under General Simon Perkins, as the right wing of the army; and the Kentuckians, under General James Wilkinson, as the left wing. So arranged, the army pressed forward towards the rapids of the Maumee, the designated general rendezvous. Winchester, with eight hundred young Kentuckians, reached there on the 10th of January, 1813, and established a fortified camp, when he learned that a party of British and Indians were occupying Frenchtown, on the Raisin River (now Monroe, Mich.), twenty miles south of Detroit. He sent a detachment, under Colonels Allen and Lewis, to protect the inhabitants in that region, who drove the enemy out of the hamlet of about thirty families, and held it until the arrival of Winchester on the 20th with about three hundred men. General Proctor was then at Fort Malden, eighteen miles distant, with a considerable body of British and Indians. With fifteen hundred of these he crossed the Detroit River and marched stealthily at night to destroy the Americans. Winchester was informed late in the evening of the 21st that a foe was approaching. He did not believe it, and at midnight was in perfect repose. The sentinels were posted, but, the weather being intensely cold, pickets were sent out upon roads leading to the town. Just as the drummer-boy was beating the reveille in the gray twilight of the 22d, the sharp crack of a rifle, followed by the rattle of musketry, awoke the sleepers. Bomb-shells and canister-shot immediately succeeded in a shower upon the camp. The Americans, seizing their arms, tried to defend themselves. Very soon the soldiers fled to the woods, when the savages, who swarmed there, smote them fearfully with gleaming hatchets. The British and their dusky allies made it a war of extermination. Winchester was captured, and he concluded an arrangement with Proctor to surren-

MONROE, FROM THE BATTLE-GROUND.

der his troops on condition that ample provision should be made for their protection against the barbarians. The promise was given and immediately violated. Proctor, knowing Harrison (who had advanced to the Maumee) to be near, hastened towards Malden with his captives, leaving the sick and wounded prisoners behind. The Indians followed awhile, when they turned back, murdered and scalped those who were unable to travel as captives, set fire to the houses, and took many prisoners to Detroit to procure exorbitant prices for their ransom. Proctor's indifference to this outrage, and the dreadful suspicion, which his character warranted, that he encouraged the butchery of the defenceless people, was keenly felt all through the West, particularly in Kentucky, for most of the victims were of the flower of society in that state; and for a long time afterwards the most inspiriting war-cry of the Kentucky soldiers was, "Remember the River Raisin!"

Freneau, PHILIP, called "the Poet of the Revolution," was born in New York city, Jan. 2, 1752; died in Monmouth County, N. J., Dec. 18, 1832. He graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1771. He was of Huguenot descent, and evinced a talent for rhyming as early as the age of seventeen years, when he wrote a poetical *History of the Prophet Jonah*. He was in the West Indies during a part of the war for independence, and while on a voyage in 1780 he was captured by a British cruiser. After his release he wrote many patriotic songs, and was engaged in editorial duties, notably on the Democratic *National Gazette*, of Philadelphia, the organ of Mr. Jefferson and his party. He continued to edit and publish newspapers. His productions contributed largely to animate his countrymen while struggling for independence. An edition of his *Revolutionary Poems, with a Memoir and Notes*, by E. A. Duyckinck, was published in New York in 1865. His poetry was highly commended by Scotch and English literary critics.

Friendly Association. In the middle of the last century the descendants of William Penn, who succeeded to the proprietorship of Pennsylvania, departed from the just course pursued by the great founder of the commonwealth towards the Indians and the white people, and exasperated both by their greed and covetousness. The Indians were made thoroughly discontented by the frauds practised upon them in the purchase of lands and the depredations of a banditti called traders. (See *Walking Purchase.*) So much had they become alienated from the English that in 1755 the Delawares and others joined the French in making war. For some time the Friends, or Quakers, had observed with sorrow the treatment of the Indians by Thomas and John Penn and the traders, and, impelled by their uniform sympathy with the oppressed, they formed a society in 1756 called "The Friendly Association for Regaining and Preserving Peace with the Indians by Pacific Measures." The society was a continual thorn in the sides of the proprietors and Indian traders, for the active members of the association watched the interests of the red men with keen vigilance, attended every treaty, and prevented a vast amount of fraud and cheating in the dealings of the white people with the natives. Charles Thomson, afterwards secretary of the Continental Congress, was an efficient co-worker with them, making truthful reports of the proceedings at treaties, and preventing false or garbled statements. (See *Easton, Treaty at.*) The Friendly Association continued until 1764.

Fries's Insurrection. A second insurrection broke out in Pennsylvania early in 1799. A direct tax had been levied, among other things, on houses, arranged in classes. A means for making that classification was by measuring windows. The German inhabitants of Northampton, Bucks, and Montgomery counties made such violent opposition to this measurement that those engaged in it were compelled to desist. Warrants were issued for the arrest of opposers of the law; and in the village of Bethlehem the marshal, having about thirty prisoners, was set upon by a party of full fifty horsemen, headed by a man named Fries. The President sent troops to maintain the laws. No opposition was made to them, and Fries and about thirty others were arrested and taken to Philadelphia, where their leader was indicted for treason, tried twice, each time found guilty, but finally pardoned. Several others were tried for the same offence. While these trials were going on, Duane, editor of the *Aurora* (Bache had died of yellow fever), abused the officers and troops, who, finding no law to touch him, sent a deputation of their own number to chastise him, which they did on his own premises.

Frobisher, MARTIN, was born at Doncaster, Yorkshire, England; died at Plymouth, Nov. 7, 1594. He was a mariner by profession, and yearned for an opportunity to go in search of a northwest passage to India. For fifteen years he tried in vain to get pecuniary aid to fit out ships. At length the Earl of Warwick and others privately fitted out two small barks of twenty-five tons each and a pinnace, with the approval of Queen Elizabeth, and with these he

MARTIN FROBISHER.

sailed from Deptford in June, 1576, declaring that he would succeed or never come back alive. As the flotilla passed the palace at Greenwich, the queen, sitting at an open window, waved her hand towards the commander in token of good-will and farewell. Touching at Greenland, Frobisher crossed over and coasted up the shores of Labrador to latitude 63°, where he entered what he supposed to be a strait, but which was really a bay, which yet bears the name of Frobisher's Inlet. He landed, and promptly took possession of the country around in the name of his queen. Trying to sail farther northward, he was barred by pack-ice, when he turned and sailed for England, bearing a heavy black stone which he believed contained metal. He gave the stone to a man whose wife, in a passion, cast it into the fire. The husband snatched the glowing mineral from the flames and quenched it in some vinegar, when it glittered like gold. On fusing it, some particles of the precious metal were found. When this fact became known a gold fever was produced. Money was freely offered for fitting-out vessels to go for more of the mineral. The queen placed a ship of the royal navy at Frobisher's disposal, and he sailed, with two other vessels of thirty tons each, from Harwich in 1577, instructed to search for gold, and not for the northwest passage. The vessels were laden with the black ore on the shores of Frobisher's Inlet, and on the return of the expedition to England a commission was appointed to determine the value of the discovery. Very little gold was found in the cargoes, yet faith was not exhausted, and Frobisher sailed in May, 1578, with fifteen ships in search of the precious metal. Storms dispersed the fleet. Some turned back, two of them went to the bottom of the sea, and three or four of them returned laden with the worthless stones. Frobisher had won the honor of a discoverer, and as the first European who penetrated towards the Arctic circle to the sixty-third degree. For these exploits, and for services in fighting the Spanish armada, he was knighted by Elizabeth, and in 1590–92 he commanded a squadron sent against the Spaniards. In 1594 he was sent with two ships to help Henry IV. of France, and in a battle at Brest (Nov. 7) he was mortally wounded.

Front Royal, BATTLE AT. On May 23, 1862, General Ewell fell with crushing force, almost without warning, upon the little garrison of one thousand men, under Colonel Kenly, at Front Royal. Kenly was charged with the protection of the roads and bridges between Front Royal and Strasburg. His troops were chiefly New-Yorkers and Pennsylvanians. Kenly made a gallant defence, but was driven from the town. He made another stand, but was pushed across the Shenandoah. He attempted to burn the bridge behind him, but failed, when Ewell's cavalry in pursuit overtook him. Kenly again gave battle, in which he was severely wounded, when seven hundred of his men, with a section of rifled ten-pounders and his whole supply train, fell into the hands of the Confederates.

Frontenac, FORT (or Cataraquoi), CAPTURE OF. After the repulse of the English at Ticonderoga (July 8, 1758), Colonel John Bradstreet urged General Abercrombie to send an expedition against Fort Frontenac, at the foot of Lake Ontario. He detached three thousand men for the purpose, and gave Colonel Bradstreet command of the expedition. He went by the way of Oswego, and crossed the lake in bateaux, having with him three hundred bateau-men. His troops were chiefly provincials, and were furnished with eight pieces of cannon and two mortars. They landed within a mile of the fort on the evening of Aug. 25, constructed batteries, and opened them upon the fort at short range two days afterwards. Finding the works untenable, the garrison surrendered (Aug. 27) without much resistance. The Indians having previously deserted, there were only one hundred and ten prisoners. The spoils were sixty cannons, sixteen mortars, a large quantity of small-arms, provisions and military stores, and nine armed vessels. On his return, Bradstreet assisted in building Fort Stanwix, in the Mohawk Valley, on the site of Rome, Oneida County.

Frontenac, LOUIS DE BUADE (Count de), was born in France in 1620; died at Quebec, Nov. 28, 1698. In the military service, he was made a colonel at seventeen years of age, and was an eminent lieutenant-general at twenty-nine, and covered with decorations and scars. Selected by Marshal Turenne to lead troops sent for the relief of Canada, he was made governor of that province in 1672, and built Fort Frontenac (now Kingston), at the foot of Lake Ontario, in 1673. (See *La Salle.*) He was recalled in 1682, but was reappointed in 1689, when the French dominions in America were on the brink of ruin. With great energy he carried on war against the English in New York and New England, and their allies the Iroquois. Early in 1690 an expedition which he sent towards Albany desolated Schenectady; and the same year he successfully resisted a land and naval force sent against Canada. He was in Montreal when an Indian runner told him of the approach to the St. Lawrence of Colonel Schuyler. (See *King William's War.*) Frontenac, then seventy years of age, called out his Indian allies, and, taking a tomahawk in his hand, he danced the war-dance, and chanted the war-song in their presence and then led them successfully against the foe. He afterwards repulsed Phipps at Quebec (see *Phipps*), having been informed of his expedition by an Indian runner from Pemaquid. So important was that repulse considered that King Louis caused a medal to be struck with the legend, "France victorious in the New World." This success was followed by an expedition sent by Frontenac against the Mohawks in 1696; and he led forces in person against the Onondagas the same year. Frontenac was the terror of the Iroquois, for his courage and activity were wonderful. He restored the fallen fortunes of France in America, and died soon afterwards.

Frontiers Protected. The English frontier settlements in the West and South needed protection in 1757. Colonel Stanwix was ordered, with nearly two thousand men, composed of a battalion of Royal Americans, and Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia provincials, to the defence of the Western frontiers; and a part of a battalion of Royal Americans, with some provincial troops, under Colonel Bouquet, were sent to protect the frontiers of the Carolinas.

Frontiers Threatened (1755). After Dunbar's precipitate retreat to Philadelphia, on the defeat of Braddock (which see), the frontiers of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia were uncovered, and war parties in the interest of the French took advantage of this weakness and began hostilities. The Governor of Pennsylvania (Morris) called loudly for men and money to defend the frontiers of that province. Philadelphians urged the Assembly to make a liberal grant. Instead of that they voted a tax of £50,000 to be levied on real and personal estates, "not excepting those of the proprietaries"—a course which they well knew to be contrary to the governor's instructions. (See *Proprietary Innovations.*) Wealthy Philadelphians offered to pay the amount of the proportion of the tax that might be levied on the proprietors, but there was a principle involved, and the Assembly evaded the offer. The governor stood out, and the bill failed to pass. Dunbar's regiment went back towards the frontiers and afforded temporary protection.

Fruit Culture in the United States has had an amazing growth. Until within about fifty years it was hardly deserving of notice in the census. It is said that a little more than fifty years ago (1826) there was not a nursery for the sale of fruit-trees in all New England, and the neglected gardens yielded only a small quantity of small fruit, chiefly currants. The first horticultural society in the country was founded in 1829. Now (1876) fruit-raising of every kind is becoming an important industry. The products of our orchards annually amount in value to full $50,000,000.

Fry, Joseph, was born at Andover, Mass., in April, 1711; died at Fryeburg, Me., in 1794. He was an ensign in the army that captured Louisburg in 1745, and a colonel in the British army at the capture of Fort William Henry (which see) by Montcalm in 1757. He escaped and reached Fort Edward. In 1775 Congress appointed him brigadier-general, but in the spring of 1776 he resigned on account of infirmity.

Fry, Joshua, was born in Somersetshire, England; died in Maryland, May 31, 1754. He was educated at Oxford, and was professor of mathematics in the College of William and Mary, in Virginia. He served in public civil life in Virginia, and in 1754 was intrusted with the command of an expedition against the French on the head-waters of the Ohio. He died at a place at the mouth of Will's Creek (now Cumberland) while conducting the expedition. He had been colonel of the militia (1750) and a member of the governor's council.

Frye, James, was born at Andover, Mass., in 1709; died Jan. 8, 1776. He served in several local offices, and in the army at the capture of Louisburg in 1755. At the opening of the Revolution he commanded the Essex Regiment (Massachusetts), taking an active part in the Battle of Bunker's Hill. He afterwards commanded a brigade of the army investing Boston.

Fugitive Slave Law (1818). The domestic slave-trade increased the liability of free persons of color being kidnapped, under the provisions of the Fugitive Slave Act of 1793. A petition was presented to Congress from the Yearly Meeting of Friends, or Quakers, at Baltimore, praying for further provisions for protecting free persons of color. This had followed a bill brought in by a committee at the instigation of Pindall, a member from Virginia, for giving new stringency to the Fugitive Slave Act. While this bill was pending, a member from Rhode Island (Burritt) moved to instruct the committee on the Quaker memorial to inquire into the expediency of additional provisions for the suppression of the foreign slave-trade. Pindall's bill was warmly opposed by members from the free-labor states as going entirely beyond the constitutional provision on the subject of fugitives from labor. They contended that the personal rights of one class of citizens were not to be trampled upon to secure the rights of property of other citizens. The bill was supported by the Southern members and a few Northern "doughfaces" (which see); also by Speaker Henry Clay; and it passed the House of Representatives by a vote of eighty-four to sixty-nine. Among the yeas were ten from New York, five from Massachusetts, four from Pennsylvania, and one from New Jersey. It passed the Senate, after several important amendments, by a vote of seventeen to thirteen. Meanwhile some of its Northern supporters seem to have been alarmed by thunders of indignation from their constituents, and when it reached the House it was laid on the table, and was there allowed to die.

Fugitive Slave Law (Personal Liberty Bills), The First. In 1793 an act was passed by Congress for the rendition of fugitive slaves. It provided that the owner of the slave, or "servant," as it was termed in the act, his agent or attorney, might seize the fugitive and carry him before any United States judge, or before any magistrate of the city, town, or county in which the arrest was made; such magistrate, on being satisfied that the charges against the fugitive were true, should give a certificate to that effect, which was a sufficient warrant for remanding the person seized back to slavery. Any person in any way obstructing such seizure or removal, or harboring or concealing such fugitive, was liable to a penalty of $500. For some time the law attracted very little attention, but finally this summary violation of the right of personal liberty without a trial by jury, or any appeal on points of law, was denounced as dangerous and unconstitutional; and most of the free-labor states passed acts forbidding their magistrates, under severe penalties, to take any part in carrying this law into effect. It became a dead letter until revived in 1850.

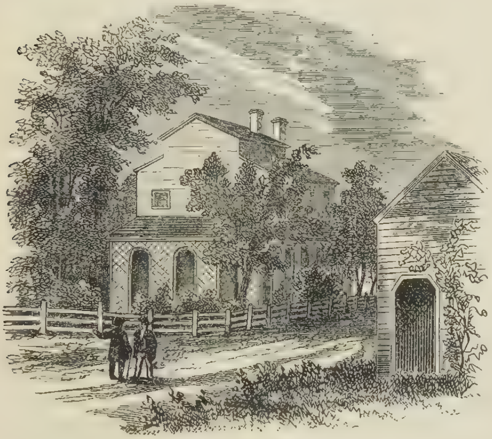
Fugitive Slave Law, THE (1850). One of the acts contemplated by Mr. Clay's "Omnibus Bill" (which see) was for the rendition of fugitive slaves to their owners, under the provision of clause 3, section 2, article 4 of the National Constitution. In September, 1850, a bill to that effect was passed, and became a law by the signature of President Fillmore. The bill was drawn up by Senator James M. Mason, of Virginia, and in some of its features was made very offensive to the sentiments and feelings of the people of the free-labor states. It provided that the master of a fugitive slave, or his agent, might go into any state or territory of the Republic and, with or without legal warrant there obtained, seize such fugitive and take him forthwith before any judge or commissioner, whose duty it should be to hear and determine the case. On satisfactory proof being furnished the judge or commissioner, such as the affidavit, in writing, or other acceptable testimony, by the pursuing owner or agent, that the arrested person "owes labor" to the party that arrested him, or his principal, it was made the duty of such judge or commissioner to use the power of his office to assist the claimant to take the fugitive back into bondage. It was further provided that in no hearing or trial under the act should *the testimony of such alleged fugitive be admitted in evidence;* and that the parties claiming the fugitive should not be molested in their work of carrying the person back "by any process issued by any court, judge, or magistrate, or any person whomsoever;" and any citizen might be compelled to assist in the capture and rendition of a slave. This last clause of the act was so offensive to every sentiment of humanity and justice, so repugnant to the feelings of the people of the free-labor states, and so contrary to the Anglo-Saxon principle of fair play, that, while the habitual respect for law by the American people caused a general acquiescence in the requirements of the Fugitive Slave Law, there was rebellion against it in every Christian heart. It was seen that free negroes might, by the perjury of kidnappers and the denial of the right to defence allowed to the vilest criminal, be carried away into hopeless slavery, beyond the reach of pity, mercy, or law. This perception of possible wrong that would follow the execution of the Fugitive Slave Law caused several free-labor states to pass laws for the protection of their colored population. (See *Personal Liberty Laws.*)

Fuller, SARAH MARGARET, a vigorous and luminous writer on social subjects, was born at Cambridge, Mass., May 23, 1810; drowned, July 16, 1850. A bright girl, at the age of seventeen she read French, Italian, Spanish, and German fluently. She became a teacher in Boston in 1835, and, two years later, in Providence, R. I. She formed classes for young ladies in Boston for training in conversation, and the next year (1840) became editor of the *Dial*, the organ of the Transcendentalists (which see), to which she contributed articles on the social condition of women. In 1844 she became literary editor of the *New York Tribune.* Miss Fuller travelled in Europe, and, visiting Italy in 1847, she married the Marquis D' Ossoli. In 1850, returning to her native country with her husband and child, the vessel was wrecked on the southern coast of Long Island, and all three were drowned. Her writings are held in the highest estimation, and have made a deep impression upon features of social life in America.

Fulton, ROBERT, was born at Little Britain, Lancaster Co., Penn., in 1765; died in New York, Feb. 21, 1815. He received a common-school education, became a miniature painter, and, at the age of twenty, was practising that profession in Philadelphia, by which he made enough money to buy a small farm in Washington County, on which he placed his mother. Then he went to England, studied painting under Benjamin West, became a civil engineer, and made himself familiar with the steam-engine, then just improved by Watt. He devised various machines, among them an excavator for scooping out the channels of aqueducts. He wrote and published essays on canals and canal navigation in 1795–96. He went to Paris in 1797, and remained there seven years with Joel Barlow, studying languages and sciences, and invented a torpedo. This he offered to the French and English governments, but both rejected the invention, and in December, 1806, he arrived in New York. He went to the seat of government, where the models and drawings of his torpedo made a favorable impression. In 1807 he perfected his steamboat for navigating the Hudson, having been aided by Robert R. Livingston, with whom he had been acquainted in Paris. Livingston had made experiments in steamboating as early as 1798, when he was granted the exclusive privilege of navigating the waters

ROBERT FULTON.

of the state by steam. Fulton was finally included in the provisions of the act, and in September, 1807, the *Clermont*, the first steamboat that navigated the Hudson, made a successful voyage from New York to Albany and back. She travelled at the rate of five miles an hour. At the same time, Fulton regarded his torpedo as the greater and more beneficial invention, as he believed it would establish the "liberty of the seas." His government, in 1810, appropriated $5000 to enable him to try further experiments with his torpedo; but a commission decided against it, and he was compelled to abandon his scheme. Steam navigation was a success. He built ferry-boats to run across the North (Hudson) and East rivers, and built vessels for several steamboat companies in different parts of the United States. In 1814 he was appointed by the government engineer to superintend the construction of one or more floating batteries. He built a war steamer (the first ever constructed), which he called the *Demologos*. She had the speed of two and a half miles an hour, and was deemed a marvel. Fulton died, and she was named *Fulton the First*, taken to the Brooklyn Navy-yard and there used as a receiving-ship until January, 1829, when she was accidentally blown up.

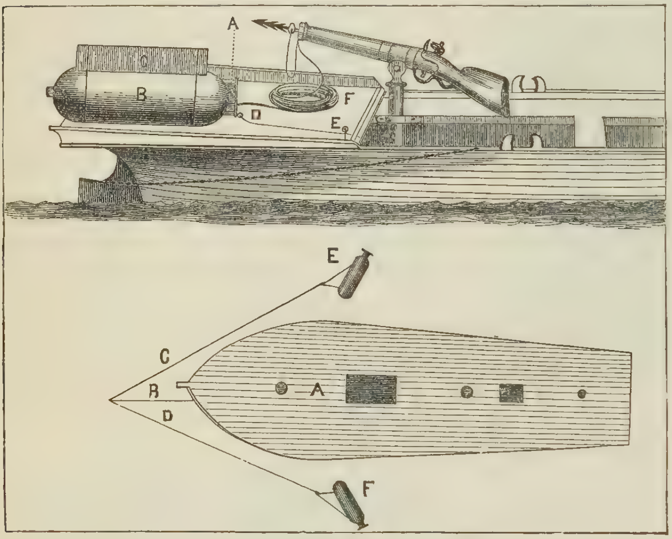


FULTON'S BIRTHPLACE.

Fulton's Torpedoes. While in France, Robert Fulton had pondered the idea of destroying ships by introducing floating mines under their bottoms, in submarine boats. The idea was doubtless suggested by a contrivance of the kind by David Bushnell, a young man of Connecticut, exhibited in the harbor of New York in 1776. Fulton was filled with the benevolent idea that the introduction of such secret and destructive agencies would have a tendency to do away with naval warfare, and thus would be established what he called the "liberty of the seas." Impelled by this idea, he left France and went to England, in 1804, to offer his invention to the British government. By permission, he successfully exhibited his "infernal machine," by blowing up the *Dorothea*, an old Danish brig (Oct. 15, 1805), in Walmer Road, not far from Deal. In the presence of a large number of naval officers and others, he sent his torpedo under the vessel, which was raised about six feet by the explosion of the floating mine and broken in two in the middle, and in a few minutes nothing was seen of her but some floating fragments. The torpedo was composed of a cylinder containing one hundred and eighty pounds of gunpowder. Clock-work was affixed, which, at the end of a given time, caused a gun-flint-lock to strike fire and ignite the powder. The torpedo was made to float under the vessel with the tide. The experiment was perfectly satisfactory, but the British government would not adopt the implement, because it might give to weaker maritime nations a system of naval warfare that would make them equal in strength to Great Britain, the mistress of the seas. In 1810 Fulton laid the matter before the government of the United States. The subject caused much discussion; very successful experiments were tried, and Fulton proposed a "torpedo war" against England. This discussion produced some agitation in Great Britain, and the government was reproached for allowing such an invention to go to America. But the United States government, after appropriating $5000 to try experiments, failed to perceive the usefulness of the torpedo, and Fulton's application failed here also. Fulton felt so certain that the torpedo would yet play a conspicuous part in the history of nations, that, after he had completed his experiments in steam navigation, and had seen the triumph of his genius, he wrote to Joel Barlow, giving an account of it, and said: "However, I will not admit that it [steam navigation] is *half so important* as the torpedo system of defence and attack, for out of it will grow the liberty of the seas, an object of infinite importance to the welfare of America and every civilized country." Fulton's torpedoes were of various constructions. The one which he considered the most effective was a contrivance to be exploded by means of clock-work. He proposed to fill a copper case with one hundred pounds or more of gunpowder, with a cork

DESTRUCTION OF THE DOROTHEA.

cushion to buoy it up. A gun-lock was to be so attached as to be operated upon by the clock-work. The latter was so made as to run a certain number of minutes before operating upon the lock. The torpedo was to be suspended in a water-tight pine box. This was to be connected with a harpoon by a line of such length that when the harpoon should be fired from a gun in the stern of a row-boat into the bow of an enemy's vessel, the torpedo or mine would swing around to a position under the bottom of the ship-of-war, about amidships. The operation of attack is shown in the annexed drawing, in which A is a platform on which the torpedo rests in the boat; B is the torpedo, and C the water-tight pine box; D is the pin to be drawn to allow the clock-work to start. The harpooner stationed at the gun steers the boat and fires according to his judgment. The diagram on the lower part of the drawing shows a bird's-eye view of a vessel (A) at anchor; B, her cable; E, F, two torpedoes; C, D, the coupling-lines, twelve feet long. On touching the vessel's cable, the torpedoes were drawn under her by the tide. In this way the *Dorothea* was attacked.



TORPEDOES.

Fundamental Constitutions. The proprietors of the Carolinas, wishing to establish an aristocratic government, in feudal form, employed the Earl of Shaftesbury and John Locke to frame one. They completed the task in March, 1669, and named the instrument "Fundamental Constitutions." It provided for two orders of nobility: the higher to consist of landgraves, or earls, the lower of caciques, or barons. The territory was to be divided into counties, each containing four hundred and eighty thousand acres, with one landgrave and two caciques. There were also to be lords of manors, who, like the nobles, might hold courts and exercise judicial functions, but could never attain to a higher rank. The four estates — proprietors, earls, barons, and commoners—were to sit in one legislative chamber. The proprietors were always to be eight in number, to possess the whole judicial power, and have the supreme control of all tribunals. The commons were to have four members in the legislature to every three of the nobility. Every form of religion was professedly tolerated, but the Church of England only was declared to be orthodox. In the highest degree monarchical in its tendency, this form of government was distasteful to the people; so, after a contest of about twenty years between them and the proprietors, the absurd scheme was abandoned. It had never been put into use.

Funding System Adopted. On Aug. 4, 1790, an act was adopted for funding the public debt of the United States. It authorized the President of the United States to borrow $12,000,000, if so much was found necessary, for discharging the arrears of interest and the overdue instalments on the foreign debt, and for paying off the whole of that debt, could it be effected on advantageous terms; the money thus borrowed to be reimbursed within fifteen years. A new loan was also to be opened, payable in certificates of the domestic debt, at their par value, and in Continental bills of credit, "new tenor" (see *Old and New Tenor*), at the rate of one hundred dollars for one. The act also authorized an additional loan, payable in certificates of the state debts, to the amount of $21,500,000; but no certificates were to be received excepting such as had been issued for services and supplies during the war for independence. For payment of the interest and principal on the public debt—the foreign debt having the preference, and then the Continental loan—a pledge was made of the income of the existing tonnage and import duties, after an annual deduction of $600,000 for current expenses. The faith of the United States was also pledged to make up all deficiencies of interest. The proceeds of the sales of Western lands then belonging to, or which might belong to, the United States, were specially and exclusively appropriated towards the discharge of the principal. For superintending these loans and for the general management of the public debt, the old Continental system of a loan-office commission in each state was continued. The funding system was very beneficial to the country. The result of its satisfactory operation on the business of the nation was the re-establishment of commerce.

Funeral Ceremonies of Indians in the Gulf Region. The sun-worshippers, who inhabited the region of the Gulf of Mexico now in our Southern States (see *Sun-worshippers*), had peculiar ceremonies at funerals, especially of that of a chief. The body underwent a sort of embalming, when it was placed on the ground, in a sitting position, by the nearest relatives of the deceased. Then food and money were placed by its side, and a conical mound of earth piled over it, at the foot of which was made a paling of arrows stuck in the ground. Around this tomb the people gathered in great numbers, some standing, some sitting, and all howling. This ceremony continued three days and nights, after which, for a long time, chosen women visited the tomb three times a day, morning, noon, and night.

Fur-trade, THE AMERICAN. While the English-American colonies remained dependents of Great Britain, they derived very little advantage from the extensive fur-trade with the Indians, for the Hudson's Bay Company absorbed nearly the whole of the traffic. It was contention between the French and English colonists for the control of this trade that was a powerful element among the causes that brought on the French and Indian War. In 1762 a fur company was organized in New Orleans for carrying on the fur-trade extensively with the Western Indians. It was started by the Director-general of Louisiana. A trading expedition was fitted out, and under the direction of Pierre Ligueste Laclede, the principal projector of the enterprise, it went to the Missouri region, and established its chief depot on the site of the city of St. Louis, which name was then given to that locality. There furs were gathered from the regions extending eastward to Mackinaw, and westward to the Rocky Mountains. Their treasures went in boats down the Mississippi to New Orleans, and thence to Europe; or up the Illinois River, across a portage to Lake Michigan, and by way of the chain of great lakes and the St. Lawrence to Montreal and Quebec. In the pathway of this trade and transportation were planted the seeds of many of our Western settlements, which have grown into great commonwealths. The Rocky Mountains were at length passed, and, early in the present century, fur-trading posts had been established on the Columbia River and other waters that empty into the Pacific Ocean. In 1784 John Jacob Astor, an enterprising young German merchant of New York, embarked in the fur-trade. He purchased furs in Montreal and sold them in England; and after the treaty of 1795 he introduced them into the city of New York and thence shipped them to different European ports. In this trade, chiefly, he amassed a fortune of $250,000, when he embarked in a scheme for making a great fur depot on the Pacific coast. He was then competing with the great fur companies of the Northwest, under a charter in the name of the "American Fur Company," for which he furnished the entire capital. Mr. Astor made an earnest effort to carry on the business between the Pacific coast of America and China, founding the town of Astoria at the mouth of the Columbia River. The bad faith of a business partner broke up that establishment in 1813, who sold it out for a nominal sum and placed it under British control. After that Mr. Astor carried on his operations in the region of the Rocky Mountains, with his chief post at Mackinaw. Alaska, acquired in 1867 by purchase, has opened a new field for the American fur-trade. The furs from that region are mainly those of the fur-seal; there are also those of the beaver, ermine, fox, otter, marten, and other animals. The annual fur-trade of Alaska is estimated at fully $2,000,000 in value, the monopoly of the seal-fur-trade being in the hands of the Alaska Commercial Company of San Francisco, Cal. The number of seals to be taken each year is limited to one hundred thousand. The company has twenty trading-posts on the shores and islands of Alaska.

G.

Gadsden, CHRISTOPHER, was born in Charleston, S. C., in 1724; died there, Aug. 28, 1805. He was educated in England, became a merchant in Charleston, and a sturdy champion of the rights of the colonies. He was a delegate to the Stamp Act Congress (which see), and ever advocated openly republican principles. He was a member of the First Continental Congress (which see). Chosen a colonel in 1775, he was active in the defence of Charleston in 1776, when he was made a brigadier-general. He was active in civil affairs, and was one of the many civilians made prisoners by Sir Henry Clinton and carried to St. Augustine. (See *Charleston, Capture of.*) He was exchanged in 1781 and carried to Philadelphia. In 1782 he was elected governor of his state, but declined on account of infirmity.

Gaelic Preaching in Georgia. The trustees of the province of Georgia, desirous that the Highlanders of Scotland residing there should have a Presbyterian minister to preach to them in Gaelic, and to teach and catechise their children in English, sent over John McLeod in 1736, and gave to him and his successors, in perpetuity, three hundred acres of land. Mr. McLeod was a native of the Isle of Skye. He was allowed from the Provincial Fund $250 a year until the colony should be able to maintain him at their sole expense. This mission was so supported until 1740, when a greater part of the men of the Highland settlement had perished in war with the Spaniards at St. Augustine, and Mr. McLeod left Georgia.

Gage Instructed to Arrest Patriots. When Gage's demand for twenty thousand armed men at Boston was received by the ministry they laughed in derision, believing that a few soldiers could accomplish all that was necessary to make the patriots cower. Lord Dartmouth wrote to Gage, in the king's name, that the disturbers of the peace in Boston appeared to him like a rude rabble "without a plan, without concert, and without conduct," and thought a small force would be able to encounter them. He instructed him that the first step to be taken towards the re-establishment of government would be to arrest and imprison the principal actors and abettors in the Provincial Congress, whose proceedings appeared like rebellion and treason. He suggested that the measure must be kept a secret until the moment of execution. "If it cannot be accomplished," said Dartmouth, "without bloodshed, and should be a signal for hostilities, I must again repeat, that any efforts of the people, unprepared to encounter with a regular force, cannot be very formidable." This was written only a few weeks before the affairs at Lexington and Concord (which see). Dartmouth continued, "The charter of Massachusetts empowers the governor to use and exercise the law martial in time of rebellion." It appears, from statements in official despatches, he believed there was an "actual and open rebellion" in that province, and therefore the exercise of his powers named were justifiable. The movements of ministers were keenly watched. "Your chief dependence," wrote Franklin to Massachusetts, "must be on your own virtue and unanimity, which, under God, will bring you through all difficulties." Garnier, the French ambassador at London, wrote to Vergennes, "The minister must recede or lose America forever."

Gage Lampooned. The Whig press of Massachusetts boldly lampooned General Gage. On his dismissal of John Hancock from the command of the Governor's Independent Cadets, the following appeared in the *Massachusetts Spy*, with the title, "A Sample of Gubernatorial Eloquence, as Lately Exhibited to the Company of Cadets:"

"Your Colonel H—n—k, by neglect
Has been deficient in respect;
As he my sovereign toe ne'er kissed,
'Twas proper he should be dismissed;
I never was and never will
By mortal man be treated ill.
I never was nor ever can
Be treated ill by mortal man.
Oh, had I but have known before
That temper of your factious corps,
It should have been my greatest pleasure
To have prevented that bold measure.
To meet with such severe disgrace—
My standard flung into my face!
Disband yourselves! so cursed stout!
Oh, had I, had I, *turned you out!*"

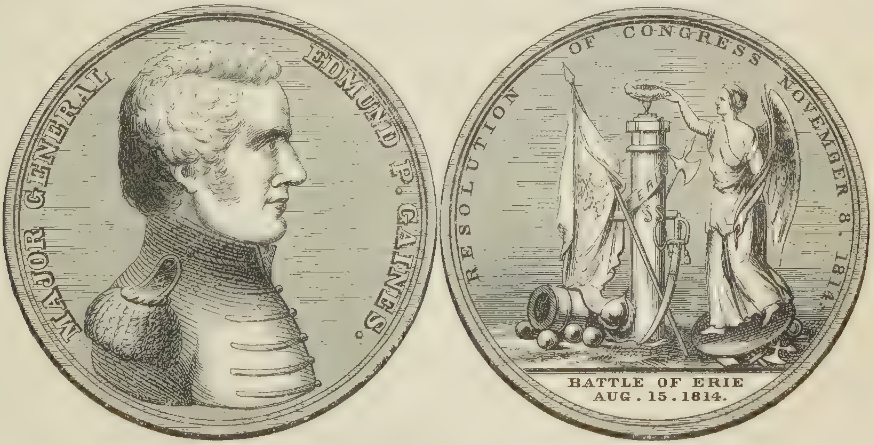
Gage, THOMAS, was born in England about 1720; died there, April 2, 1787. He was second son of Viscount Gage, and entered the army in his youth. He was with Braddock at his defeat on the Monongahela (which see), when he was lieutenant-colonel, and led the advance. In that hot encounter he was wounded. Late in 1758 he married a daughter of Peter Kemble, President of the Council of New Jersey. His widow lived until 1824, when she died at the age of ninety years. Gage served under Amherst in northern New York and Canada, and on the capture of Montreal by the English in 1760 he was made military governor of that city. (See *Montreal.*) He was promoted to major-general, and in 1763 succeeded Amherst as commander-in-chief of the British forces in North America. In 1774 he succeeded Hutchinson as governor of Massachusetts, and occupied Boston with troops, much to the annoyance and irritation of the inhabitants. Acting under instructions from his government rather than in accordance with his conscience and judgment, he took measures which brought on armed resistance to British rule in the colonies. After the affairs at Lexington, Concord, and Bunker's Hill he was ungenerously held responsible for the blunders of the ministry, and resigned his command in October, 1775, when he was succeeded by General William Howe as chief of the forces in America.

Gage's Alarm-tricks. General Gage, performing no act of courage during the summer of 1775, while Washington was besieging Boston, endeavored to terrify the Americans and to keep up the spirits of his own soldiers by warning the former that thousands of veteran warriors were coming from Russia and the German principalities to crush the "unnatural rebellion." He vented his ill-humor upon American prisoners in his hands, casting into prison officers of high rank, thinking thus to terrify the common soldiery, whose intelligence and courage he entirely underrated in reality, though praising them when it suited his purpose. (See *Gage's Real Opinion of the Americans.*) Against this treatment Washington remonstrated; but Gage insolently scorned to promise "reciprocity with rebels," and replied: "Britons, ever pre-eminent in mercy, have overlooked the criminal in the captive; your prisoners, whose lives, by the laws of the land, are destined to the cord, have hitherto been treated with care and kindness—indiscriminately, it is true, for I acknowledge no rank that is not derived from the king." Washington remembered that Gage's want of presence of mind had lost the battle of the Monongahela (which see), and replied, in a dignified manner, "I shall not stoop to retort and invective. You affect, sir, to despise all rank not derived from the same source as your own. I cannot conceive one more honorable than that which flows from the uncorrupted choice of a brave and free people, the purest source and original fountain of all power. Far from making it a plea for cruelty, a mind of true magnanimity would comprehend and respect it."

Gage's Real Opinion of the Americans. In his report of the battle on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill, General Gage said to Lord Dartmouth, "The trials we have had show the rebels are not the despicable rabble too many have supposed them to be; and I find it owing to a military spirit encouraged among them for a few years past, joined with uncommon zeal and enthusiasm. They intrench and raise batteries—they have engineers. They have fortified all the heights and passes around this town [Boston], which it is not impossible for them to annoy. The conquest of this country is not easy; you have to cope with vast numbers. In all their wars against the French they never showed so much conduct, attention, and perseverance as they do now. I think it is my duty to let your lordship know the true situation of affairs." Franklin wrote to his English friends, "Americans will fight; England has lost her colonies forever."

Gaines, EDMUND PENDLETON, was born in Culpepper County, Va., March 20, 1777; died in New Orleans, June 6, 1849. The family moved to Tennessee in 1790. Edmund entered the army as ensign in 1799, and was promoted to lieutenant-colonel in the summer of 1812. He rose to brigadier-general in March, 1814; and after his gallant conduct at Fort Erie in August, that year, he was breveted major-general. For that exploit, and his general good services during the war, Congress gave him thanks and a gold medal. Gaines served under Jackson in the Creek War (which see), and fought the Seminoles in 1836. (See *Seminole War.*) Late in life he married Myra Clarke, of New Orleans, heiress of a large estate, who, after his death, became famous for her successful persistence in litigation to secure her rights.

EDMUND PENDLETON GAINES.


MAJOR GENERAL EDMUND P. GAINES.
RESOLUTION OF CONGRESS NOVEMBER 8. 1814.
BATTLE OF ERIE
AUG. 15. 1814.

GENERAL GAINES'S MEDAL.

Gaines's Mills, BATTLE OF. General McClellan transferred his army from the Chickahominy and his stores from the Pamunky to the James River. He ordered the stores and munitions of war to be sent to Savage's Station, and what could not be removed to be burned, and supplies to be sent to the James as speedily as possible. He also sent his wounded to the same station, and prepared to cross the Chickahominy for the flight with the right wing—a perilous undertaking, for Jackson and Ewell were prepared to fall on Porter's flank. This movement was so secretly and skilfully made, however, that Lee was not certified of the fact until twenty-four hours after it was actually begun on the morning of the 27th of June. The duty of protecting the stores in their removal was assigned to General Porter. His corps (the Fifth) was also charged with the duty of carrying away the siege-guns and covering the army in its march to the James. These troops were accordingly arrayed on the rising ground near Gaines's Mills, on the arc of a circle between Cool Arbor and the Chickahominy, when they were attacked by a heavy Confederate force, in the afternoon (June 27), led by Generals Longstreet and A. P. Hill. A few of the siege-guns were yet in position. Morell's division occupied the left, Sykes's regulars and Duryea's Zouaves the right, and McCall's division formed a second line, his left touching Butterfield's right. Seymour's brigade and horse-batteries commanded the rear, and cavalry under General Philip St. George Cooke were on flanking service near the Chickahominy. The brunt of the battle first fell upon Sykes, who threw the assailants back in confusion with great loss. Longstreet pushed forward with his veterans to their relief, and was joined by Jackson and D. H. Hill. Ewell's division also came into action. The Confederate line, now in complete order, made a general advance. A very severe battle ensued. Slocum's division was sent to Porter's aid by

McClellan, making his entire force about 35,000. For hours the struggle along the whole line was fierce and persistent, and for a long time the issue was doubtful. At five o'clock Porter called for more aid, and McClellan sent him the brigades of Meagher and French, of Richardson's division. The Confederates were making desperate efforts to break the line of the Nationals, but for a long time it stood firm, though continually growing thinner. Finally a furious assault by Jackson and the divisions of Longstreet and Whiting was made upon Butterfield's brigade, which had long been fighting. It gave way and fell back, and with it several batteries. Then the whole line fell back. Porter called up all of his reserves and remaining artillery (about eighty guns), covered the retreat of his infantry, and checked the advance of the victors for a moment. Just then General Cooke, without orders, attacked the Confederate flank with his cavalry, which was repulsed and thrown into disorder. The horses, terrified by the tremendous roar of nearly two hundred cannons and the rattle of thousands of muskets, rushed back through the Union batteries, giving the impression that it was a charge of Confederate cavalry. The artillerists recoiled, and Porter's whole force was pressed back to the river. While flying in fearful disorder, French and Meagher appeared, and, gathering up the vast multitude of stragglers, checked the flight. Behind these the shattered brigades were speedily formed, while National batteries poured a destructive storm of shot and shell upon the head of the Confederate column. Seeing fresh troops on their front, and ignorant of their number, the Confederates fell back and rested upon the field they had won at a fearful cost. In this sanguinary battle the Nationals lost about 8000 men, of whom 6000 were killed or wounded. The loss of the Confederates was about 5000. General Reynolds was made prisoner. Porter lost twenty-two siege-guns. During the night he withdrew to the right side of the Chickahominy, destroying the bridges behind him.

Gallatin, ALBERT, LL.D., was born in Geneva, Switzerland, Jan. 20, 1761; died at Astoria, L. I., Aug. 12, 1849. He was a graduate of the University of Geneva. Both of his parents were of distinguished families, and died while he was an infant. Feeling great sympathy for the Americans struggling for liberty, he came to Massachusetts in 1780, entered the military service, and for a few months commanded the post at Passamaquoddy. At the close of the war he taught French at Harvard University. Having received his patrimonial estate in 1784, he invested it in land in western Virginia; and in 1786 he settled on land on the banks of the Monongahela, in Fayette County, Penn., which he had purchased, and became naturalized. Having served in the Pennsylvania State Convention and in the Legislature (1789 and 1790–92), he was chosen United States Senator in 1793, but was declared ineligible on the ground that he had not been a citizen of the United States the required nine years. He was instrumental in bringing about a peaceful termination of the "Whiskey Insurrection" (which see), and was elected a member of the House of Representatives in 1795. An active member of the Republican, or Democratic, party, he even went so far, in a speech in Congress (1796), as to charge Washington and Jay with having pusillanimously surrendered the honor of their country. (See *Jay's Treaty.*) This, from the lips of a young foreigner, exasperated the Federalists. He was a leader of the Democrats in the House, and directed his attention particularly to financial matters. Mr. Gallatin remained in Congress until 1801, when President Jefferson appointed him Secretary of the Treasury, which office he held until 1813, and obtained the credit of being one of the best financiers of the age. His influence was felt in other departments of the government and in the politics of the country. Opposed to going to war with Great Britain in 1812, he exerted all his influence to avert it. In March, 1813, he was appointed one of the envoys to Russia to negotiate for the mediation of the Czar between the United States and Great Britain. He sailed for St. Petersburg, but the Senate, in special session, refused to ratify his appointment because he was Secretary of the Treasury. The attempt at mediation was unsuccessful. When, in January, 1814, Great Britain proposed a direct negotiation for peace, Gallatin, who was still abroad, was appointed one of the United States Commissioners to negotiate. He resigned his secretaryship. In 1815 he was appointed minister to France, where he remained until 1823. He refused a seat in the cabinet of Monroe on his return, and declined to be a candidate for Vice-President, to which the dominant Democratic party nominated him. President Adams appointed him minister to Great Britain, where he negotiated several important commercial conventions. Returning to America in 1827, he took up his residence in the city of New York. There he was engaged in public services, in various ways, until 1839, when he withdrew from public duties and directed the remainder of his life to literary pursuits, especially in the field of history and ethnology. He was the chief founder (1842) and first president of the American Ethnological Society, and was

ALBERT GALLATIN.

president of the New York Historical Society from 1843 until his death, six years afterwards. Although strictly in private life, Mr. Gallatin took special interest in the progress of the country, and wrote much on the subject. So early as 1823 he wrote an essay on the ethnological and philosophical characteristics of the North American Indians, at the request of Humboldt.

Gallatin's Financial Plan. The opponents of Jefferson's administration complained vehemently, in 1808, that the country was threatened with direct taxation at a time when the sources of its wealth, by the orders and decrees of Great Britain and France, were drying up. Albert Gallatin, the Secretary of the Treasury, replied to these complaints by reproducing a flattering but delusive suggestion contained in his annual report the preceding year. He suggested that, as the United States were not likely to be involved in frequent wars, a revenue derived solely from duties on imports, even though liable to diminution during war, would yet amply suffice to pay off, during long intervals of peace, the expenses of such wars as might be undertaken. Should the United States become involved in war with both France and Great Britain, no internal taxes would be necessary to carry it on, nor any other financial expedient, beyond borrowing money and doubling the duties on import. The scheme, afterwards tried, bore bitter fruit.

Gallaudet, THOMAS HOPKINS, LL.D., instructor of the deaf and dumb, was born in Philadelphia, Penn., Dec. 10, 1787; died at Hartford, Conn., Sept. 9, 1851. He graduated at Yale College, in 1805, where he was a tutor for a while. At Andover Theological Seminary he prepared for the ministry, and was licensed to preach in 1814. Becoming interested in the deaf and dumb, he began his labors for their instruction in 1817, with a class of seven pupils. He became one of the most useful men of his time, labored incessantly for the benefit of the deaf and dumb, and was the founder of the first institution in America for their instruction. He was president of it until 1830, when he resigned. The asylum was located at Hartford, where Dr. Gallaudet became chaplain for the Connecticut Retreat for the Insane, in 1833, which office he retained until his death. Dr. Gallaudet published several works for the instruction of the young, besides other books. He was of Huguenot descent. His two sons, Thomas and Edward Miner, have devoted their lives to the instruction of the deaf and dumb. The former, an Episcopal clergyman, has been instrumental in organizing churches for the deaf and dumb; and the latter established (1857), in Washington, an institution for them and the blind. In 1864 he originated measures for the establishment of a deaf-mute college, of which he was made professor of moral and political science.

Galloway, JOSEPH, LL.D., was an eminent lawyer of Philadelphia, Penn., and a loyalist. He was born in Maryland about 1730; died in England, Aug. 29, 1803. He was a member of the Pennsylvania Assembly in 1764, and was at one time speaker, and, with Franklin, advocated a change of the government of Pennsylvania from the proprietary to the royal form. A member of the First Continental Congress, he was conservative in his views, yet his line of argument in his first debates tended towards political independence. He proposed a plan of colonial government, which was rejected. (See *Galloway's Plan.*) Finally, after the question of independence began to be seriously agitated, he abandoned the Whig, or Republican, cause, and was thenceforward an uncompromising Tory. When the British army evacuated Philadelphia, in 1778, he left his country, with his daughter, went to England, and never returned. He was a leading American loyalist in England, and wrote and published several political pamphlets.

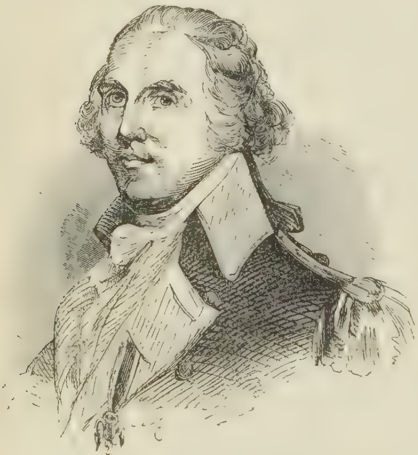
Galloway's Plan of Government. Joseph Galloway, an eminent lawyer of Philadelphia, proposed, in the First Continental Congress, a plan for a union of the colonies which had been foreshadowed by others long before. It contemplated a government with a president-general appointed by the king, and a Grand Council, chosen every three years by the colonial assemblies, who were to be authorized to act jointly with Parliament in the regulation of the affairs of the colonies. Parliament was to have superior authority, with a right to revise all acts of the Grand Council, which, in turn, was to have a negative in British statutes relating to the colonies. This plan was, at first, favorably considered by many in the Congress; but it was rejected, and not permitted to be entered on the minutes of the journal.

Galveston, BATTLE AT. This place was taken possession of by Commodore Renshaw (Oct. 8, 1862). To hold the city more securely, a Massachusetts regiment, under Colonel Burrill, was sent there from New Orleans. In front of the town (Dec. 28) lay six National war-vessels, under the command of Renshaw. General Magruder, of the Confederate army, then in command of the Department of Texas, collected a land and naval force near Galveston, and before daylight on Jan. 2, 1863, he attacked the National forces by land and water. At first the men from Massachusetts repulsed those of Magruder, but, Confederate vessels coming up with a fresh supply, the National soldiers were overpowered. After a brief action, the *Harriet Lane* (one of the National vessels) was captured, and the *Westfield*, Renshaw's flag-ship, was blown up by his order, to prevent her falling into the hands of the Confederates. The firing of the magazine of the *Westfield* was done prematurely, by an intoxicated man, and Commodore Renshaw, a lieutenant, and an engineer, with about a dozen of her crew, perished by the explosion. Nearly as many officers and men were killed in a gig lying by the side of the *Westfield*. Magruder's victory was almost a barren one, for Farragut re-established the blockade before the *Harriet Lane* could be converted into a Confederate cruiser.

Galveston, SURRENDER OF. Attempts were made to "repossess" important posts in Texas, especially Galveston. On May 17, 1862, Henry Eagle, in command of war-vessels in front of Galveston, demanded its surrender, under a threat of an attack from a large land and naval force that would soon appear. "When those forces appear," said the authorities, "we shall reply." So matters remained until Oct. 8, when Galveston was formally surrendered by its civil authorities to Commodore Renshaw, of the National Navy, the Confederate troops retiring. It was held by the Nationals ever afterwards.

Gansevoort, HENRY SANDFORD, was born at Albany, Dec. 15, 1835. He was a grandson of Colonel Gansevoort, of Fort Stanwix fame. In April, 1861, he entered the regular artillery service, and fought gallantly during the Peninsular campaign of 1862, and in several battles afterwards. He first became lieutenant-colonel and then colonel of the 13th N. Y. Volunteer Cavalry, with which he performed gallant service in Virginia. In 1865 he was breveted brigadier-general of volunteers "for faithful and meritorious services," and became captain of artillery. His health failed, and when returning from the Bahama Islands he died, April 12, 1871, when almost within sight of the city of his birth. He was greatly beloved by all who knew him.

Gansevoort, PETER, JR., was born at Albany, N. Y., July 17, 1749; died July 2, 1812. He was appointed major of a New York regiment in July, 1775, and in August he joined the army, under Montgomery, that invaded Canada. He rose to colonel the next year; and in April, 1777, he was put in command of Fort Schuyler (see *Fort Stanwix*), which he gallantly defended against the British and Indians in August. He most effectually co-operated with Sullivan in his campaign in 1779, and afterwards in the Mohawk region. In 1781 he received from the Legislature of New York the commission of a brigadier-general. General Gansevoort filled civil offices, particularly that of Commissioner for Indian Affairs, with great fidelity. In 1803 he was made military agent and brigadier-general in the United States Army.



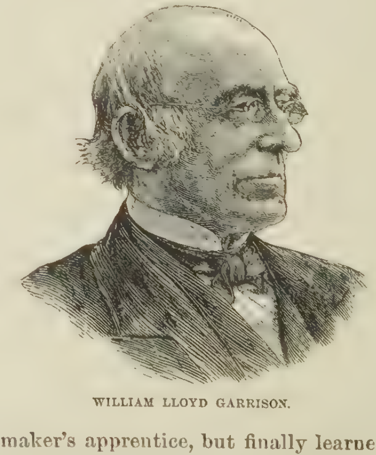
PETER GANSEVOORT, JR.

Garden of the World, a name frequently applied to the vast region drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries, comprising more than 1,200,000 square miles. It is a region of almost unexampled fertility.

Garfield, JAMES ABRAHAM, was born in Cuyahoga County, Ohio, Nov. 19, 1831. He rose from the position of a day-laborer and a driver and boatman on a canal to president of an eclectic institute in Ohio and major-general of volunteers in the United States Army for the suppression of the great insurrection. In 1859 he was elected to the Ohio Senate, and the next year was admitted to the bar. In 1861 he was made colonel of a regiment of Ohio volunteers, and did good service in Eastern Kentucky. He became brigadier-general of volunteers in January, 1862; commanded a brigade at the battle of Shiloh; was chief-of-staff under Rosecrans, and appointed major-general for gallant and meritorious services in the battle of Chickamauga. He was elected to Congress in 1862, and was a representative of his district until 1880, when he was elected the twentieth president of the United States.

Garnett, ROBERT SELDEN, born at Elmwood, Va., in 1820; killed in the battle of Carricksford (which see), July 14, 1861. He graduated at West Point in 1841, and was instructor of tactics there in 1843. He was in the war with Mexico, was aid to General Taylor, and received the brevet of major for services at Buena Vista. He was again instructor of tactics at West Point (1852–54). He resigned his commission in April, 1861, and joined the insurgents, becoming adjutant-general of the Virginia Army. Commanding the Confederates in Western Virginia, he was slain in battle.

Garrison, WILLIAM LLOYD, leader in the movement for the abolition of slavery in the United States, was born at Newburyport, Mass., Dec. 12, 1804; died May 24, 1879. He was a shoemaker's apprentice, but finally learned the art of printing, and became a contributor to the press in early life. In all his writings he showed



WILLIAM LLOYD GARRISON.

a philanthropic spirit, and a sympathy for the oppressed everywhere. In 1827 he edited the *National Philanthropist,* in Boston; and, as assistant editor of a Baltimore paper, he denounced the taking of a cargo of slaves from that city to New Orleans as "domestic piracy." For this he was fined, and imprisoned forty-nine days, until Arthur Tappan, of New York, paid the fine. On Jan. 1, 1831, he began the publication of his famous *Liberator*, a weekly newspaper and uncompromising opponent of slavery, which was discontinued in 1865, when the result for which he had devoted the best energies of his life had been effected by the Emancipation Proclamation (which see) of President Lincoln. Mr. Garrison was a founder (1832) of the American Antislavery Society, and was its president from that time until 1865. Attending, as a delegate, the World's Antislavery Convention, in London (1840), he refused to take his seat, because the feminine delegates from America were refused seats in that body. In 1866 he received about $30,000 as a national testimonial from his friends for his arduous labors in the cause of humanity.

Gas-light. The first attempts to introduce gas as an illuminator in the United States were made in Baltimore, between 1816 and 1820. They failed; but it was successfully introduced into Boston in 1822. The next year the first gas-light company was formed in New York—the "New York Gas-light Company." They began operations with a capital of $1,000.000. But the people were so slow to adopt the new illuminator that the company were not in full operation until 1827, when the population was about one hundred and sixty-six thousand. Gas for illumination was first introduced into Philadelphia in 1835, when the population of that city was about eighty-five thousand.

Gaspee, A COMMISSION OF INQUIRY. After the destruction of the *Gaspee,* a commission, composed of Admiral Montague, the vice-admiralty judge at Boston, the chief-justices of Massachusetts (Peter Oliver), New York (D. Horsmanden), and New Jersey (F. Smyth), and the governor of Rhode Island (J. Wanton), met at Newport to inquire into the affair. Robert Auchmuty took the place of Montague. The commissioners were notified that there had been no neglect of duty or connivance on the part of the provincial government, and it was intimated that this special court was unnecessary and alarming. The Assembly of Rhode Island met at East Greenwich to watch the commissioners, and Governor Wanton laid before it his instructions to arrest offenders, and send them to England for trial. Chief-justice Stephen Hopkins asked the Assembly how he should act. They left it to his discretion, for they were assured of his patriotism and sound judgment. "Then," said Hopkins, in the presence of both Houses, "for the purpose of transportation for trial I will neither apprehend any person by my own order, nor suffer any executive officer in the colony to do it." The commissioners adjourned without eliciting any positive knowledge of the persons who destroyed the *Gaspee.*

Gaspee, AFFAIR OF THE. An armed schooner in the British revenue service called the *Gaspee* had given great annoyance to the American navigators in Narraganset Bay by her commander haughtily demanding the lowering of their flags whenever they passed her, in token of submission. They often disobeyed. For this disobedience a Providence sloop was chased by the schooner. The former, by taking a peculiar course, caused the latter to run aground upon a low sandy point (ever since known as "Gaspee Point") on the west side of Narraganset Bay. The same night (June 9, 1772) sixty-four armed men went down from Providence in boats, captured the people on board the *Gaspee,* and burned the vessel. A large reward was offered for the discovery of the perpetrators (who were well known in Providence), but they were not betrayed. Joseph Wanton, the royal governor of Rhode Island, issued a proclamation ordering diligent search for the perpetrators of the act. Admiral Montague made endeavors towards the same end, and the home government offered a reward of $5000 for the leader, with the promise of a pardon if the informer should be an accomplice. Not one of the men betrayed their trusted leader, Abraham Whipple, afterwards a commodore in the Continental Navy. A commission of inquiry was established under the great seal of England, but it availed nothing. These commissions closed their labors on June 23, and no further inquiry was attempted. When, subsequently, the colonists were at war with Great Britain, the act of Captain Whipple was avowed, and Sir James Wallace, in command of a British ship of war in Narraganset Bay, wrote as follows

J Wanton

Danl Horsmanden

Fr. Smyth.

Peter Oliver

Robt Auchmuty

SIGNATURES OF THE COMMISSIONERS.

to the perpetrator of the act: "You, Abraham Whipple, on the 9th of June, 1772, burned his majesty's vessel, the *Gaspee*, and I will hang you at the yard-arm." Whipple coolly replied: "Sir, always catch your man before you hang him." A ballad was written at the time, containing fifty-eight lines of doggerel verse, which ended as follows:

> " Now, for to find these people out,
> King George has offered very stout,
> One thousand pounds to find out one
> That wounded William Duddington.
> One thousand more he says he'll spare
> For those who say the sheriff's were.
> One thousand more there doth remain
> For to find out the leader's name;
> Likewise five hundred pounds per man
> For any one of all the clan.
> But, let him try his utmost skill,
> I'm apt to think he never will
> Find out any of those hearts of gold,
> Though he should offer fifty-fold."

GASPEE POINT.

Gaston, William, LL.D., was born at New Berne, N. C., Sept. 19, 1778; died at Raleigh, N. C., Jan. 23, 1844. He graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1796, and was admitted to the bar in 1798, when he soon became the leading lawyer in his state. Serving in his state Legislature, he was elected to Congress in 1812, and remained in that body until 1817. The laws and judicial organization of his state bear marks of his wisdom. He was judge of the Supreme Court of North Carolina from 1834 till his death. Judge Gaston was an advocate of free suffrage for colored men.

Gates, Horatio, was born at Maldon, Essex County, England, in 1728; died in New York city, April 10, 1806. He was a godson of Horace Walpole. He entered the British army in his youth, and rose rapidly to the rank of major. Gates came to America, was severely wounded at Braddock's defeat (1755), and was aid to General Monckton in the expedition against Martinique in 1762. After the peace, he bought an estate in Virginia, and when the war for independence broke out Congress appointed him (June, 1775) adjutant-general of the Continental Army, with the rank of brigadier-general. In 1776–77 he was twice in command of the Northern Army, having, through intrigue, displaced General Schuyler. He gained undeserved honors as commander of the troops that defeated and captured Burgoyne and his army in the fall of 1777. He soon afterwards intrigued for the position of Washington as commander-in-chief, using his power as president of the Board of War for the purpose, but ignominiously failed. In June, 1780, he was made commander of the Southern Department, but made a disastrous campaign, his army being utterly defeated and routed by Cornwallis near Camden, S. C., in August, 1780. This defeat terminated Gates's military career. He was removed from command and suspended from service, but was finally vindicated, and reinstated in command in 1782. He retired to his estate in Virginia, and in 1790 made his residence in New York city, having first emancipated all his slaves, and provided for such of them as could not take care of themselves. He was presented with the freedom of the city of New York, and elected to the state Legislature, but declined to serve.

HORATIO GATES.

Geary, JOHN W., was born in Westmoreland County, Penn., about 1820; died at Harrisburg, Penn., while governor, Feb. 9, 1873. He became a civil engineer, and served as lieutenant-colonel of a Pennsylvania regiment of volunteers in the war with Mexico, wherein he was wounded, and for gallant services was made colonel of his regiment. He was first commander of the city of Mexico after its capture. He went to San Francisco in 1848, and was the first mayor of that city. Returning to Pennsylvania, he was appointed Governor of Kansas in July, 1856, and early in 1861 raised and equipped a regiment of volunteers. In the spring of 1862 he became brigadier-general, and did good service throughout the war, becoming, at the end of Sherman's march from Atlanta to the sea, military governor of Savannah. In 1867 he was elected governor of Pennsylvania, and died suddenly while in office.

General Armstrong, THE PRIVATEER. The merchants of New York fitted out no less than twenty-six fast-sailing privateers and letters-of-marque within one hundred and twenty days after the declaration of war (1812), carrying about two hundred pieces of artillery, and manned by over two thousand seamen. Among the most noted of these privateers was the *General Armstrong*, a moderate-sized schooner, mounting a "Long Tom" forty-two-pounder and eighteen carronades. Her complement was one hundred and forty men. Her first commander was Captain Barnard; her second, Captain G. R. Champlin. Early in March, 1813, while Champlin was cruising off the Surinam River, on the coast of South America, he gave chase to the British sloop-of-war *Coquette*, mounting twenty-seven guns and manned by one hundred and twenty-six men and boys. They engaged in conflict between nine and ten o'clock (March 11, 1813). Supposing his antagonist to be a British letter-of-marque, Champlin ran the *Armstrong* down upon her, with the intention of boarding her. When it was too late, Champlin discovered that she was a heavier vessel than he suspected. They poured heavy shot into each other, and for a while the fight was very obstinate, within pistol-shot distance. Champlin was wounded and his vessel severely bruised, but, getting free from the *Coquette* by a vigorous use of sweeps, the *Armstrong* escaped under a heavy fire from her antagonist. The Tammany Society of New York gave the captain an elegant sword, and voted thanks to his companions in the fight. In 1814 the *General Armstrong* was under the command of Captain Samuel C. Reid, and in September she was in the harbor of Fayal, one of the islands of the Azores, belonging to Portugal. It was a neutral port, and Reid did not expect to be disturbed there by British vessels. He was mistaken. On the 26th Commodore Lloyd appeared off the harbor with his flag-ship, the *Plantagenet*, 74 guns; the frigate *Rota*, 44, Captain Somerville; and the brig *Carnation*, 18, Captain Bentham—each with a full complement of men. The *Armstrong* had only seven guns and ninety men, including her officers. In violation of the laws and usages of neutrality, Lloyd sent into the harbor, at eight o'clock in the evening, four large and well-armed launches, manned by about forty men each. At that time Reid, suspecting mischief, was warping his vessel under the guns of the castle. The moon was shining brightly. The barges and the privateer opened fire almost simultaneously, and the launches were driven off with heavy loss. At midnight fourteen launches were sent in, manned by about five hundred men. A terrible conflict ensued, which lasted forty minutes, when the launches were again repulsed, with a loss of one hundred and twenty killed and one hundred and thirty wounded. At daylight (Sept. 27) a third attack was made by the brig *Carnation*, which opened heavily, but was soon so cut up by the well-directed guns of the *Armstrong* that she hastily withdrew. The privateer was also much damaged, and it being evident that she could not endure a fourth attack, Captain Reid directed her to be scuttled to prevent her falling into the hands of the British. She was then abandoned, when the British boarded her and set her on fire. While the British lost over three hundred men in the three attacks, the *Armstrong* lost only two men killed and seven wounded during the ten hours. To Captain Reid and his brave men is justly due the credit of saving New Orleans from capture. Lloyd's squadron was a part of the expedition then gathering at Jamaica for the invasion of Louisiana (which see). The object of the attack on the *Armstrong* was to capture her, and make her a useful auxiliary in the work. She so crippled her assailants that they did not reach Jamaica until full ten days later than the expedition intended to sail from there. It had waited for Lloyd, and when it approached New Orleans Jackson had made ample arrangements to receive the invaders. Had they arrived ten days sooner the city must have fallen. The State of New York gave Captain Reid thanks and a sword, and he was greeted with enthusiasm on his return to the United States. The Portuguese government demanded and received from the British an apology for the violation of neutrality, and restitution for the destruction of Portuguese property at Fayal during the action. That government also demanded satisfaction and indemnification for the destruction of the American vessel in their neutral port. This was refused, and neither the owners of the vessel nor their heirs have ever received indemnification for their losses either from Great Britain or Portugal.

Genet, EDMOND CHARLES, was born at Versailles, France, Jan. 8, 1763; died at Greenbush, opposite Albany, N. Y., July 14, 1834. His literary talent was early developed. At the age of twelve years he received from the King of Sweden a gold medal for a translation of the history of Eric XIV. into Swedish, with notes by himself. He was a brother of the celebrated Madame Campan, and was brought up in the French court; yet he was a republican. Attached to the embassies of Berlin, Vienna, London, and St. Petersburg, he maintained his republican bias, and on his return from the Russian court (1792) was appointed minister to the United

States. He had already been made adjutant-general of the armies of France and minister to Holland by the revolutionists, and employed in revolutionizing Geneva and annexing it to France. His diplomatic career in the United States was very offensive to the government, and he was recalled. (See *Genet in the United States.*) At about that time a change of faction had taken place in his country, and he did not think it prudent to return. He never went back to France. Marrying the daughter of Governor George Clinton, he became a naturalized citizen of the United States, and an ornament to society here. He was twice married, his second wife being a daughter of Mr. Osgood, the first Postmaster-general under the new Constitution. Fond of agriculture, he took great interest in its pursuit; and his last illness was occasioned by attendance at a meeting of an agricultural society of which he was president. He was known as "Citizen Genet," a title assumed by the French revolutionists, and imitated by their American admirers. The Philadelphia newspapers often contained notices of the marriage of "*citizen*" Smith or Jones and "*citesse*" Roseberry or Lavender.

EDMOND CHARLES GENET.

Genet in the United States. The French revolutionists affected a simplicity of manner in all things, consistent with their battle-cry in the forum and in the field—"Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity!" They addressed the highest functionary as "citizen;" and Edmond Charles Genet, sent to the United States as the representative of the French Republic, was designated as "Citizen Genet." He arrived at Charleston, S. C., April 9, 1793. He was received with open arms by the Republican, or Democratic, party. He was disposed to treat the United States government with contempt, believing the people would not sustain it in its coldness towards the French revolutionists. He came with blank commissions for naval and military service, and before he proceeded to the seat of government to present his credentials he fitted out two privateers at Charleston to prey on British commerce, and gave authority to every French consul in America to constitute himself a court of admiralty to dispose of prizes brought into American ports by French cruisers. One of these vessels (*L'Embuscade*) went prowling up the coast, seizing several small vessels, and finally capturing a British merchantman within the capes of the Delaware, when she proceeded in triumph to Philadelphia, where she was received with acclamations of joy by the excited people. Upon the bow of *L'Embuscade*, her foremast, and her stern, liberty-caps were conspicuous, and the British colors were reversed in the prize, with the French colors flying above them. Fourteen days later Genet arrived by land at Philadelphia, where, according to preconcert, a number of citizens met him at the Schuylkill and escorted him into the city, while cannons roared and church-bells rang out merry peals of welcome. There he received addresses from various societies, and so anxious were his admirers to do homage to the representative of the authors of the Reign of Terror in France that they invited him to a public dinner before he had presented his credentials to the President of the United States. Genet presented his credentials to Washington in person (April 19, 1793), and found himself in an atmosphere of the most profound dignity. He felt his own littleness as a mere political enthusiast while standing before the representative of true democracy in America, and of the soundest principles of the American Republic. He withdrew from the audience abashed and subdued. He had heard expressions of sincere regard for the people of France that touched the sensibilities of his heart, and he had felt, in the courtesy and severe simplicity and frankness of the President's manner, wholly free from effervescent enthusiasm, a withering rebuke, not only of the adulators in public places, but also of his own pretensions, aspirations, and offensive conduct. Once out of the presence of Washington, he became the same defiant champion of the "rights of the people," affecting to be shocked at the evidences of monarchical sympathies in the President's house. He there saw a bust of Louis XVI., and declared its presence in the house of the President of the United States was an "insult to France," and he was "astonished" to find that relatives of Lafayette had lately been admitted to the presence of the President. His feelings were speedily soothed in a great banquet-hall of his republican friends (May 23, 1793), where his ears were greeted with the Marseilles Hymn, and his eyes delighted with a "tree of Liberty" on the table. His heart was made glad by having the red cap of Liberty placed on his own head first and then upon the head of each guest, while the wearer, under the inspiration of its symbolism, uttered some patriotic sentiment. At dinner, at which the Governor of Pennsylvania (Mifflin) was present, a roasted pig received the name of the murdered French king, and the head, severed from his body, was carried around to each of the guests, who, after placing the cap of Liberty on his own head, pronounced the word "tyrant," and proceeded to mangle with his knife that of the poor pig. One of the Republican taverns in Philadelphia displayed as a sign a revolting picture of the mutilated and blood-stained corpse of Queen Marie Antoinette. This madness ran a short course, and its victims became heartily ashamed of it. Genet took this for a genuine and settled feeling, and acted upon it. Meanwhile the insulted government took most dignified action. The captured British merchantman was restored to its owners, and the privateers were ordered out of American waters. Orders were sent to the collectors at all American ports to seize all vessels fitted out as privateers, and to prevent the sale of any prize captured by such vessels. Chief-justice Jay declared it to be the duty of grand-juries to present all persons guilty of such violation of the laws of nations with respect to any of the belligerent powers. The French ambassador and his friends were greatly irritated. He protested, and the Secretary of State (Jefferson), who had favored the enthusiasm of Genet's reception, finding he had a troublesome friend on his hands, plainly told Genet that by commissioning privateers he had violated the sovereignty of the United States. With offensive pertinacity, Genet denied this doctrine as contrary to right, justice, and the laws of nations, and threatened to "appeal from the President to the people;" and in this the Republican newspapers sustained him. Secret Democratic societies which had been formed became more bold and active, and Genet, mistaking the popular clamor for the deliberate voice of the nation, actually undertook to fit out a privateer at Philadelphia, in defiance of the government, during the President's absence at Mount Vernon. It was a vessel captured by *L'Embuscade*, and Genet named her *The Little Democrat*. Governor Mifflin, like Jefferson, had become sick of the "Citizen," and he interfered. Genet would not heed his threats nor the persuasions of Jefferson. He denounced the President as unfaithful to the wishes of the people, and resolved to force him to call Congress together. Washington, on his return to Philadelphia, and informed of the insolence of Genet, exclaimed, "Is the minister of the French Republic to set the acts of the government at defiance with impunity?" His cabinet answered "No!" The most exacting country could not counsel longer forbearance, and the French government was requested (July, 1793) to recall its minister; and it was done. There was a reaction in the public mind towards a more patriotic attitude. The insolence of Genet had shocked the national pride. On the 22d of April (1793) the President issued a proclamation of neutrality (which see), which the radical Democrats denounced as an "edict of royalty." Genet—succeeded by M. Fouchet, a man equally indiscreet—did not leave the country, but became an excellent naturalized citizen of the United States, and died here.

Genet's Mischievous Schemes. It was not only in American waters and on the Atlantic seaboard that it became necessary to watch "Citizen" Genet's mischievous schemes. He projected an invasion of Florida, the expedition for which was to be organized in South Carolina and to rendezvous in Georgia. Another of his schemes projected a like movement against New Orleans, to be set on foot in Kentucky. George Rogers Clarke, who had done good service in the Revolution, but who, through intemperance and other causes, had become impoverished, lent himself to be the leader of the expedition from Kentucky. Genet found a willingness among the Kentuckians to engage in such an enterprise, because Spain had refused the free navigation of the Mississippi. The "Democratic Society" at Lexington had taken this matter in hand. French emissaries were employed in Kentucky and South Carolina, and commissions were issued; but both enterprises failed for want of money. At one time Genet had two thousand seamen and soldiers on his hands to support. These and other efforts of Genet to set the neutral policy of the United States at defiance, and his general insolence of conduct in trying to stir up the people and the state governments, caused serious thoughts in the mind of Washington of abruptly dismissing him and ordering him to leave the country. But a wise forbearance undoubtedly accomplished good results in a better way.

Geneva Award. (See *Tribunal of Arbitration.*)

George Griswold, THE RELIEF-SHIP. The blockade of Southern ports caused a lack of the cotton supply in England and the running of mills on half-time or the shutting them up altogether. This produced wide-spread distress in the manufacturing districts. In Lancashire alone one million stomachs depended for bread on the mills. In 1862 a pitiful cry of distress came over the sea. It was heard by the loyal people of the North, who, repressing their just resentment against the British government for the "aid and comfort" it had given to the enemies of the Republic, heeded the cry, and the *George Griswold* was laden at New York, chiefly through the liberality of merchants there, with food for the starving English operatives of the value of more than $200,000. With her was sent a government war-vessel as a convoy to protect her precious freight from the touch of the Anglo-Confederate cruiser *Alabama*, which was then lighting the ocean with the blaze of American merchant-vessels which she had set on fire.

George (Lewis) **I.**, King of Great Britain, was born in Osnabrück, Hanover, May 28, 1660; died near that place, June 10, 1727. Eldest son of Ernest Augustus, Elector of Hanover, he was the first sovereign of the Hanoverian line. His mother was Sophia, daughter of James I. of England. In 1681 he went to England to seek the hand of his cousin, the Princess Anne (afterwards queen), in marriage, but, being ordered by his father not to proceed in the business, he returned, and married his cousin Sophia Dorothea. By act of the Convention Parliament (see *English Revolution*) in 1689, and by Parliament in 1701, the succession of the English crown was so fixed that in the event of a failure of heirs by William and Mary, and Anne, it should be limited to the Electress Sophia of Hanover, George's mother, passing over nearer heirs who were Roman Catholics. By the treaty of union with Scotland (1707) the same succession was secured for its crown. By the death of Sophia, three months before Queen Anne died, George became heir-apparent to the throne of the latter because of failure of heirs, and he succeeded her. His son, the Prince of Wales, became openly hostile to his father in 1718, and at Leicester House he established a sort of rival court. This enmity arose from the treatment of the prince's mother, the unfortunate Sophia Dorothea (to whom he was much attached), who, accused of intrigue with Count Königsmarck, was divorced in 1694, and imprisoned from that time until her death in 1726. George I. was a man of moderate intellectual ability, a cruel husband, a bad father, but not a bad sovereign, for he allowed able men to manage the affairs of the kingdom. He was taken with a fit in his carriage, while on his way to Osnabrück, and died before he reached that place. His son (George) by the unfortunate Sophia succeeded him.

George (Augustus) **II.**, King of England, son of the preceding and Sophia Dorothea, was born in Hanover, Oct. 30, 1683; died in Kensington Palace, Oct. 25, 1760. In his childhood and youth he was neglected by his father, and was brought up by his grandmother, the Electress Sophia. In 1705 he married a daughter of the Margrave of Brandenburg-Anspach, a woman of superior character and ability. He was made a peer of England the next year, with the chief title of Duke of Cambridge. He was a brave soldier under the Duke of Marlborough. In 1714 he accompanied his father to England, and was proclaimed Prince of Wales Sept. 22. The prince and his father hated each other cordially, and he was made an instrument of intrigue against the latter. The Princess of Wales was very popular, and the father also hated her. At one time the king proposed to send the prince to America, there to be disposed of so that he should have no more trouble with him. He was crowned king Oct. 11, 1727. His most able minister was Walpole (as he was of George I.), and he and the clever queen ruled the realm for fourteen years. He, in turn, hated his son Frederick, Prince of Wales, as bitterly as he had been hated by his father. It was during the later years of the reign of George II. that the "War of the Austrian Succession" and the French and Indian War (in which the English-American colonies were conspicuously engaged) occurred. During that reign England had grown amazingly in material and moral strength among the nations. The wisdom of William Pitt had done much towards the acquirement of the fame of England, which had never been greater than in 1760. George died suddenly, like his father, at the age of seventy-seven years. He had never been popular with the English people.

George (William Frederick) **III.**, King of England, was born June 4, 1738; died in Windsor Castle, Jan. 29, 1820. His mind was narrow, his disposition was crafty and arbitrary, and during his long reign, while he was sane, his years were passed in continual combat against the growing liberal spirit of the age. Being a native of England (which his two royal predecessors were not), and young and moral, he was at first popular on his accession to the throne (Oct. 26, 1760). In his first speech in Parliament he expressed pride in his English birth, and thereby great enthusiasm in his favor was excited. On Sept. 8, 1761, he married Charlotte Sophia, sister of the Duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, who shared his throne fifty-seven years, and bore him fifteen children, all but two of whom grew to maturity. Unfortunately for his kingdom, he neglected the wise counsels of Pitt, and made his preceptor, the Scotch Earl of Bute, his prime-minister and confidential friend. The minister and his master became very unpopular, and in 1763 Bute resigned, and was succeeded by George Grenville, who inaugurated the Stamp Act policy and other obnoxious measures towards the English-American colonies, which caused great discontent, a fierce quarrel, a long war, the final dismemberment of the British empire, and the political independence of the colonies. With the Stamp Act began the terribly stormy period of the reign of George III. In 1783 he was compelled to acknowledge the independence of his lost American colonies. Then he had continual quarrels with his ministry, and talked of leaving England and retiring to his little kingdom of Hanover, but refrained on being assured that it would be much easier for him to leave England than to return to it. Like his two royal predecessors, George hated his oldest son, the Prince of Wales, because he was generally in political opposition to him and led a loose life. After a serious dispute with Russia, which threatened to seize Turkey, and another with Spain, war with revolutionized France began in 1793, and the most arbitrary rule was exercised in England, driving the people at times to the

GEORGE III. AT THE TIME OF HIS ACCESSION.
(From an anonymous print.)

verge of revolution. Ireland was goaded into rebellion, which was suppressed by the most cruel methods—equal in atrocity to any perpetrated by the French in La Vendée and Brittany. The union of Great Britain and Ireland was effected in 1800, the parliament of the latter ceasing to exist. Against the king's wishes, peace was made with France in 1802; but war was again begun the next year. Then came the struggle with Napoleon Bonaparte, which lasted until the overthrow of that ruler at Waterloo (June, 1815). In 1810 the king lost his youngest and favorite daughter—Amelia—by death. His anxiety during her illness deprived him of reason. He had been threatened with insanity once or twice before; now his mind was clouded forever. The first indication of his malady appeared on the day of the completion of the fiftieth year of his reign—Oct. 25, 1810. From that date his reign ceased in fact, and his son George, Prince of Wales, was made regent of the kingdom (Feb. 5, 1811). For nearly nine years the care of his person was intrusted to the faithful queen. In 1819 the Duke of York assumed the responsibility. The queen was simple in her tastes and habits, rigid in the performance of moral duties, kind and benevolent. Their lives were models of moral purity and domestic happiness.

USUAL APPEARANCE OF GEORGE III. ABOUT 1776.
(From a sketch by Gear.)

George III. and English Opinion concerning America. The great landholders in England, as well as the more warlike classes, had become sick of trying to tax the Americans without their consent. Indeed, all classes were convinced of its futility, and yearned for a change in the policy. Even the stubborn king, though unrelenting in his purpose to bring the Americans into submission, declared that the man who should approve the taxing of them, in connection with all its consequences, was "more fit for a madhouse than for a seat in Parliament." In the House of Commons (June, 1779), Lord John Cavendish moved for orders to withdraw the British forces employed in America; and the Duke of Richmond, in the House of Lords, proposed a total change of measures in America and Ireland. In both houses these sensible measures were supported by increasing numbers. North was frequently dropping hints to the king that the advantages to be gained by continuing the war would never repay its expenses. The king, disturbed by these propositions and the yielding disposition of his chief minister, summoned them all to his library (June 21, 1779), where, in a speech of more than an hour in length, he expressed to them "the dictates of his frequent and severe self-examination." He declared his firm resolution to carry on the war against America, France, and Spain; and that, "before he would hear of any man's readiness to come into office, he would expect to see it signed, under his own hand, that he was resolved to keep the empire entire, and that, consequently, no troops should be withdrawn from America, nor its independence ever be allowed." Stubbornly blind to well-known facts, he persisted in believing that, "with the activity of Clinton, and the Indians in their rear, the provinces, even now, would submit." This obstinacy left him only weak men to support him; for it ranged every able statesman and publicist in the kingdom on the side of the opposition.

George the Third's first Official Blunder. There were members of the aristocracy that, through envy, hated Pitt, who, in spite of them, had been called to the highest offices in the kingdom. When young Prince George heard of the death of the king, he went to Carleton House, the residence of his mother, and sent for Newcastle, Pitt's political enemy. He and Lord Bute prevailed upon the young king to discard Pitt and favor their own schemes. Newcastle prepared the first speech from the throne of George III.; and when Pitt, as prime-minister, went to him and presented the draft of an address to be pronounced at the meeting of the Privy Council, he was politely informed that the speech was already prepared and the preliminaries were arranged. Pitt immediately perceived that the king's tutor and warm personal friend of the young king's mother, the Scotch Earl of Bute, had made the arrangements, and would occupy a conspicuous place in the administration. George chose Bute for his counsellor and guide, and Pitt, to whom England more than to any other man owed its present power and glory, was allowed to retire and have his place filled by this Scotch adventurer. The people of England were disgusted, and by this blunder George created a powerful opposition party at the beginning of his reign.

Georgetown (S. C.), CAPTURE OF. In June, 1781, General Marion moved against Georgetown, on Winyaw Bay. The garrison made very slight resistance, and then fled down the bay and hurried to Charleston. He had not men enough to garrison Georgetown, so he moved the spoils up the Pedee to his old encampment at Snow's Island. (See *Marion's Camp.*)

Georgia, COLONY OF, was one of the original thirteen states of the Union, and was the latest settled. When, in 1729, the proprietors of the Carolinas surrendered their charter to the crown, the whole country southward of the Savannah River to the vicinity of St. Augustine was a wilderness, peopled by native tribes, and was claimed by the Spaniards as a part of Florida. The English disputed the claim, and war-clouds seemed to be gathering. At that juncture General James Edward Oglethorpe, commiserating the wretched condition of prisoners for debt who crowded the English prisons, proposed in Parliament the founding of a colony in America, partly for the benefit of this unfortunate class, and as an asylum for oppressed Protestants of Germany and other Continental states. A committee of inquiry reported favorably, and the plan, as proposed by Oglethorpe, was approved by King George II. A royal charter was obtained for a corporation (June 9, 1732) for twenty-one years, "in trust for the poor," to establish a colony in the disputed territory south of the Savannah, to be called *Georgia*, in honor of the king. Individuals subscribed largely to defray the expenses of emigrants, and within two years Parliament appropriated $160,000 for the same purpose. The trustees, appointed by the crown, possessed all legislative and executive power, and there was no political liberty for the people. In November, 1732, Oglethorpe left England with one hundred and twenty emigrants, and, after a passage of fifty-seven days, touched at Charleston, giving great joy to the inhabitants, for he was about to erect a barrier between them and the Indians and Spaniards. Landing a large portion of the emigrants on Port Royal Island, he proceeded to the Savannah River with the remainder, and upon Yamacraw Bluff (the site of Savannah) he laid the foundations of the future state in the ensuing spring of 1733. The rest of the emigrants soon joined him. They built a fort, and called the place *Savannah*, the Indian name of the river, and there he held a friendly conference with the Indians (see *To-mo-chi-chi*), with whom satisfactory arrangements for obtaining sovereignty of the domain were made. Within eight years twenty-five hundred emigrants were sent over from England at an expense to the trustees of $400,000. The condition upon which the lands were parcelled out was military duty; and so grievous were the restrictions, that many colonists went into South Carolina, where they could obtain land in fee. Nevertheless, the colony increased in numbers, a great many emigrants coming from Scotland and Germany. Oglethorpe went to England in 1734, and returned in 1736 with three hundred emigrants, among them one hundred and fifty Highlanders skilled in military affairs. John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield came to spread the gospel among the people and the surrounding heathen. (See *Whitefield.*) Moravians had also settled in Georgia (see *Moravians*), but the little colony was threatened with disaster. The jealous Spaniards at St. Augustine showed signs of hostility. Against this expected trouble Oglethorpe had prepared by building forts in that direction. Finally, in 1739, war broke out between England and Spain, and Oglethorpe was made commander of the South Carolina and Georgia troops. With one thousand men and some Indians he invaded Florida, but returned unsuccessful. In 1742 the Spaniards retaliated, and, with a strong land and naval force, threatened the Georgia colony with destruction. Disaster was averted by a stratagem employed by Oglethorpe, and peace was restored. (See *Oglethorpe.*) Slavery was prohibited in the colony, and the people murmured. Many settlements were abandoned, for tillers of the soil were few. Finally, in 1750, the restrictions concerning slavery were removed; and in 1752, the trustees having surrendered their charter to the crown, Georgia became a royal province, with privileges similar to the others. A general assembly was established in 1755, and in 1763 all the lands between the Savannah and St. Mary rivers were, by royal proclamation, annexed to Georgia. The colony prospered from the time of the transfer to the crown. The Georgians sympathized with their northern brethren in their political grievances, and bore a conspicuous part in the war for independence. A state constitution was adopted by a convention on the 5th of February, 1777, and Georgia took its place among the independent states of the Union, with Button Gwinnett, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, as acting governor.

Georgia Adopts the "American Association." A new Provincial Convention met in Georgia July 4, 1775, and adopted the American Association. This hitherto "defective link in the American chain" now took its place firmly. The convention appointed delegates to the Continental Congress. Lyman Hall, already there from St. John's Parish (which see), was appointed, with Archibald Bullock, Dr. Jones, John Houstoun, and Rev. Dr. Zubley, a Swiss by birth, and minister of the Presbyterian Church at Savannah. A meeting at Savannah had already appointed a Committee of Safety.

Georgia Coast, CONQUEST OF THE. Late in November, 1861, Commodore Dupont went down the coast from Port Royal (which see) with a part of his fleet, and with equal ease took possession of Big Tybee Island, at the mouth of the Savannah River, from which Fort Pulaski, which was within easy mortar distance, might be assailed, and the harbor of Savannah perfectly sealed against blockade-runners. On the approach of the National gunboats the defences were abandoned, and on Nov. 25 Dupont wrote to the Secretary of War: "The flag of the United

States is flying over the territory of Georgia." Before the close of the year the National authority was supreme from Warsaw Sound, below the mouth of the Savannah, to the North Edisto River, below Charleston. Every fort on the islands of that region had been abandoned, and there was nothing to make serious opposition to National authority. When the National forces reached those sea islands along the coasts of South Carolina and Georgia, there was a vast quantity of valuable sea-island cotton, gathered and ungathered, upon them. When the first panic was over the Confederates returned, stealthily, and applied the torch to millions of dollars' worth of this staple.

Georgia, Flight of the Royal Governor of. Sir James Wright was appointed royal governor of Georgia in 1764. He ruled wisely, but was a warm adherent of the royal cause. His influence kept down open resistance to the acts of Parliament for some time; but when that resistance became strong, it was suddenly overpowering. In January, 1776, Joseph Habersham, a member of the Assembly, raised a party of volunteers and made Governor Wright a prisoner, but set him free on his parole not to leave his own house. This parole he violated. A sentinel was placed before his door, and all intercourse between Wright and friends of the crown was forbidden. One stormy night (Feb. 11, 1776) Governor Wright escaped from a back window of his house, with an attendant, fled to a boat at the river-side, and went down the Savannah five miles to Bonaventure, the residence of his companion; thence he was conveyed before daylight to the British armed ship *Scarborough*, in Tybee Sound. So ended the rule of the last royal governor in Georgia. Sir James was a native of Charleston, S. C. He was the son of a chief-justice (Robert Wright) of that province. Sir James was agent of the province in Great Britain, and attorney-general; and in 1760 was appointed chief-justice and lieutenant-governor. In 1772 he was created a baronet. After his escape from Savannah he retired to England, losing all his large estate in Georgia by confiscation. He died in 1786.

Georgia, Invasion of, by Spaniards. In 1742 the Spaniards at St. Augustine determined to invade, seize, and hold Georgia, and capture or drive the English settlers from it. With a fleet of thirty-six vessels from Cuba and a land-force about three thousand strong, they entered the harbor of St. Simon's in July. Oglethorpe, always vigilant, had learned of preparations for this expedition, and he was on St. Simon's Island before them, but with less than one thousand men, including Indians, for the governor of South Carolina had failed to furnish men or supplies. The task of defending both provinces from invasion devolved upon the Georgians. When the Spanish fleet appeared Oglethorpe went on board his own little vessels and addressed the seamen with encouraging words; but when he saw the ships of the enemy pass the English batteries at the southern end of the island, he knew resistance would be in vain, so he ordered his squadron to run up to Frederica, while he spiked the guns at St. Simon's and retreated with his troops. There, waiting for reinforcements from South Carolina (which did not come), he was annoyed by attacks from Spanish detachments, but always repulsed them. Finally, he proceeded to make a night attack on the Spanish camp at St. Simon's. When near the camp a Frenchman in his army ran ahead, fired his musket, and deserted to the enemy. The Spaniards were aroused, and Oglethorpe fell back to Frederica, and accomplished the punishment of the deserter in a novel way. He addressed a letter to the Frenchman as a spy in the Spanish camp, telling him to represent the Georgians as very weak in numbers and arms, and to advise the Spaniards to attack them at once; and if they would not do so, to try and persuade them to remain at St. Simon's three days longer; for within that time a British fleet, with two thousand land-troops, would arrive to attack St. Augustine. This letter was sent to the deserter by a Spanish prisoner, who, as it was expected he would, carried it to the Spanish commander. The Frenchman was put in irons, and afterwards hanged. A council of war was held, and while it was in session vessels from Carolina, seen at sea, were mistaken for the British fleet alluded to. The Spaniards determined to attack Oglethorpe immediately, and then hasten to the defence of St. Augustine. They advanced on Frederica, along a narrow road flanked by a forest and a morass; and when within a mile of the fort Oglethorpe and his Highlanders, lying in ambush, fell upon them furiously. Nearly the whole of the advanced division were killed or captured, and a second, pressing forward, shared their fate. The Spaniards retreated in confusion, leaving about two hundred dead on the field. They fled to their ships, and in them to St. Augustine, to find that they had been outgeneralled by Oglethorpe. The place of the slaughter is called "Bloody Marsh" to this day. This stratagem probably saved Georgia and South Carolina from utter destruction.

Georgia Ordinance of Secession. On Jan. 2, 1861, elections were held in Georgia for members of a convention to consider the subject of secession. The people, outside of the leading politicians and their followers, were opposed to secession; and Alexander H. Stephens, the most consistent and able statesman in Georgia, though believing in the right of secession, opposed the measure as unnecessary and full of danger to the public welfare. On the other hand, Robert Toombs, a shallow but popular leader, unscrupulous in methods of leadership, goaded the people on to disaster by harangues, telegraphic despatches, circulars, etc. He was then one of the most active of the conspirators in the National Congress, and worked night and day to precipitate his state into revolution. The vote at the election was from 25,000 to 30,000 less than usual, and there was a decided majority of the members elected against secession. The convention assembled at Milledgeville, the capital of the state, on Jan. 16. There were 295 members present, who chose Mr. Crawford to preside. "With all the appliances brought to bear, with all the fierce, rushing, maddening events of the hour," said a writer of the day, "the Co-operationists had a majority, notwithstanding the falling-off of nearly 30,000, and an absolute majority of elected delegates of twenty-nine. But, upon assembling, by coaxing, bullying, and all other arts, the majority was changed." On the 18th a resolution was passed by a vote of 165 against 130, declaring it to be the right and duty of the state to withdraw from the Union. On the same day they appointed a committee to draft an ordinance of secession. It was reported almost immediately, and was shorter than any of its predecessors. It was in a single paragraph, and simply declared the repeal and abrogation of all laws which bound the commonwealth to the Union, and that the State of Georgia was in "full possession and exercise of all the rights of sovereignty which belong and appertain to a free and independent state." The ordinance elicited many warm expressions of Union sentiments. Mr. Stephens made a telling speech in favor of the Union, and he and his brother Linton voted against secession in every form. But he did not take the exalted position of Henry Clay, who, on one occasion in Congress, said: "If Kentucky to-morrow unfurls the banner of resistance, I will never fight under that banner. I owe a *paramount* allegiance to the whole Union; a subordinate one to my own state." When, at two o'clock in the afternoon of Jan. 19, 1861, the Ordinance of Secession was adopted, by a vote of 208 against 89, Stephens declared that he should go with his state, and, in accordance with a resolution adopted, he signed the ordinance. A resolution to submit the ordinance to the people of the state for ratification or rejection was rejected by a large majority. At that stage of the proceedings, a copy of a resolution passed by the Legislature of the State of New York, tendering to the President of the United States all the available forces of the state, to enable him to enforce the laws, was received, and produced much excitement. Toombs immediately offered the following resolution, which was adopted unanimously: "As a response to the resolution of New York, that this convention highly approves of the energetic and patriotic conduct of the Governor of Georgia in taking possession of Fort Pulaski (which see) by Georgia troops, and requests him to hold possession until the relations of Georgia with the Federal Government be determined by this convention, and that a copy of this resolution be ordered to be transmitted to the governor of New York." The convention chose delegates to the proposed general convention at Montgomery.

Georgia Paper Currency. In 1760 the Legislature authorized the issuing of the sum of $37,000 in bills of credit.

Georgia, SUBJUGATION OF (1779). General Lincoln was sent to Georgia to take the place of General Howe. General Prevost, commanding the British forces in East Florida, was ordered to Savannah, to join Lieutenant-colonel Campbell for the subjugation of Georgia to British rule. On his way, Prevost captured Sunbury (Jan. 9, 1779) and took two hundred Continental prisoners. As soon as he reached Savannah he sent Campbell against Augusta, which was abandoned by the garrison, who escaped across the river. The state now seemed at the mercy of the invader. An invasion of South Carolina was anticipated. The militia of that state were summoned to the field. Lincoln was at Charleston. With militia lately arrived from North Carolina and the fragments of Howe's force, he had about fourteen hundred men, whom he stationed to guard the fords of the Savannah. The force under Prevost was much larger, but he hesitated to cross the river, the marshy borders of which were often overflowed to the width of three or four miles, threaded only at one or two points by a narrow causeway. A detachment sent by Prevost to take possession of Port Royal Island was repulsed by Colonel Moultrie. Lincoln, being reinforced, sent Colonel Ashe, of North Carolina, with fourteen hundred troops, to drive the British from Augusta. The British fled down the Georgia side of the river at his approach. He crossed and pursued, and at Brier Creek, about half-way to Savannah, he lay encamped, when he was surprised, and, after a sharp skirmish, was defeated, and his troops dispersed. (See *Brier Creek*.) The British reoccupied Augusta and opened a communication with the South Carolina Tories and the friendly Creek Indians. Now secured in the quiet possession of Georgia, Prevost issued a proclamation reinstating Sir James Wright as governor, and the laws as they had been before 1775. Savannah became the headquarters of the British army in the South.

Georgia, THE PROVINCIAL CONGRESS OF, assembled at Tondee's Long Room, at Savannah, July 4, 1775, at which delegates from fourteen districts and parishes were in attendance—namely, from the districts of Savannah, Vernonburg, Acton, Sea Island, and Little Ogeechee, and the parishes of St. Matthew, St. Philip, St. George, St. Andrew, St. David, St. Thomas, St. Mary, St. Paul, and St. John. Archibald Bullock was elected president of the Congress, and George Walton secretary. The Congress adopted the "American Association," and appointed as delegates to the Continental Congress Lyman Hall (already there), Archibald Bullock, Dr. Jones, John Houstoun, and Rev. Dr. Zubley, a Swiss by birth, who soon became a Tory. Sir James Wright (the governor) issued proclamations to quench the flames of patriotism, but in vain. His power had departed forever.

Georgia, THE STATE OF, was the latest settled of the original thirteen. It framed its first state constitution in 1777, its second in 1789, and a third in 1798, which was several times amended. On June 2, 1788, Georgia ratified the National Constitution. The settlers on the frontier suffered much from incursions of the Creek and Cherokee Indians, but their friendship was secured by treaties in 1790–91. By a treaty in

STATE SEAL OF GEORGIA.

1802 the Creeks ceded to the United States a large tract, which was afterwards assigned to Georgia, now forming the southwestern counties of the state. The same year Georgia ceded to the United States all its claims to the lands westward of the boundaries of its present limits. Finally difficulties arose between the state and the national government respecting the Cherokees (see *Cherokees and Georgians*), and on their removal to the country west of the Mississippi, in 1838, Georgia came into possession of all their lands. Immediately after the election of Mr. Lincoln in 1860, the politicians of Georgia took measures for accomplishing the secession of that state. (See *Georgia Ordinance of Secession.*) Its delegates in the Confederate government organized at Montgomery, Ala., were conspicuous, A. H. Stephens being made Vice-President of the Confederacy. The governor of Georgia ordered the seizure of the public property of the United States within the limits of his state, and war made havoc on its coasts and in the interior. Sherman swept through the state with a large army late in 1864, "living off the country," and within its borders the President of the Confederacy was captured in May, 1865. (See *Davis, Jefferson, Capture of.*) Within its borders was the famous Andersonville Prison-pen (which see). In June, 1865, a provisional governor was appointed for the state. A convention held at Milledgeville late in October repealed the Ordinance of Secession, declared the war debt void, amended the constitution so as to abolish slavery, and in November elected a governor, legislature, and members of Congress. Congress did not approve these measures, and the senators and representatives chosen were not admitted to seats. In 1867 Georgia, with Alabama and Florida, formed a military district, and was placed under military rule. A convention at Atlanta, in March, 1868, framed a constitution, which was ratified in April by a majority of nearly eighteen thousand votes. On June 25, Congress, by act, provided for the readmission of Georgia, with other states, upon their ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment to the National Constitution. By a violation of the "Reconstruction Act," in not permitting colored men, legally elected, to occupy seats in the Legislature, Georgia representatives were not permitted to take seats in Congress. The Supreme Court of the state declared that negroes were entitled to hold office. A new election was held, both houses of the state Legislature were duly organized (Jan. 31, 1869), all the requirements of Congress were acceded to, and on July 15 an act of Congress provided for the readmission of Georgia to the Union. Its representatives took their seats in December, 1869.

Georgia, TRUSTEES' GOVERNMENT OF. To twenty-one trustees George II. gave a charter (June 9, 1732) for planting a colony in America. They chose for its site the unoccupied country between South Carolina and Georgia. The project, which mainly contemplated the relief of prisoners for debt in England, and to establish an asylum for persecuted Protestants in Continental Europe, met with universal approval, and donations from persons of all ranks were made to enable emigrants to go to America. The Bank of England made a generous gift. The House of Commons voted, from time to time, sums which aggregated, in the course of two years, $180,000. Lord (Viscount) Perceval was chosen president of the trustees, and a code of regulations for the colony, with agreements and stipulations, was speedily prepared. The title of the association was, "Trustees for Settling and Establishing the Colony of Georgia." The trustees were, Anthony, Earl of Shaftesbury, John (Lord) Perceval, Edward Digby, George Carpenter, James Edward Oglethorpe, George Heathcote, Thomas Tower, Robert Moore, Robert Hucks, Roger Holland, William Sloper, Francis Eyles, John La Roche, James Vernon, William Beletha, John Burton, Richard Bundy, Arthur Beaford, Samuel Smith, Adam Anderson, and Thomas Coram. They were vested with legislative powers for the government of the colony for the space of twenty-one years, at the expiration of which time a permanent government was to be established by the king or his successor, in accordance with British law and usage. They adopted a seal for the colony, which indicated the avowed intention of making it a silk-producing commonwealth. On one side was represented a group of toiling silk-worms, and the motto, "Non sibi, sed alius;" on the other, the genius of the colony, between two urns (two rivers), with a cap of liberty on her head, in her hands a spear and a horn of plenty, and the words, "Colonia Georgia Aug." This was a strange seal for a colony whose toilers and others possessed no political freedom. The code of laws and regulations adopted by the trustees provided that each tract of land granted to a settler should be accepted as a pledge that the owner should take up arms for the common defence whenever required; that no tract should exceed twenty-five acres in extent, and no person should possess more than five hundred acres; that no woman should be capable of succeeding to landed property; that, in default of male heirs, the property of a proprietor should revert to the trustees, to be again granted to another emigrant; that if any portion of land granted should not, within eighteen years thereafter, be cleared, fenced, and cultivated, it should relapse to the trustees. It was recommended that the daughters of a deceased proprietor having no male heirs, unless provided for by marriage, should have some compensation, and his widow have the use of his house and half his land during her life. No inhabitant was permitted to leave the province without a license, the importation of rum was disallowed, trade with the West Indies was declared unlawful, and negro slavery was absolutely forbidden. It has been well said that, with one or two exceptions, this code did not exhibit a trace of common-sense. It is no wonder the colony did not prosper, for the laws were hostile to contentment, discouraging every planter whose children were girls, and offering very poor incentives to industry. When, in 1752, the trusteeship expired, and Georgia was made a royal province, its growth was rapid.

Germain and the Indians. Lord George Germain, Secretary for the Colonies, seemed to take pride and comfort in employing agents who would incite the savages of the wilderness to fall on the Americans. He complained of the humanity of Carleton, who, in the autumn of 1776, hesitated to employ the Indians in war; but in Hamilton, governor of Detroit, he found a ready agent in the carrying out of his cruel schemes. Early in September (1776) that functionary wrote he had assembled small parties of barbarians in council, and that the Ottawas, Chippewas, Wyandots, and Potawatomies, with the Senecas, would "fall on the scattered settlers on the Ohio and its branches;" and saying of the Americans, "Their arrogance, disloyalty, and imprudence has justly drawn upon them this deplorable sort of war." It was Germain and his agents (sometimes unworthy ones) who excited the Indians to scalp and murder the white settlers, without distinction of age or sex, all along the frontier line from New York to Georgia. He reproved every commander who showed signs of mercy in his conduct in this business.

Germain, LORD GEORGE (Viscount Sackville), was born Jan. 26, 1716; died Aug. 26, 1785. His father (Duke of Dorset) was lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and he was educated there. He entered the army, and rose to the rank of lieutenant-general. He entered Parliament in 1761, and was made Colonial Secretary in 1775, ever evincing the most vindictive spirit towards the Americans. He became so unpopular at home that, during the London riots in 1780, he felt compelled to barricade his house in the city. So consonant were his views with those of the king, that he was a great favorite at court. His influence over the young king at the time of his coronation and soon afterwards was so well known that a handbill appeared with the words, "No Lord George Sackville! No Petticoat Government!" alluding to the influence of the monarch's mother.

LORD GEORGE GERMAIN.

German Mercenaries. Soon after the opening of Parliament in the autumn of 1775, that body, stimulated by Lord North, the premier, and Lord George Germain, who had been chosen Secretary for the Colonies, and, at the suggestion of Admiral Howe, promptly voted twenty-five thousand men for service against the Americans. It was difficult to obtain enlistments in Great Britain, and mercenaries were sought in Germany. At the close of the year, and at the beginning of 1776, bargains were effected between representatives of the British government and the reigning princes of Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Hanau, Brunswick, Anhalt, Anspach, and Waldeck. In the bargains, the fundamental law of trade—supply and demand—prevailed. The King of England had money, but lacked troops; the German rulers had troops, but wanted money. The bargain was a natural one, on business principles; the morality of the transaction was another affair. About seventeen thousand German troops, most of them well disciplined, were hired. The German rulers were to receive for each soldier a bounty of $22.50, besides an annual subsidy, the whole amounting to a large sum. The British government agreed to make restitution for all soldiers who might perish from contagious disease while being transported in ships and in engagements during sieges. They were to take an oath of allegiance to the British sovereign during their service, without its interfering with similar oaths to their respective rulers. Their chief commanders, when they sailed for America, were Generals Baron de Riedesel, Baron Knyphausen, and De Heister. The general name of "Hessians" was given to them by the Americans, and, because they were mercenaries, they were heartily detested by the colonists. When any brutal act of oppression or wrong was to be carried out, such as a plundering or burning expedition, the Hessians were generally employed in the service. The transaction was regarded by other nations as disgraceful to the British. The King of Great Britain shrank from the odium it inflicted, and refused to give commissions to German recruiting officers (for he knew their methods of forcing men into the service), saying, "It, in plain English, amounts to making me a kidnapper, which I cannot think a very honorable occupation." All Europe cried "Shame!" and Frederick the Great, of Prussia, took every opportunity to express his contempt for the "scandalous man-traffic" of his neighbors. Without these troops, the war would have been short. A part of them, under Riedesel, went to Canada (May, 1776); the remainder, under Knyphausen and De Heister, joined the British under Howe, before New York, in the summer of 1776, and had their first encounter on Long Island, Aug. 27.

Germans in America. Germany had long lain prostrate, with few gleams of hope for resuscitation from the deadly blow given it by the Thirty Years' War. For more than half a century it had lain in almost inert isolation, like a magnificent ruin. The Protestants of that country beheld the light breaking when the settlements in America began to prosper, and Germans, especially from the borders of the Rhine, flocked to the young world beyond the sea, and largely peopled the land, in the course of a century, between the Mohawk Valley and northern

Virginia. They brought with them the love of liberty and of rural life, and gave to the new nation, formed late in the 18th century, much rich blood.

Germans in North Carolina. In 1709 one hundred German families, driven from their desolated homes in the palatinates on the Rhine, came to America, and penetrated the interior of North Carolina. They were led by Count Graffenreidt, and founded settlements along the head-waters of the Neuse and upon the Roanoke, with the count as governor. They had just begun to gather the fruits of their industry, when suddenly, in the night (Oct. 2, 1711), the Tuscarora Indians and others fell upon them like lightning, and before the dawn one hundred and thirty persons perished by the hatchet and knife. Then along Albemarle Sound the barbarians swept, with a torch in one hand and a deadly weapon in the other, and scourged the white people for three days, leaving blood and cinders in their path, when, from drunkenness and exhaustion, they ceased murdering and burning. On the eve of this murderous raid the Indians had made captive Count Graffenreidt and John Lawson, surveyor-general of the province. Lawson they tortured to death, but the count saved his life and gained his liberty by adroitly persuading them that he was the sachem of a tribe of men who had lately come into the country, and were no way connected with the English, or the deeds of which the Indians complained. Graffenreidt made a treaty of peace with the Tuscaroras and Corees.

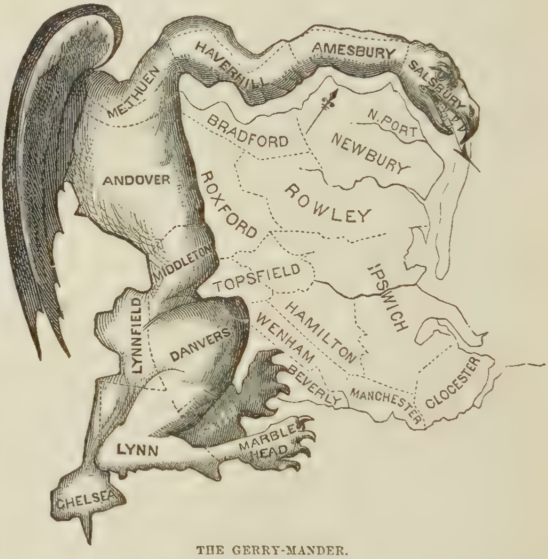
Germantown, BATTLE OF. There were formidable obstructions in the Delaware River below Philadelphia, placed there by the Americans, and also two forts and a redoubt that commanded the stream. The British fleet was in Delaware Bay (Sept. 25), but could not reach Philadelphia before these obstructions were removed. General Howe prepared to assist his brother in removing these obstructions, and sent strong detachments from his army to occupy the shores of the Delaware below Philadelphia, which the Americans still held. Perceiving the weakening of Howe's army, and feeling the necessity of speedily striking a blow that should revive the spirits of the Americans, it was resolved to attack the British army at Germantown. Washington had been reinforced by Maryland and New Jersey troops. His army moved in four columns during the night of Oct. 3, 1777; the divisions of Sullivan and Wayne, flanked by General Conway's brigade on the right, moving by way of Chestnut Hill, while Armstrong, with Pennsylvania militia, made a circuit to gain the left and rear of the enemy. The divisions of Greene and Stephen, flanked by McDougall's brigade (two thirds of the whole army), moved on a circuitous route to attack the front of the British right wing, while the Maryland and New Jersey militia, under Smallwood and Forman, marched to fall upon the rear of that wing. Lord Stirling, with the brigades of Nash and Maxwell, formed the reserve. Howe's force stretched across the country from Germantown, with a battalion of light infantry and Simcoe's Queen's Rangers (American loyalists) in the front. In advance of the left wing were other light infantry, to support pickets on Mount Airy, and the extreme left was guarded by Hessian Yagers (riflemen). Near the large stone mansion of Chief-justice Chew (yet standing), at the head of the village, was a strong regiment under Colonel Musgrave. Washington's army, moving stealthily, tried to reach Chestnut Hill before the dawn (Oct. 4), but failed. It was near sunrise when they emerged from the woods on that eminence. The whole country was enveloped in a thick fog. The British were surprised. The troops of Wayne and Sullivan fell, unexpectedly and with heavy force, upon the British infantry in front, and they were hurled back upon their main line in confusion by a storm of grape-shot. This cannonade awakened Cornwallis, who was sleeping soundly in Philadelphia, unconscious of danger near. Howe, too, nearer the army, was aroused from slumber, and arrived near the scene of conflict to meet his flying battalions. Then he hastened to his camp, to prepare his troops for action. Musgrave sent a part of his regiment to support the fugitives, and, with six companies, took refuge in Chew's strong dwelling. He barricaded the doors and lower windows, and made it a castle. From its upper windows he poured such a volley of bullets upon Woodford's pursuing brigade that their march was checked. The fire of the American small-arms upon the building was ineffectual. Finally Maxwell's artillerists brought cannons to bear upon the house, but its strong walls resisted the heavy round shot. Then an attempt was made to set fire to the mansion. This check in the pursuit brought back Wayne's division, leaving Sullivan's flank uncovered. This event, and the failure of Greene to attack at the time ordered, disconcerted Washington's plans. Greene's troops had fallen into confusion in the fog, as they traversed the broken country, but they soon smote the British right with force. The failure of other troops to co-operate with them by turning the British left caused Greene to fail, and the golden opportunity to strike a crushing blow had passed. In the fog that still

CHEW'S HOUSE.

prevailed, parties of Americans attacked each other on the field; and it was afterwards ascertained that, while the assault on Chew's house was in progress, the whole British army were preparing to fly across the Schuylkill, and rendezvous at Chester. At that moment of panic General Grey observed that his flanks were secure, and Knyphausen marched with his whole force to assist the beleaguered garrison and the contending regiments in the village. Then a short and severe battle occurred in the heart of Germantown. The Americans could not discern the number of their assailants in the confusing mist, when suddenly the cry of a trooper, "We are surrounded!" produced a panic, and the patriots retreated in great confusion. The struggle lasted about three hours. The Americans lost about six hundred, killed, wounded, and missing; the British about eight hundred. Washington fell back to his encampment on Skippack Creek. General Nash, while covering the retreat with his brigade, was mortally wounded.

Gerry, Elbridge, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Marblehead, Mass., July 17, 1744; died in Washington, D.C., when Vice-President of the United States, Nov. 23, 1814. He graduated at Harvard, in 1762. He took part early in the strife before the Revolution, and in 1772 represented his native town in the State Legislature. Gerry was the first to propose, in the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, a law for fitting out armed vessels and establishing a Court of Admiralty. He took a seat in the Continental Congress early in 1776, signed the Declaration of Independence, and remained in that body, with few intermissions, until 1785. He was an efficient member of finance committees in the Congress, and was President of the Treasury Board in 1780. A delegate in the convention that framed the National Constitution, he was one of those who refused to sign the instrument. He was a member of Congress from 1789 to 1793, and in 1797 was sent as one of the special envoys on a mission to France. He was elected governor of Massachusetts by the Democratic party in 1810, and in 1812 was chosen Vice-President of the United States. Mr. Gerry married a daughter of Charles Thomson, Secretary of Congress, who died in 1849, aged 86 years.

Gerrymandering, a political term employed in this country from the year 1812 even to this day. The history of it may be briefly told. After a bitter contest for power in Massachusetts between the Federalists and Democrats, the latter succeeded, in 1811, in electing their candidate for governor, Elbridge Gerry, and a majority of both houses of the Legislature. In order to secure the election of United States Senators in the future, it was important to perpetuate this possession of power, and measures were taken to retain a Democratic majority in the State Senate in all future years. The senatorial districts had been formed without any division of counties. This arrangement, for the purpose alluded to, was now disturbed. The Legislature proceeded to rearrange the senatorial districts of the state. They divided counties in opposition to the protests and strong constitutional arguments of the Federalists; and those of Essex and Worcester were so divided as to form a Democratic majority in each of those Federal counties, without any apparent regard to convenience or propriety. The work was sanctioned and became a law by the signature of Governor Gerry, for which act the opposition severely castigated him through the newspapers and at public gatherings. In Essex County the arrangement of the district, in relation to the towns, was singular and absurd. Russell, the veteran editor of the *Boston Sentinel*, who had fought against the scheme valiantly, took a map of that county, and designated by particular coloring the towns thus selected, and hung it on the wall of his editorial room. One day Gilbert Stuart, the eminent painter, looked at the map, and said the towns which Russell had thus distinguished resembled some monstrous animal. He took a pencil, and with a few touches represented a head, wings, claws, and tail. "There," said Stuart, "that will do for a salamander." Russell, who was busy with his pen, looked up at the hideous figure, and exclaimed, "Salamander! Call it *Gerry-mander*." The word was immediately adopted into the political vocabulary as a term of reproach for those who change boundaries of districts for a partisan purpose.



THE GERRY-MANDER.

Getty, George W., was born in the District of Columbia about 1820, and graduated at West Point in 1840. He served in the war with Mexico, and in the Seminole War in Florida; and, becoming brigadier-general of volunteers in 1862, did excellent service in the campaign on the Peninsula. He was in the battles of South Mountain, Antietam, and Fredericksburg in 1862; also in the campaign against Richmond in 1864 until August, when he was breveted major-general of volunteers. He was in the army in the Shenandoah Valley the remainder of the year. He was also in the battle at Sailor's Creek and at the surrender of Lee. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general in the United States Army.

Gettysburg, BATTLE OF. On the day when General Meade took command of the Army of the Potomac (June 28, 1863) Lee was about to cross the Susquehanna at Harrisburg and march on Philadelphia. The militia of Pennsylvania, who had shown great apathy in responding to the call for help, now, when danger was at their door, turned out with considerable spirit; and Lee, observing this, and hearing that the augmented Army of the Potomac was in Maryland and threatening his rear and flanks, immediately abandoned his scheme for further invasion and ordered a retrograde movement. On the same day, Stuart, with a large force of cavalry, crossed the Potomac, pushed on to Westminster, at the right of the Nationals, crossed over to Carlisle, encountering Kilpatrick and his cavalry, and followed Ewell in his march towards Gettysburg. Longstreet had been ordered to cross the South Mountain range, and press on through Gettysburg to Baltimore to keep Meade from cutting Lee's communications. Lee hoped to crush Meade, and then march in triumph on Baltimore and Washington; or, in case of failure, to secure a direct line of retreat into Virginia. Meanwhile Meade was pushing towards the Susquehanna with cautious movement, and on the evening of June 30 he discovered Lee's evident intention to give battle at once. On the day before, Kilpatrick and Custer's cavalry had defeated some of Stuart's a few miles from Gettysburg. (See *Hanover, Battle at.*) Buford's cavalry entered Gettysburg; and on the 30th the left wing of Meade's army, led by General Reynolds, arrived near there. At the same time the corps of Hill and Longstreet were approaching from Chambersburg, and Ewell was marching down from Carlisle in full force. On the morning of July 1 Buford, with six thousand cavalry, met the van of Lee's army, led by General Heth, between Seminary Ridge (a little way from Gettysburg) and a parallel ridge a little farther west, when a sharp skirmish ensued. Reynolds, who had bivouacked at Marsh Creek, a few miles distant, was then advancing with his own corps, followed by Howard's, having those of Sickles and Slocum within call. The sound of fire-arms quickened his pace, and he marched rapidly to the relief of Buford, who was holding the Confederates in check. While Reynolds was placing some of his troops on the Chambersburg road, the Confederates made an attack, when a volley of musketry from the Fifty-sixth Pennsylvania, led by Colonel J. W. Hoffman, opened the decisive battle of Gettysburg. Meredith's "Iron Brigade" then charged into a wood in the rear of the Seminary to fall upon Hill's right, under General Archer. The Nationals were pushed back, but other troops, under the personal direction of Reynolds, struck Archer's flank, and captured that officer and eight hundred of his men. At the moment when this charge was made, the bullet of a Mississippi sharpshooter pierced Reynolds's neck, when he fell forward and expired. General Doubleday had just arrived, and took Reynolds's place, leaving his own division in charge of General Rowley. Very soon the Mississippi Brigade, under General Davis, was captured, and at noon the whole of the First Corps, under General Doubleday, was well posted on Seminary Ridge, and the remainder of Hill's corps was rapidly approaching. Meanwhile the advance division of Ewell's corps had taken a position on a ridge north of the town, connecting with Hill, and seriously menacing the National right, held by General Cutler. Doubleday sent aid to Cutlér, when a severe struggle ensued for some time, and three North Carolina regiments were captured. Now the battle assumed far grander proportions. Howard's corps, animated by the sounds of battle on its front, pressed rapidly forward, and reached the field of strife at a little past noon. He left Steinwehr's brigade on Cemetery Hill, placed General Schurz in temporary charge of the corps, and, ranking Doubleday, took the chief command of all the troops in action. The Confederate numbers were continually augmented, and, to meet an expected attack from the north and west, Howard was compelled to extend the National lines, then quite thin, about three miles, with Culp's Hill on the right, Round Top on the left, and Cemetery Hill in the centre, forming the apex of a redan. At about three o'clock in the afternoon there was a general advance of the Confederates, and a terrible battle ensued, with heavy losses on both sides. The Nationals were defeated. They had anxiously looked for reinforcements from the scattered corps of the Army of the Potomac. These speedily came, but not until the preliminary engagement in the great battle of Gettysburg was ended. General Meade was at Taneytown, thirteen miles distant, when he heard of the death of Reynolds, and he ordered General Hancock, Howard's junior, to leave his corps with Gibbons and take the chief command at Gettysburg. He arrived just as the beaten forces were hurrying towards Cemetery Hill. He reported to Meade that he was satisfied with Howard's disposition of the troops. The latter had called early upon Slocum and Sickles, and both promptly responded. Sickles joined the left of the troops on Cemetery Hill that night. Hancock had gone back; and, meeting his own corps, posted it a mile and half in the rear of Cemetery Hill. Meade had now given orders for the concentration of his whole army at Gettysburg, and he aroused them at one o'clock in the morning of July 2, when only the corps of Sykes and Sedgwick were absent. Lee, too, had been bringing forward his troops as rapidly as possible, making his headquarters on Seminary Ridge. On the morning of the 2d a greater portion of the two armies confronted each other. Both commanders seemed averse to taking the initiative of battle. The Nationals had the advantage of position, their lines projecting in wedge form towards the Confederate centre, with steep rocky acclivities along their front. It was late in the afternoon before a decided movement was made. Sickles, on the left, between Cemetery Hill and Round Top, expecting an attack, had advanced his corps well towards the heaviest columns of the Confederates. Then Lee attacked him with Longstreet's corps. There was first a severe struggle for the possession of the rocky eminence on Meade's extreme left, where Birney was stationed. The Nationals won. Meanwhile there was a fierce contest near the centre, between Little Round Top and Cemetery Hill. While yet there was strife for the former, General Crawford, with six regiments of Pennsylvania Reserves, swept down its northwestern side with tremendous shouts, and drove the Confederates through the woods to the Emmettsburg road, making three hundred of them prisoners. Generals Humphreys and Graham were then in an advanced position, the former with his right on the Emmettsburg road, when Hill, advancing in heavy force from Seminary Ridge, fell upon him and pushed him back, with a loss of half his men and three guns. In this onset Sickles lost a leg, and Birney took command of the corps. Elated by this success, the Confederates pushed up to the base of Cemetery Hill and its southern slope, throwing themselves recklessly upon supposed weak points. In this contest Meade led troops in person. Finally, Hancock, just at sunset, directed a general charge, chiefly by fresh troops under Doubleday, who had hastened to his assistance from the rear of Cemetery Hill. These, with Humphreys' shattered regiments, drove the Confederates back and recaptured four guns. The battle ended on the left centre at twilight. Then the battle was renewed on the National right, where General Slocum was in chief command. Ewell had attacked him with a part of his corps at the time Longstreet assailed the left. The assault was vigorous. Up the northern slopes of Cemetery Hill the Confederates pressed in the face of a murderous fire of canister and shrapnel to the muzzles of the guns. Another part of Ewell's corps attempted to turn the National right by attacking its weakened part on Culp's Hill. The Confederates were repulsed at the right centre; and, after a severe battle on the extreme right of the Nationals, the Confederates there were firmly held in check. So ended, at about ten o'clock at night, the second day's battle at Gettysburg, when nearly forty thousand men of the two armies, who were "effective" thirty-six hours before, were dead or wounded. The advantage seemed to be with the Confederates, for they held the ground in advance of Gettysburg which the Nationals had held the previous day. During the night Meade made provision for expelling the Confederate intrusion on the National right by placing a heavy artillery force in that direction. Under cover of these guns a strong force made an attack, and for four hours Geary's division kept up a desperate struggle. Then the Confederates fell back, and the right was made secure. Now Ewell was repulsed on the right, and Round Top, on the left, was impregnable; so Lee determined to strike Meade's centre with a force that should crush it. At noon (July 3) he had one hundred and forty-five cannons in battery along the line occupied by Longstreet and Hill. All night General Hunt, of the Nationals, had been arranging the artillery from Cemetery Hill to Little Round Top, where the expected blow would fall. Lee determined to aim his chief blow at Hancock's position on Cemetery Hill. At one o'clock P.M. one hundred and fifteen of his cannons opened a rapid concentrated fire on the devoted point. A hundred National guns replied, and for two hours more than two hundred cannons shook the surrounding country with their detonations. Then the Confederate infantry, in a line three miles in length, preceded by a host of skirmishers, flowed swiftly over the undulating plain. Behind these was a heavy reserve. Pickett, with his Virginians, led the van, well supported, in a charge upon Cemetery Hill. In all, his troops were about fifteen thousand strong. The cannons had now almost ceased thundering, and were succeeded by the awful roll of musketry. Shot and shell from Hancock's batteries now made fearful lanes through the oncoming Confederate ranks. Hancock was wounded, and Gibbons was placed in command. Pickett pressed onward, when the divisions of Hayes and Gibbons opened an appalling and continuous fire upon them. The Confederates gave way, and 2000 men were made prisoners, and fifteen battle-flags became trophies of victory for Hayes. Still Pickett moved on, scaled Cemetery Hill, burst through Hancock's line, drove back a portion of General Webb's brigade, and planted the Confederate

VIEW ON LITTLE ROUND TOP.*

---

* This is a view of the crest of Little Round Top at the place of a National battery. The group of trees in the distance are on Cemetery Hill, where Hancock's command was stationed, and Gettysburg is seen just behind it.

flag on a stone wall. But Pickett could go no farther. Then Stannard's Vermont brigade of Doubleday's division opened such a destructive fire on Pickett's troops that they gave way. Very soon 2500 of them were made prisoners, and with them twelve battle-flags, and three fourths of his gallant men were dead or captives. Wilcox supported Pickett, and met a similar fate at the hands of the Vermonters. Meanwhile Crawford had advanced upon the Confederate right from near Little Round Top. The Confederates fled; and in this sortie the whole ground lost by Sickles was recovered, with 260 men captives, 7000 small-arms, a cannon, and wounded Unionists, who had lain nearly twenty-four hours uncared for. Thus, at near sunset, July 3, 1863, ended the battle of Gettysburg. During that night and all the next day Lee's army on Seminary Ridge prepared for flight back to Virginia. His invasion was a failure; and on Sunday morning, July 5, his whole army was moving towards the Potomac. (See *Lee's Second Retreat from Maryland.*) This battle, in its far-reaching effects, was the most important of the war. The National loss in men, from the morning of the 1st until the evening of the 3d of July, was reported by Meade to be 23,186, of whom 2834 were killed, 13,709 wounded, and 6643 missing. A greater portion of the latter were prisoners. Lee, as usual, made no report of his losses. It was the policy of the Confederate government to conceal such discouraging facts from the people. A careful estimate, made from various sources, made his loss about 30,000, of whom 14,000 were prisoners.

Ghent, Negotiation of Treaty of Peace at. The negotiation of the treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain occurred in the city of Ghent, the capital of East Flanders, Belgium, situated at the confluence of the Scheldt and Lys. There the American commissioners assembled at about midsummer, 1814, and were joined by the British commissioners early in August. (See *Treaty of Peace*, 1814.) Their deliberations and discussions continued several months, and the final result was reached Dec. 24. The leading citizens of Ghent took great interest in the matter. Their sympathies were with the Americans, and they mingled their rejoicings with the commissioners when the work was done. On Oct. 27 (1814) the Academy of Sciences and Fine Arts at Ghent invited the American commissioners to attend their exercises, when they were all elected honorary members of the academy. A sumptuous dinner was given, at which the Intendant, or chief magistrate, of Ghent offered the following sentiment: "Our distinguished guests and fellow-members, the American ministers — may they succeed in making an honorable peace to secure the liberty and independence of their country." The band then played *Hail Columbia.* The British commissioners were not present. After the treaty was concluded, the American commissioners gave a dinner to the British commissioners, at which Count H. van Steinhuyser, the Intendant of the department, was present. Sentiments of mutual friendship were offered. A few days afterwards the Intendant gave an entertainment to the commissioners of both nations.

VIEW OF THE CITY OF GHENT, FROM THE SCHELDT.

Gibbon, Edward, historian, was born at Putney, April 27, 1737; died in London, Jan. 16, 1794. He was from infancy feeble in physical constitution. His first serious attempt at authorship was when he was only a youth—a treatise on the age of Sesostris. He was fond of Oriental research. Reading Bossuet's *Variations of Protestantism* and *Exposition of Catholic Doctrine*, he became a Roman Catholic, and at length a free-thinker. He was a student at Oxford when he abjured Protestantism, and was expelled. He read with avidity the Latin, Greek, and French classics, and became passionately fond of historical research. He also studied practically the military art, as a member of the Hampshire militia, with his father. In 1751 he published a defence of classical studies against the attacks of the French philosophers. In 1764 he went to Rome, and studied its antiquities with delight and seriousness, and there he conceived the idea of writing his great work, *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. "It was at Rome," he wrote, "on the 15th of October, 1764, as I sat musing amid the ruins of the Capitol, while barefooted friars were singing vespers in the Temple of Jupiter, that the idea of writing the decline and fall of the city first started to my mind." But that work was not seriously begun until 1770, and the first volume was completed in 1775. In 1774 he became a member of the House of Commons, and at first took sides with the Americans, writing much in their favor. He finally became a firm supporter of the British ministry in their proceedings against the Americans, writing in their defence a pamphlet in the French language, when he was provided by them with a lucrative sinecure office worth $4000 a year. His mouth (or rather pen) was thus stopped by the government favor. To this venality the following epigram alludes. It was written, it is said, by Charles James Fox.

EDWARD GIBBON.

> "King George, in a fright, lest Gibbon should write
> The story of Britain's disgrace,
> Thought no means more sure his pen to secure
> Than to give the historian a place.
>
> "But his caution is vain, 'tis the curse of his reign
> That his projects should never succeed;
> Though he write not a line, yet a cause of *decline*
> In the author's example we read."

On the downfall of the North administration, and the loss of his salary, Gibbon left England and went to live at Lausanne, Switzerland. There he completed his great work in June, 1787, and, sending the manuscript to England, it was issued on his fifty-first birthday. It is said that his booksellers realized a profit on the work of $300,000, while the author's profits were only $30,000. On setting out for England in the spring of 1793, a malady (hydrocephalus, or dropsy of the head) which he had long concealed as his affliction rapidly developed into a fatal disorder, and terminated his life suddenly the next year.

Gibbs, ALFRED, was born in New York, April 23, 1823; died at Fort Leavenworth, Kan., Dec. 26, 1868. He graduated at West Point in 1846, served under Scott in Mexico and afterwards against the Indians, and when the Civil War broke out he was in Texas. He was made prisoner, and when exchanged in 1862 he was made colonel of New York volunteers, and served under Sheridan, in the latter part of the war, in command of a cavalry brigade. He was active in the Army of the Potomac at all times, and was a thoroughly trustworthy officer. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general of volunteers.

Gibson, GEORGE, was born at Lancaster, Penn., in October, 1747; died at Fort Jefferson, O., Dec. 14, 1791. On the breaking-out of the Revolution he raised a company of one hundred men at Fort Pitt, who were distinguished for their bravery and as sharpshooters, and were called "Gibson's Lambs." These did good service throughout the war. A part of the time Gibson was colonel of a Virginia regiment. To obtain a supply of gunpowder, he went down the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, with twenty-five picked men and a cargo of flour, ostensibly for trade, and returned with the desired ammunition. In the disastrous battle (Nov. 4, 1791) in which St. Clair was defeated, Colonel Gibson was mortally wounded.—His brother JOHN was also a soldier of the Revolution. He was born in May, 1730, and died in April, 1822. He was in Forbes's expedition against Fort Duquesne, and acted a conspicuous part in Dunmore's War (which see) in 1774. He commanded a Continental regiment in the war for independence, his chief command being on the Western frontier. He was made a judge of the Common Pleas of Alleghany County, and in 1800 was appointed by Jefferson Secretary of the Indian Territory, which post he held until it became a state. (See *Logan's Speech*.)

Gilbert, RALEIGH, a nephew of Sir Walter Raleigh, commanded a vessel in an expedition to settle at the mouth of the Kennebec River in 1607. They arrived at Mohegan Island, and on Cape Small Point (now Phippsburg) they built a fort. The settlement was temporary.

Gilbert, SIR HUMPHREY, a distinguished navigator, and half-brother of Sir Walter Raleigh (see *Raleigh*), was born at Dartmouth, Devonshire, Eng., in 1539; died at sea, Sept. 9, 1583. Finishing his studies at Eton and Oxford, he entered upon the military profession; and being successful in suppressing a rebellion in Ireland in 1570, he was made commander-in-chief and Governor of Munster, and was knighted by the lord-deputy. Returning to England soon afterwards, he married a rich heiress. In 1572 he commanded a squadron of nine ships to reinforce an armament intended for the recovery of Flushing; and soon after his return he published (1576) a *Discourse of a Discoverie for a New Passage to Cathaia and the East Indies.* He obtained letters-patent from Queen Elizabeth, dated June 11, 1578, empowering him to discover and possess any lands in North America then unsettled, he to pay to the crown one fifth of all gold and silver which the countries he might discover and colonize should produce. It invested him with powers of an absolute ruler over his colony, provided the laws should not be in derogation of supreme allegiance to the crown. It guaranteed to his followers all the rights of Englishmen; and it also guaranteed the absolute right of a territory where they might settle, within two hundred leagues of which no settlement should be permitted until the expiration of six years. This was the first colonial charter granted by an English monarch. Armed with this, Gilbert sailed for Newfoundland in 1579 with a small squadron; for he did not believe there would be profit in searching for gold in the higher latitudes, to which Frobisher had been. (See *Frobisher.*) He was accompanied by Raleigh; but heavy storms and Spanish war-ships destroyed one of his vessels, and the remainder were compelled to turn back. Gilbert was too much impoverished to undertake another expedition until four years afterwards, when Raleigh and his friends fitted out a small squadron, which sailed from Plymouth under the command of Gilbert. The queen, in token of her good-will, had sent him as a present a golden anchor, guided by a woman. The flotilla reached Newfoundland in August, and entered the harbor of St. John, where Cartier found La Roque almost fifty years before. (See *Cartier.*) There, on the shore, Gilbert set up a column with the arms of England upon it, and in the presence of hundreds of fishermen from western Europe, whom he had summoned to the spot, he took possession of the island in the name of his queen. Storms had shattered his vessels, but, after making slight repairs, Gilbert proceeded to explore the coasts southward. Off Cape Breton he encountered a fierce tempest, which dashed the larger vessel, in which he sailed, in pieces on the rocks, and about one hundred men perished. The commander was saved, and took refuge in a little vessel (the *Squirrel*) of ten tons. His little squadron was dispersed, and, with one other vessel (the *Hind*), he turned his prow homewards. Again, in a rising September gale, the commander of the *Hind* shouted to Gilbert that they were in great peril. The intrepid navigator was sitting abaft, with a book in his hand, and calmly replied, "We are as near heaven on the sea as on the land." The gale increased, and when night fell the darkness was intense. At about midnight the men on the *Hind* saw the lights of the *Squirrel* suddenly go out. The little bark had plunged beneath the waves, and all on board perished. Only the *Hind* escaped, and bore the news of the disaster to England.

SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT.

Gillmore, Quincy Adams, was born in Lorain County, O., Feb. 28, 1825. He graduated at West Point in 1849, and entered the Engineer Corps. He was for four years (1852–56) Assistant Instructor of Engineering at West Point. In October, 1861, he was appointed chief-engineer of an expedition against the Southern coasts under General T. W. Sherman. He superintended the construction of the fortifications at Hilton Head, and planned and executed measures for the capture of Fort Pulaski in the spring of 1862, when he was made brigadier-general of volunteers. After service in western Virginia and Kentucky, he was breveted colonel in the United States Army, and succeeded Hunter (June, 1863) in command of the Department of South Carolina, when he was promoted to major-general. After a long and unsuccessful attempt to capture Charleston, he proceeded to

QUINCY ADAMS GILLMORE.

join the Army of the James, in command of the Tenth Army Corps. For his services during the war, he was breveted major-general in the United States Army.

Gingham. This fabric was first manufactured in the United States by Erastus Bigelow, at Clinton (a town founded by him), in Massachusetts, about the year 1846. It was the first attempt to manufacture gingham by machinery, and enabled the American manufacturers to compete successfully with the English.

Girard, STEPHEN, founder of Girard College, was born near Bordeaux, France, May 21, 1750; died in Philadelphia, Dec. 26, 1831. Engaged in the merchant service in early life, he established himself in mercantile business in Philadelphia in 1769, and traded to the West Indies until the beginning of the war for independence. Resuming his West India trade after the war, he accumulated money; but the foundation of his great wealth was laid by events of the negro insurrection in Santo Domingo. Two of his vessels being there, planters placed their effects on board of them, but lost their lives in the massacre that ensued. The property of owners that could not be found was left in Girard's possession. In 1812 he bought the building and much of the stock of the old United States Bank, and began business as a private banker. He amassed a large fortune, and at his death left property valued at almost $9,000,000. Besides large bequests to public institutions, he gave to Philadelphia $500,000 for the improvement of the city. He gave $2,000,000 and a plot of ground in Philadelphia for the erection and support of a college for orphans, which was opened Jan. 1, 1848. In it as many poor white orphan boys as the endowment will support are admitted. There are about five hundred beneficiaries in the institution at a time. By a provision of the will of the founder, no ecclesiastic, missionary, or minister of any sect whatever is to hold any connection with the college, or be admitted to the premises as a visitor; but the officers of the institution are required to instruct the pupils in the purest principles of morality, leaving them to adopt their own religious opinions. The beneficiaries are admitted between the ages of six and ten years; fed, clothed, and educated; and between the ages of fourteen and eighteen are bound out to mechanical, agricultural, or commercial occupations.

Gist, MORDECAI, was born in Baltimore, Md., in 1743; died in Charleston, S. C., Sept. 2, 1792. He was captain of the first troops raised in Maryland at the breaking-out of the Revolution; was made major of Smallwood's regiment in 1776, and commanded it at the battle of Long Island. Promoted to colonel in 1777, and brigadier-general early in 1779, he did good service throughout the war, saving the remnant of the army after Gates's defeat, and being present at the surrender of Cornwallis.

Glendale (or Frazier's Farm), BATTLE OF. There was a sharp contest at White Oak Swamp Bridge on the morning of June 30, 1862, after the Army of the Potomac had passed on its way to the James River. General Franklin had been left with a rear-guard to protect the passage of the bridge and to cover the withdrawal of the wagon-trains at that point. The Confederate pursuers, in two columns, were checked by the destruction of the bridges. Jackson, at noon, was met at the site of the destroyed bridge by the troops of Smith, Richardson, and Naglee, and the batteries of Ayres and Hazard, who kept him at bay during the day and evening. Hazard was mortally wounded, and his force was cut up, but Ayres kept up a cannonade with great spirit. During the night the Nationals retired, leaving 350 sick and wounded behind, and some disabled guns. At the same time a sharp battle had been going on at Glendale, or Nelson's, or Frazier's Farm, about two miles distant. Near Willis's Church General McCall's division was posted in reserve, General Meade's division on the right, Seymour's on the left, and that of Reynolds (who was a prisoner) under Colonel S. G. Simmons. The artillery was all in front of the line. Sumner was some distance to the left, with Sedgwick's division; Hooker was at Sumner's left; and Kearney was at the right of McCall. Longstreet and Hill had tried to intercept McClellan's army there, but were too late, and found themselves confronted by these Nationals. General Lee and Jefferson Davis were with Longstreet. The Confederates waited for Magruder to come up, and it was between three and four o'clock in the afternoon before they began an attack. Longstreet then fell heavily upon McCall's Pennsylvania Reserves (which see), 6000 strong. He was repulsed by four regiments, led by Colonel Simmons, who captured 200 of them and drove them back to the woods. Then the fugitives turned, and, by a murderous fire, made the pursuers recoil and flee to the forest. In that encounter the slaughter was dreadful. This first struggle was quickly followed by others. The contending lines swayed in charges and counter-charges for two hours.

MORDECAI GIST.

The Confederates tried to break the National line. Finally General Meagher appeared with his Irish brigade, and made such a desperate charge across an open field that the Confederates were driven to the woods. Then Randall's battery was captured by the Confederates, when McCall and Meade fought desperately for the recovery of the guns and carried them back. Meade had been severely wounded. Just at dark McCall was captured, and the command devolved on Seymour. Very soon afterwards troops of Hooker and Kearney came to help the Reserves, the Confederates were driven to the woods, and the battle at Glendale ended. Before dawn the next morning the National troops were all silently withdrawn; and early the next day the Army of the Potomac, united for the first time since the Chickahominy first divided it, was in a strong position on Malvern Hill, about eighteen miles from Richmond.

Glover, John, was born at Salem, Mass., Nov. 5, 1732; died at Marblehead, Jan. 30, 1797. At the beginning of the Revolution he raised one thousand men at Marblehead and joined the army at Cambridge. His regiment, being composed almost wholly of fishermen, was called the "Amphibious Regiment," and in the retreat from Long Island (which see) it manned the boats. It also manned the boats at the crossing of the Delaware before the victory at Trenton. Glover was made brigadier-general in February, 1777, and joined the Northern army under General Schuyler. He did good service in the campaign of that year, and led Burgoyne's captive troops to Cambridge. He was afterwards with Greene in New Jersey, and Sullivan in Rhode Island.

Gnadenhutten. (See *Christian Indians, Massacre of.*)

"**God Save the King.**" This national song was written in the early part of the last century, and the air to which it was sung has been, by some, attributed to Handel. It was sung with as much unction in the English-American colonies as in England until the mother country began to oppress her children in the Western World. The air did not originate with Handel in the reign of George I., for it existed in the reign of Louis XIV. of France. Even the words are almost a literal translation of a canticle which was always sung by the maidens of St. Cyr when King Louis entered the chapel of that establishment to hear the morning prayer. The author of the words was M. de Brinon, and the music was by the eminent Lulli, the founder of the French opera. The following is a copy of the words:

"Grand Dieu sauve le Roi!
Grand Dieu venge le Roi!
Vive le Roi!
Que toujours glorieux,
Louis victorieux!
Voye ses ennemis
Toujours soumis!
Grand Dieu sauve le Roi!
Grand Dieu venge le Roi!
Vive le Roi!"

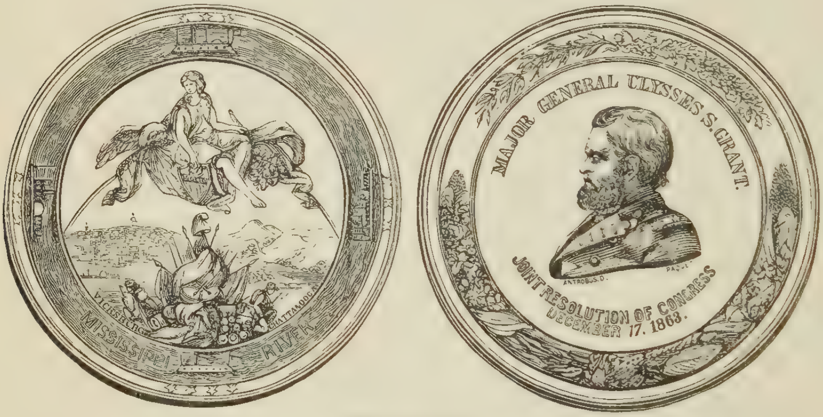
This air was sung by the vine-dressers of France until kingcraft lost its hold upon the people. (See *Joel Barlow*, for a parody on this song.)

Godfrey, Thomas, inventor of the quadrant commonly known as Hadley's, was born in Philadelphia; died there, December, 1749. He was a glazier; was a self-taught mathematician; and in 1730 he communicated to James Logan, who had befriended him, his improvement of Davis's quadrant. In May, 1742, Logan addressed a letter to Dr. Edmund Hadley, in England, describing fully Godfrey's instrument. Hadley did not notice it, when Logan sent a copy of his letter to Hadley, together with Godfrey's account of his invention, to a friend, to be placed before the Royal Society. Hadley, the vice-president, had presented a paper, a year before, describing a reflecting-quadrant like Godfrey's. They both seem to have hit upon the same invention; and the society, deciding that both were entitled to the honor, sent Godfrey household furniture of the value of $1000, instead of money, on account of his intemperate habits.

Goffe, William, was a son of a Puritan clergyman, one of Cromwell's major-generals, and one of the judges who signed the death-warrant of Charles I. and was denounced as a "regicide." With his father-in-law, General Whalley, he arrived in Boston in the summer of 1660, and shared his fortunes in America. (See *Regicides.*) When, during King Philip's War, Hadley was surrounded by the Indians, and the alarmed citizens every moment expected an attack (1675), Goffe suddenly appeared among them, took command, and led them so skilfully that the barbarians were soon repulsed. He as suddenly disappeared. His person was a stranger to the inhabitants, and he was regarded by them as an angel sent for their deliverance. Soon after Goffe's arrival in Boston, a fencing-master erected a platform on the Common, and dared any man to fight him with swords. Goffe, armed with a huge cheese covered with a cloth for a shield, and a mop filled with muddy water, appeared before the champion, who immediately made a thrust at his antagonist. Goffe caught and held the fencing-master's sword in the cheese and besmeared him with the mud in his mop. The enraged fencing-master caught up a broadsword, when Goffe cried, "Hold! I have hitherto played with you; if you attack me I will surely kill you." The alarmed champion dropped his sword, and exclaimed, "Who can you be? You must be either Goffe, or Whalley, or the devil, for there are no other persons who could beat me."

Gold Discovered in California. During the same month that a treaty of peace between the United States and Mexico was signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo, a man named Marshall, employed by Captain Sutter, who owned a mill twenty-five miles up the American fork of the Sacramento River, discovered gold while digging a mill-race. The metal was soon afterwards found in other places, and during the summer of 1848 rumors of the fact reached the United States. They were not generally believed, until a despatch from Colonel Mason declared that there was enough gold in California to pay all the expenses of the war with Mexico. In December (1848) the message of President Polk gave the rumor tangible form, and early in 1849 thousands of gold-seekers were on their way to California. Around Cape Horn, across the Isthmus of Panama, and over the central plains and vast mountain-ranges of the continent men went by hundreds, and gold was found in every direction in California. Gold-seekers from Europe and Asia flocked to the shores of the Pacific, and the dreams of the early Spanish adventurers seemed to be realized. This was the beginning of the discoveries of the immense mineral resources of the western states and territories of the United States.

Gold Medal awarded to General Grant. After the successful operations under Grant in east Tennessee and at Chattanooga, he was the recipient of the heartfelt thanks of the loyal people. In a letter the President of the United States thanked him, and Congress voted him thanks and a gold medal, with suitable emblems, devices, and inscriptions. The legislatures of New York and Ohio voted him thanks in the name of the people of those great states. The President, in view of these victories, recommended (Dec. 7, 1863) the loyal people to meet in their respective places of worship to thank God for the "advancement of the National cause."

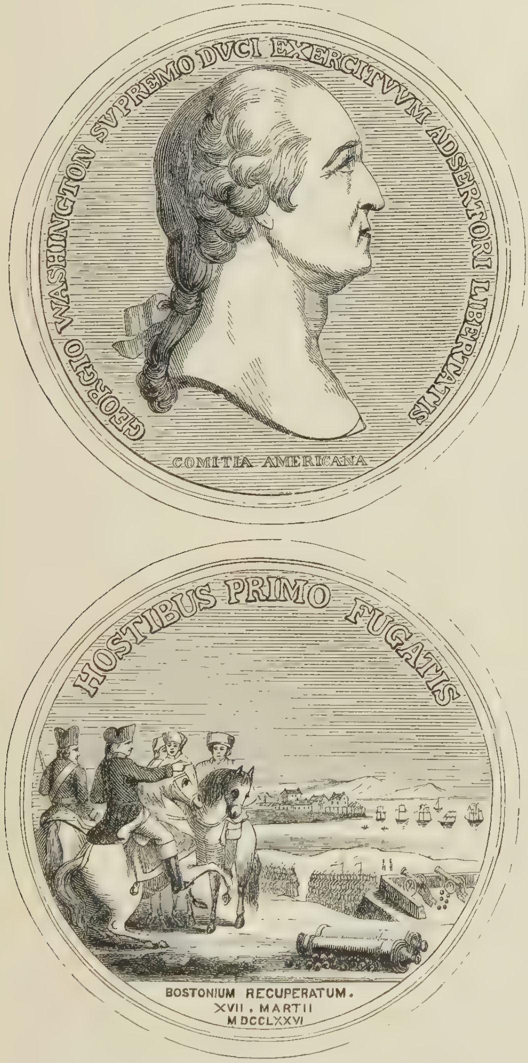


THE GRANT MEDAL.

Gold Medal awarded to Washington. On March 25, 1776, when news of the British evacuation of Boston reached Congress, that body resolved that its thanks be presented to the commander-in-chief and the officers and soldiers under his command, "for their wise and spirited conduct in the siege and acquisition of Boston; and that a medal of gold be struck in commemoration of this great event and presented to his Excellency." This medal was nearly two and three-quarter inches in diameter. On one side was a profile head of Washington, with the Latin legend, "GEORGIO WASHINGTON, SVPREMO DVCI EXERCITVVM ADSERTORI LIBERTATIS COMITIA AMERICANA"—"The American Congress to George Washington, the Commander-in-chief of its Armies, the Assertor of Freedom." On the reverse, the device shows troops advancing towards a town; others marching towards the water; ships in view; General Washington in front, and mounted, with his staff, whose attention he is directing to the embarking enemy. The legend is, "HOSTIBUS PRIMO FUGATIS"—"The enemy for the first time put to flight." The exergue under the device, "BOSTONIUM RECUPERATUM. XVII MARTII. MDCCLXXVI"—"Boston recovered, March 17, 1776." (See medal on p. 583.)

Golden Circle, THE. The scheme for establishing an empire whose corner-stone should be negro slavery contemplated for the area of that empire the domain included within a circle the centre of which was Havana, Cuba, with a radius of 16 degrees latitude and longitude. It will be perceived, by drawing that circle upon a map, that it included the thirteen slave-labor states of our republic. It reached northward to the Pennsylvania line—the old "Mason and Dixon's Line" (which see)—and southward to the Isthmus of Darien. It embraced the West India Islands and those of the Caribbean Sea, with a greater part of Mexico and Central America. The plan of the plotters seems to have been to first secure Cuba and then the other islands of that tropical region, with Mexico and Central America; and then to sever the slave-labor states from the Union, making the former a part of the great empire, within what they called "The Golden Circle." In furtherance of this plan, a secret association known as the "Order of the Lone Star" was formed. Another association was subsequently organized as its successor, the members of which were called "Knights of the Golden Circle" (which see). Their chief purpose seems to have been the corrupting of the patriotism of the people to facilitate the iniquitous design. The latter association played a conspicuous part as abettors of the enemies of the Republic during the late Civil War. They were the efficient allies of those who openly made war on the Union.

Golden Hill, Battle of. The "Boston Massacre" holds a conspicuous place in history. Nearly two months before, a more significant event of a similar character occurred in the city of New York. The insolent British soldiers had destroyed the Liberty Pole (Jan. 16, 1770), and, two days afterwards, two of them caught posting scurrilous handbills throughout the city abusing the Sons of Liberty were taken before the mayor. Twenty armed soldiers went to their rescue, when they were opposed by a crowd of citizens, who seized stakes from carts and sleds standing near. The mayor ordered the soldiers to their barracks. They obeyed, and were followed by the exasperated citizens to Golden Hill (on the line of Cliff Street, between Fulton Street and Maiden Lane), where the soldiers, reinforced, charged upon their pursuers. The citizens resisted with clubs, and a severe conflict ensued, during which an old sailor was mortally wounded by a bayonet. The mayor appeared and ordered the soldiers to disperse; but they refused, when a party of "Liberty Boys," who were playing ball on the corner of John Street and Broadway, dispersed them. The soldiers made another attack on citizens in the afternoon; and these conflicts continued, with intermissions, about two days, during which time several persons were badly injured. Twice the soldiers were disarmed by the citizens.



GOLD MEDAL AWARDED TO WASHINGTON. (See p. 582.)

Goldsborough (N. C.), Junction of National Armies at. Hoke fled from Wilmington (see *Cape Fear, Confederates driven from*) northward, towards Goldsborough, towards which the Nationals under Schofield now pressed. It was at the railroad crossing of the Neuse River. General Cox, with 5000 of Palmer's troops, crossed from New Berne and established a depot of supplies at Kingston, after a moderate battle on the way with Hoke. Perceiving the Confederate force to be about equal to his own, Schofield ordered Cox to intrench and wait for expected reinforcements. On March 10 Hoke pressed Cox heavily and attacked him, but was repulsed with severe loss—1500 men. The Nationals lost about 300. The Confederates fled across the Neuse, and Schofield entered Goldsborough on the 20th. Then Terry, who had been left at Wilmington, joined Schofield (March 22), and the next day Sherman arrived there. Nearly all the National troops in North Carolina were encamped that night around Goldsborough. General Joseph E. Johnston, with the combined and concentrated forces of Beauregard, Hardee, Hood, the garrison from Augusta, Hoke, and the cavalry of Wheeler and Hampton, was at Smithfield, half-way between Goldsborough and Raleigh, with about 40,000 troops, mostly veterans.

Goldsborough, Louis Malesherbes, was born in Washington, D. C., Feb. 18, 1805; died Feb. 20, 1877. He was appointed midshipman in 1812, and lieutenant in 1825. In the Seminole War (which see) he commanded a company of mounted volunteers, and also an armed steamer. Made commander in 1841, he took part in the Mexican War. From 1853 to 1857 he was superintendent of the Naval Academy at Annapolis. In the summer of 1861 he was placed in command of the North Atlantic Blockading Squadron, and with Burnside commanded the joint expedition to the sounds of North Carolina. For his services in the capture of Roanoke Island Congress thanked him. He afterwards dispersed the Confederate fleet under

Lynch in the North Carolina waters. He was made rear-admiral July 16, 1862.

LOUIS M. GOLDSBOROUGH.

Gomez, STEPHEN, VOYAGE OF. The Council of the Indies induced Charles V. of Spain to send Gomez (who had circumnavigated the globe in Magellan's expedition in 1520–21) to find a northwest passage to the Pacific Ocean. He sailed to Cuba (1525), thence to Florida, and then northerly to Cape Race, latitude 46° north, and returned without making any discovery. Like Cortereal, he kidnapped some of the natives (see *Cortereal*) and returned to Spain with them in 1525. He was the first Spaniard who sailed along the northern coast of America.

Gooch, WILLIAM, governor of Virginia from 1727 to 1749, was born at Yarmouth, Eng., Oct. 21, 1681; died Dec. 17, 1751. He had been an officer under Marlborough, and in 1740 he commanded in the unsuccessful attack on Carthagena. In 1746 he was made a brigadier-general and was knighted, and a major-general in 1747. He returned to England in 1749. He ruled with equity in Virginia, and was never complained of.

Goodrich, SAMUEL GRISWOLD ("Peter Parley"), a popular writer for the young, was born at Ridgefield, Conn., Aug. 19, 1793; died in New York city, May 9, 1860. He was a publisher in Hartford in 1824; soon afterwards he settled in Boston, and for many years edited *The Token*. He began the issuing of "Peter Parley's Tales" in 1827, and continued them until 1857. He also published geographical and historical schoolbooks. From 1841 to 1854 he edited and published *Merry's Museum* and *Parley's Magazine*. Of 170 volumes written by him, 116 bear the name of "Peter Parley;" and more than 7,000,000 copies of his books for the young have been sold. Mr. Goodrich was American consul at Paris during Fillmore's administration.

Goodyear, CHARLES, inventor, was born at North Haven, Conn., Dec. 29, 1800; died in New York city, July 1, 1860. He was an early manufacturer of India-rubber, and he made vast improvements in its practical use in the arts. His first important discovery was made in 1836—a method of treating the surface of the gum. This process was superseded by his discovery early in 1849 of a superior method of vulcanization. He procured patent after patent for improvements in this method, until he had more than sixty in number, in America and Europe. He obtained the highest marks of distinction at the international exhibitions at London and Paris. He saw, before his death, his material applied to almost five hundred uses, and to give employment in England, France, Germany, and the United States, to about sixty thousand persons.

Gordon, WILLIAM, D.D., historian of the Revolution, was born at Hitchin, Eng., in 1730; died at Ipswich, Eng., Oct. 19, 1807. He came to America in 1770, and was ordained at Roxbury in 1772. He took an active part in public affairs during the Revolution, and in 1778 the College of New Jersey conferred upon him the degree of Doctor of Divinity. Returning to England in 1786, he wrote and published a history of the Revolution in four volumes, octavo.

Gorges, ROBERT, son of Ferdinando, had a tract of land bestowed upon him in New England, on the coast of Massachusetts Bay, extending ten miles along the coast and thirty miles inland. He was appointed Lieutenant-general of New England, with a council, of whom Francis West, who had been commissioned "Admiral of New England" by the Council of Plymouth, and the governor of New Plymouth for the time being, were to be members, having the power to restrain interlopers. West, as admiral, attempted to force tribute from fishing-vessels on the coast. Gorges brought to New England with him a clergyman named Morrell, appointed by the Archbishop of Canterbury, to act as commissioner of ecclesiastical affairs; also a number of indentured servants. After being a year at Plymouth, Gorges attempted to plant a colony at Wissagus. He had encountered Weston, who came over to look after his colony, and took some proceedings against him as an interloper. Weston had been shipwrecked and robbed, but was kindly treated by the Pilgrims, who, nevertheless, regarded his misfortunes as judgments for his desertion of the company. (See *Weston's Colony*.)

Gorges, SIR FERDINANDO, was a native of Somersetshire, Eng.; born about 1565, and died in 1647. Gorges was associated with the courtiers of Queen Elizabeth, and was engaged in the conspiracy of the Earl of Essex against the queen's council (1610), and testified against him at his trial for treason (1601). Having served in the royal navy with distinction, he was appointed governor of Plymouth in 1604. A friend of Raleigh, he became imbued with that great man's desire to plant a colony in America, and when Captain Weymouth returned from the New England coast (1605) and brought captive natives with him, Gorges took three of them into his own home, from whom, after instructing them in the English language, he gained much information about their country. Gorges now became chiefly instrumental in forming the Plymouth Company, to settle western Virginia (see *Plymouth Company*), and from that time he was a very active member, defending its rights before Parliament and stimulating by his own zeal his desponding associates. In 1615, after the return of Captain Smith (see *Smith, John*), he set sail for New England, but a storm compelled the vessel to put back, while another vessel, under Captain Dermer, prosecuted the voyage. (See *Dermer.*) Gorges sent out a party (1616) which encamped on the river Saco through the winter; and in 1619–20 Captain Dermer repeated the voyage. The new charter obtained by the company created such a despotic monopoly that it was strongly opposed in and out of Parliament, and was finally dissolved in 1635. (See *Council of Plymouth.*) Gorges had, meanwhile, prosecuted colonization schemes with vigor. With John Mason and others he obtained grants of land (1622), which now compose a part of Maine and New Hampshire (see *New Hampshire*), and settlements were attempted there. His son Robert was appointed "general governor of the country," and a settlement was made (1624) on the site of York, Me. After the dissolution of the company (1635), Gorges, then a vigorous man of sixty years, was appointed (1637) governor-general of New England, with the powers of a palatine, and prepared to come to America, but was prevented by an accident to the ship in which he was to sail. He made laws for his palatinate, but they were not acceptable. Gorges enjoyed his viceregal honors a few years, and died.

Gorham, NATHANIEL, was born at Charlestown, Mass., May 27, 1738; died June 11, 1796. He took an active part in public affairs at the beginning of the Revolution, especially in the local affairs of Massachusetts. He was a delegate to the Continental Congress (1782–83 and from 1785 to 1787), and was chosen its president in June, 1786. He was an influential member of the convention that framed the National Constitution, and exerted great power in procuring its ratification by Massachusetts. In conjunction with Oliver Phelps, he purchased an immense tract of land in the State of New York. (See *Holland Land Company.*)

Gorton, SAMUEL, a restless, contumacious clergyman, born in England about 1600, and died in Rhode Island late in 1677. He was a clothier in London, and embarked for Boston in 1636, where he soon became entangled in theological disputes and removed to Plymouth. There he preached such heterodox doctrines that he was banished as a heretic in the winter of 1637–38. With a few followers he went to Rhode Island, where he was publicly whipped for calling the magistrates "just-asses," and other rebellious acts. In 1641 he was compelled to leave the island. He took refuge with Roger Williams at Providence, but soon made himself so obnoxious there that he escaped public scorn by removing (1642) to a spot on the west side of Narraganset Bay, where he bought land of Miantonomo and planted a settlement. The next year inferior sachems disputed his title to the land; and, calling upon Massachusetts to assist them, an armed force was sent to arrest Gorton and his followers, and a portion of them were taken to Boston and tried as "damnable heretics." For a while they endured confinement and hard labor, in irons, and in 1644 they were banished from the colony. Gorton went to England and obtained from the Earl of Warwick an order that the clergyman and his followers should have peace at the settlement they had chosen. He called the place Warwick when he returned to it in 1648. There he preached on Sunday and performed civil service during the week.

Gosnold, BARTHOLOMEW, a friend of Raleigh and his colonization schemes. Because of Raleigh's failure, he did not lose faith. The long routes of the vessels by way of the West Indies seemed to him unnecessary, and he advocated the feasibility of a more direct course across the Atlantic. He was offered the command of an expedition by the Earl of Southampton, to make a small settlement in the more northerly part of America; and on the 26th of April, 1602, Gosnold sailed from Falmouth, England, in a small vessel, with twenty colonists and eight mariners. He took the proposed shorter route, and touched the continent near Nahant, Mass., it is supposed, eighteen days after his departure from England. Finding no good harbor there, he sailed southward, discovered and named Cape Cod, and landed there. This was the first time the shorter (present) route from England to New York and Boston had been traversed; and it was the first time an Englishman set foot on New England soil. Gosnold passed around the cape, and entered Buzzard's Bay, where he found an attractive group of islands, and he named the westernmost Elizabeth, in honor of his queen. The whole group bear that name. He and his followers landed on Elizabeth Island, and were charmed with the luxuriance of vegetation, the abundance of small fruits, and the general aspect of nature. Gosnold determined to plant his colony there, and on a small rocky island, in the bosom of a great pond, he built a fort; and, had the courage of the colonists held out, Gosnold would have had the immortal honor of making the first permanent English settlement in America. Afraid of the Indians, fearing starvation, wondering what the winter would be, and disagreeing about the division of profits, they were seized with a depressing homesickness. So, loading the vessel with sassafras-root (then esteemed in Europe for its medicinal qualities), furs gathered from the natives, and other products, they abandoned the little paradise of beauty, and in less than four months after their departure from England they had returned; and, speaking in glowing terms of the land they had discovered, Raleigh advised the planting of settlements in that region, and British merchants afterwards undertook it. (See *New England.*) Elizabeth Island now bears its original name of Cottyunk. Gosnold soon afterwards organized a company for colonization in Virginia. A charter was granted him and his associates by James I., dated April 10, 1606, the first under which the English were settled in

America. He sailed Dec. 19, 1606, with three small vessels and one hundred and five adventurers, of whom only twelve were laborers; and, passing between Capes Henry and Charles, went up the James River in April, 1607, and landed where they built Jamestown afterwards. The place was an unhealthy one, and Gosnold remonstrated against founding the settlement there, but in vain. Sickness and other causes destroyed nearly half the number before autumn. Among the victims was Gosnold, who died on the 22d of August, 1607.

Gospel, SOCIETY FOR THE PROPAGATION OF THE. Edward Winslow, the third governor of the Plymouth colony (see *Winslow, Edward*), became greatly interested in the spiritual concerns of the Indians of New England; and when, in 1649, he went to England on account of the colony, he induced leading men there to join in the formation of a society for the propagation of the Gospel among the natives in America. The society soon afterwards began its work in America, and gradually extended its labors to other English colonies. In 1701 (June 16) it was incorporated under the title of "The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts." William III. zealously promoted the operations of the society, for he perceived that in a community of religion there was security for political obedience. The society was under the direction of the Church of England, whose system was esteemed monarchical, while Presbyterianism, and especially Quakerism and Independency, were deemed republican in character. The society still exists, and its operations are widely extended over the East and West Indies, Southern Africa, Australia, and islands of the Southern Ocean. In 1873 it had 484 ordained missionaries, including 45 native clergy in India, 822 teachers and catechists, 141 students in colleges abroad, and an annual income of about $550,000. Its seal is an ellipse in form, with a ship under full sail near a shore, and natives running to give it a welcome. It bears the inscription, "SIGILLUM SOCIETATIS DE PROMOVENDO EVANGELIO IN PARTIBUS TRANSMARINIS."

Government for Pennsylvania. In 1682 William Penn published a "Frame of Government" for Pennsylvania, leaving to himself and successors "no power of doing mischief—that the will of one man may not hinder the good of the whole country." The legislative and executive power was vested in a council of seventy-two persons, elected by the freemen for three years, one of them to go out annually. To this frame of government were subjoined forty fundamental laws. This government, "for the matter of liberty and privilege," Penn justly said, was "extraordinary" for the time. Afterwards, when an Assembly of Deputies were in session at near the close of the court, an "Act of Settlement" was passed, constituting eighteen members of the Assembly a council, and the remainder delegates, the latter to number thirty-six. The governor and council were to possess jointly the right of proposing laws. This "Settlement" restored to Penn the power which he had too generously given away by the conditions of the Frame of Government. Afterwards the deputies, discontented with their subordinate position, assumed the right of suggesting laws. Some violent proceedings ensued, when Penn, to allay the excitement, intrusted the executive authority to five commissioners, leaving legislation to the deputies. This, however, was not effectual, and in 1690 Penn restored the power originally given to the council.

Government Hospitals during the Civil War. The United States government made ample provision for the sick and wounded during the Civil War. The hospitals were extensive and complete. When the war closed, there were 204 general hospitals, fully equipped, with a capacity of 136,894 beds. Besides these, there were numerous temporary and flying hospitals —the former in camps and on vessels, and the latter on battle-fields. From the beginning, in July, 1861, until July 1, 1865, there had been treated, in the general hospitals alone, 1,057,423 cases, among whom the rate of mortality was only 8 per centum. This low rate was due chiefly to the employment of a sufficiency of competent surgeons, a bountiful provision in all hospitals of every necessary, the beneficent labors of the United States Sanitary Commission (which see) and the United States Christian Commission (which see), the untiring labors of women in every hospital, and the potent influence of the army and hospital chaplains, who together numbered at least 100,000. There were in the national armies during the war 12,145 surgeons and assistant surgeons. Of these nearly 300 perished—some in battle, but most of them from disease.

Government Year, THE. In January, 1790, two questions arose in Congress, as to when the federal or government year should begin, and what was the term for which members had been chosen—two years from the date of their election, or only to the end of the current Congress. The national government had not actually gone into operation on March 4, the day originally appointed, but several weeks later, and some of the members had not been elected until a still later period. It was finally agreed, on the report of a joint committee, that the Congress should expire with the 3d of March, 1791, and that persons chosen to fill vacancies should be considered as chosen only for the remainder of the Congress. Ever since, the 4th of March has been the beginning of a new Congress.

Governors of Loyal States, CONVENTION OF. On the same day when President Lincoln issued his proclamation (Sept. 22, 1862) warning the slaveholders that if they did not lay down their arms within three months their slaves would be set free (see *Emancipation Proclamation*), the governors of eleven of the free-labor states assembled at Altoona, Penn., to consider national affairs. Their sessions were held in secret. Among other proceedings looking to unity of action, they adopted an address to the President, warmly commending his proclamation as a righteous and most salutary act, which would give immense strength to the defenders of the imperilled Republic, and as a sure promise of success to the cause. This address was written by Governor John A. Andrew, of Massachusetts, one of the most earnest and energetic of the "war governors" at that time. It was signed by Governor Curtin of Pennsylvania, Andrew of Massachusetts, Yates of Illinois, Washburne of Maine, Salomon of Wisconsin, Kirkwood of Iowa, Martin of Indiana (by his representative, D. G. Rose), Sprague of Rhode Island, Pierpont of West Virginia, Tod of Ohio, Berry of New Hampshire, and Blair of Michigan.

JOHN A. ANDREW.

Grand Gulf, BATTLE AT. On the morning of April 29, 1863, Admiral Porter, with his gun and mortar boats, attacked the Confederate batteries at Grand Gulf, on the Mississippi, and after a contest of five hours and a half the lower batteries were silenced. The upper ones were too high to be much affected. The Confederates had field-batteries which were moved from point to point, and sharpshooters filled rifle-pits on the high sides. Grant, becoming convinced that Porter could not take the batteries, ordered him to run by them with gunboats and transports, as he had done at Vicksburg and Warrenton, while the army (on the west side of the river) should move down to Rodney, below, where it might cross without much opposition. At six o'clock in the evening, under cover of a heavy fire from the fleet, all the transports passed by in good condition.

Granger, GORDON, born in New York about 1825; died at Santa Fé, June 10, 1876. He graduated at West Point in 1845; served in the war with Mexico, and was made captain of cavalry in May, 1861. He served under Halleck and Grant in the West, and was made major-general of volunteers Sept. 17, 1862. He commanded the district of central Kentucky, was put in command of the Fourth Army Corps after the battle of Chickamauga, was engaged in the struggle on Missionaries' Ridge, November, 1863, and was active in the military movements that led to the capture of Mobile in 1864, for which he was breveted major-general of the United States Army.

Granite State, a popular name for the State of New Hampshire, because the mountainous portions of it are largely composed of granite.

Grant, JAMES, a Scotch officer, born in 1720; died April 13, 1806. In 1757 he was major of the Montgomery Highlanders. He was in the expedition against Fort Duquesne in 1758, and in 1760 was governor of East Florida. He led an expedition against the Cherokees in May, 1761, was acting brigadier-general in the battle of Long Island in 1776, and was made major-general in 1777. He was with Howe in New Jersey and Pennsylvania in 1777. He fought the Americans at Monmouth in 1778, and in November sailed in command of troops sent against the French in the West Indies, taking St. Lucia in December. In 1791 he was made governor of Stirling Castle, and was several years in Parliament. It is said that he was such a notorious gourmand in his later life that he required his cook to sleep in the same room with him.

Grant, ULYSSES SIMPSON, was born at Point Pleasant, O., April 27, 1822, and graduated at West Point in 1843. He served in the war with Mexico—first under General Taylor, and then under General Scott—taking part in every battle between Vera Cruz and the city of Mexico. He was made captain in 1853, and resigned the next year, when he settled in St. Louis. He was one of the first to offer his services to his country when the Civil War broke out, and became colonel of an Illinois volunteer regiment. In May he was made brigadier-general, and placed in command at Cairo. He occupied Paducah, broke up the Confederate camp at Belmont (which see), and in February, 1862, captured Forts Henry and Donelson (which see). He was then promoted to major-general; conducted the battle of Pittsburgh Landing, or Shiloh, and for a while was second in command to Halleck. He performed excellent service in the West and Southwest, especially in the vicinity

ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT.

of the Mississippi River and at and near the Tennessee River, in 1863. He was created a lieutenant-general (March 1, 1864), and awarded a gold medal by Congress. He issued his first order as general-in-chief of the armies of the United States at Nashville, March 17, 1864. In the grand movements of the armies in 1864, he accompanied that of the Potomac, with his headquarters "in the field," and he remained with it until he signed the articles of capitulation at Appomattox Court-house, April 9, 1865. In 1866 he was promoted to General of the United States Army. After the war, Grant fixed his headquarters at Washington. When President Johnson suspended Stanton from the office of Secretary of War (Aug. 12, 1867), Grant was put in his place *ad interim*, and held the position until Jan. 14, 1868, when Stanton was reinstated by the Senate. (See *Impeachment of Johnson.*) In 1868, General Grant was elected President of the United States by the Republican party, and was re-elected in 1872. He retired from the office March 4, 1877.

Grantees of North Carolina. In 1630 Charles I. granted to Sir Robert Heath, his attorney-general, a patent for a domain south of Virginia, six degrees of latitude in width, and extending westward to the Pacific Ocean. Heath did not meet his engagements, and the patent was vacated. In March, 1663, Charles II. granted to eight of his rapacious courtiers a charter for the domain granted to Heath. They had begged it from the king under the pretence of a "pious zeal for the propagation of the gospel among the heathen." These courtiers were, the covetous and time-serving premier and historian, the Earl of Clarendon; George Monk, who, for his conspicuous and treacherous services in the restoration of the monarch to the throne of England, had been created Duke of Albemarle; Lord Craven, the supposed dissolute husband of the Queen of Bohemia; Sir Anthony Ashley Cooper, afterwards Earl of Shaftesbury (see *Shaftesbury*); Sir John Colleton, a corrupt loyalist, who had played false to Cromwell; Lord John Berkeley and his brother, then governor of Virginia (see *Berkeley, Sir William*), and Sir George Carteret, a proprietor of New Jersey—a man "passionate, ignorant, and not too honest." (See *Carteret, Sir George.*) When the petitioners presented their memorial, so full of pious pretensions, to King Charles, in the garden at Hampton Court, the "merrie monarch," after looking each in the face a moment, burst into loud laughter, in which his audience joined heartily. Then, taking up a little shaggy spaniel with large, meek eyes, and holding it at arm's-length before them, he said, "Good friends, here is a model of piety and sincerity which it might be wholesome for you to copy." Then, tossing it to Clarendon, he said, "There, Hyde, is a worthy prelate; make him archbishop of the domain which I shall give you." With grim satire, Charles introduced into the preamble of the charter a statement that the petitioners, "excited with a laudable and pious zeal for the propagation of the gospel, have begged a certain country in the parts of America not yet cultivated and planted, and only inhabited by some barbarous people who have no knowledge of God."

Grant's Cabinet Ministers. On March 5, 1868, President Grant sent into the Senate the names of the following persons he had chosen for his constitutional advisers, and they were at once confirmed: Hamilton Fish for Secretary of State; George S. Boutwell for Secretary of the Treasury; John A. Rawlins, Secretary of War; Adolph E. Borie, Secretary of the Navy; Jacob D. Cox, Secretary of the Interior; John A. Cresswell, Postmaster-general; E. Rockwood Hoar, Attorney-general. The President first made choice of Alexander T. Stewart, a New York merchant, for Secretary of the Treasury, but an old law made him ineligible. General Schofield was first nominated for Secretary of War, but he withdrew; and E. B. Washburne, who was the President's first choice for Secretary of State, declined the honor. *Second Term.*—The following named gentlemen composed Grant's cabinet ministers at the beginning of his second term of office: Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State; W. W. Belknap, Secretary of War; W. A. Richardson, Secretary of the Treasury; George M. Robeson, Secretary of the Navy; Columbus Delano, Secretary of the Interior; John A. J. Cresswell, Postmaster-general; George H. Williams, Attorney-general.

Grant's Final Address to his Soldiers. (See *Disbanding of the Union Armies.*)

Grape Island, AFFAIR AT. In Boston Harbor was Grape Island, to which, on Sunday morning, May 21, 1775, some British troops repaired to secure some hay; for so closely were they besieged in Boston, that only on the islands in and near the harbor could they procure grass or straw or fresh meat. Three alarm-guns were fired; the drums beat to arms; the bells of neighboring towns were rung; and very soon about two thousand of the men of that region were flocking to the water's edge. They soon obtained a lighter and a sloop, when many jumped on board, pushed off, and landed on the island. The British fled, and the Americans burned the hay they had gathered.

Grasse, COUNT DE. (See *De Grasse.*)

Grasse, COUNT DE, ARRIVAL OF. On Aug. 3, 1781, the French fleet, under Count de Grasse, appeared on the American coast. De Grasse had sailed from France, towards the end of March, with twenty-six ships-of-the-line, followed by an immense convoy of about two hundred and fifty merchantmen. That convoy he put safely into the harbor of Port Royal, having carefully avoided a close engagement with a part of Rodney's fleet, under Admiral Hood. He engaged with British vessels at long range (April 29), and so injured them that they were obliged to go to Antigua for repairs, and, meanwhile, De Grasse accomplished the conquest of Tobago in June. He then proceeded with the fleet of merchantmen to Santo Domingo, and soon afterwards sailed with an immense return convoy, bound for France. After seeing it well on its way, he steered for the Chesapeake, and, despite the activity of British fleets watching for him, he was safe within the capes of Virginia, and at anchor, with twenty-four ships-of-the-line, at the beginning of September. He found an officer of Lafayette's staff at Cape Henry, sent to request him to blockade the York and James rivers, so as to cut off Cornwallis's retreat. This was done by four ships-of-the-line and several frigates; and three thousand French troops were sent to join Lafayette.

Grasse, Count de, Daughters of. The family of De Grasse were ruined by the fury of the French Revolution, and four of his daughters (Amelia, Adelaide, Melanie, and Silvia) came to America in extreme poverty. Congress, in February, 1795, gave them each $1000, in consideration "of the extraordinary services rendered the United States in the year 1781 by the late Count de Grasse, at the urgent request of the commander-in-chief of the American forces, beyond the term limited for his co-operation with the troops of the United States."

Graves (Lord), Thomas, was born in 1725; died Jan. 31, 1802. Having served under Anson, Hawke, and others, he was placed in command of the *Antelope*, on the North American station, in 1761, and made Governor of Newfoundland. In 1779 he became Rear-admiral of the Blue, and the next year came to America with reinforcements for Admiral Arbuthnot. On the return of the latter to England in 1781, Graves became chief naval commander on the American station. He was defeated (Sept. 5) by De Grasse. In 1795 he was second in command under Lord Howe, and was raised to an Irish peerage and Admiral of the White on June 1, the same year.

Great Bridge, Battle at the. On the invasion of the Elizabeth River by Lord Dunmore (November, 1775), Colonel Woodford called the militia to arms. Dunmore fortified a passage of the Elizabeth River, on the borders of the Dismal Swamp, where he suspected the militia would attempt to cross. It was known as the Great Bridge. There he cast up intrenchments, at the Norfolk end of the bridge, and amply supplied them with cannons. These were garrisoned by British regulars, Virginia Tories, negroes, and vagrants, in number about six hundred. Woodford constructed a small fortification at the opposite end of the bridge. On Saturday morning, Dec. 9, Captains Leslie and Fordyce, sent by Dunmore, attacked the Virginians. After considerable manœuvring and skirmishing, a sharp battle ensued, lasting about twenty-five minutes, when the assailants were repulsed, and fled, leaving two spiked field-pieces behind them. The loss of the assailants was fifty-five killed and wounded. Not a Virginian was killed, and only one man was slightly wounded in the battle.

VIEW AT THE GREAT BRIDGE.

Great Britain. Although this name was applied by the French at a very early period, to distinguish it from "Little Britain," the name of the western peninsular projection of France, called by the Romans Armorica, it was seldom used on that island until the accession of James I. to the crown of England (1603), when the whole of the island, comprising England, Scotland, and Wales, was united under one sovereign. By the legislative union between England and Scotland in 1707, Great Britain became the legal title of the kingdom. The official style of the empire is now "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland."

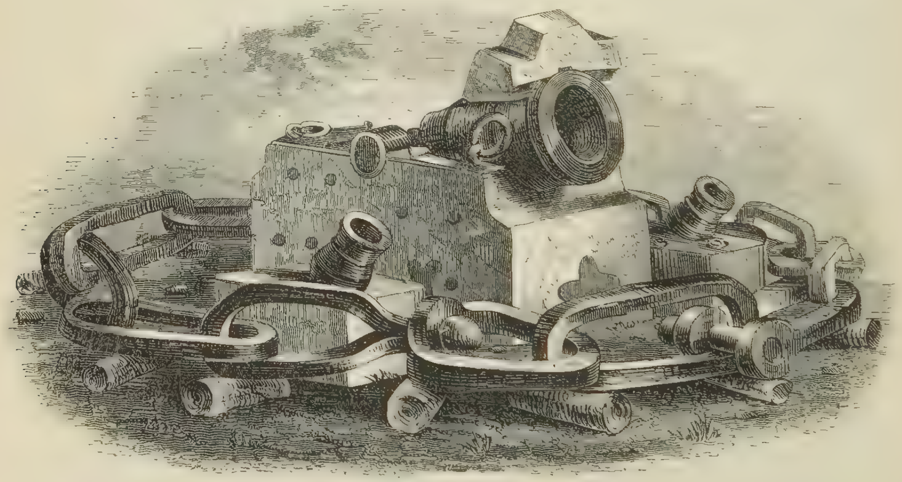
Great Britain and the Spanish Colonies. The pressure of the American Embargo Act upon British commerce had been greatly relieved by an unlooked-for event. In June, 1808, the Spaniards revolted against Napoleon's attempt to impose upon them a king from his own family; and this not only opened the Spanish peninsula to British merchandise, but, as the Spanish colonies yet universally adhered to the cause of the old royal family, a commercial intercourse now began, for the first time, between Spanish America and Great Britain. The migration of the royal family of Portugal to Brazil had also given to British merchants access to those extensive regions. The embargo cut off American vessels from participation in this new and valuable traffic. The news of the Spanish revolt had caused a Boston town-meeting to memorialize the President to suspend the embargo, at least as to Spain and Portugal. The revolt had released American vessels detained in Spanish ports by the Bayonne Decree, and it was speedily followed by a repeal (July, 1808) of the British Orders in Council, so far as Spain was concerned.

Great Britain calling her Subjects Home. Some American officers, imprisoned by the British, were paroled in 1814, with a commission to inform their government that twenty-three prisoners sent to England (see *Scott's Boldness and Humanity*), charged with treason, had not been brought to trial, but remained on the ordinary footing of prisoners of war. This speedily led to a dismissal of all imprisoned officers, on both sides, on parole. When the British government thus abandoned its untenable claim to hold subjects found in arms against it as traitors, though they might be residents and naturalized citizens of other lands, it covered its retreat by a proclamation recalling all its subjects from foreign service, granting pardon for all past treasons of this sort on the score of probable ignorance, but threatening to punish as traitors all taken in the service of any hostile power after four months from the date of the proclamation.

Great Chain across the Hudson River at West Point. The obstruction of the Hudson River, to prevent British vessels passing up that stream during the war for independence, and thus defeat the ministerial project for dividing the Union, occupied much of the attention of the patriots. First there were vessels sunk, and a sort of *chevaux-de-frise* constructed in the channel between Mount Washington, on New York island, and the Palisades. A *chevaux-de-frise* was placed in the channel between Pollopel's Island and the western shore of the river, just above the upper entrance to the Highlands. A chain and boom were stretched across the river from Anthony's Nose to Fort Montgomery, at the lower entrance to the Highlands. In the spring of 1778 the most notable of all these obstructions, a heavy chain supported by huge logs, was stretched across the Hudson from West Point to Constitution Island, opposite. It was constructed at the Stirling Iron-works, at Warwick, Orange Co., by Peter Townsend, under the supervision of Timothy Pickering. The task was performed in six weeks. The links were carted to New Windsor, where, at Captain Machin's forges, they were put together, and the whole floated down the river to West Point on logs late in April. The links weighed from one hundred to one hundred and fifty pounds each. The length of the chain was fifteen hundred feet, and its entire weight was one hundred and eighty-six tons. The logs that buoyed it were placed transversely with the chain, a few feet apart, and their ends secured by chains and strong timbers. The ends were made secure to the rocks on both shores. Fort Constitution, on Constitution Island, defended one end, and a small battery the other. In winter it was drawn on shore by a windlass, and replaced in the spring. The British never attempted to disturb it; but it is said Benedict Arnold, when he prepared for the consummation of his treason, took measures for weakening the chain—how, is not stated. A doubtful story.

Great Fire in Charleston. In 1740, while the Carolinians were feeling the disastrous effect of the miscarriage of the expedition against St. Augustine (which see), a fire broke out (November) in Charleston which consumed three hundred of the best buildings in the town, with goods and provincial property to a prodigious amount. The Legislature applied to the British Parliament for relief, which voted $100,000 to be distributed among the sufferers.

Great Uprising, The. The uprising of the people of the free-labor states in defence of the life of the Republic was a wonderful spectacle. Men, women, and children felt the enthusiasm alike, and, as if by preconcerted arrangement, the national flag was everywhere displayed, even from the spires of churches and cathedrals. In cities, in villages, and at way-side taverns all over the country, it was unfurled from lofty poles in the presence of large assem-



GREAT CHAIN AND MORTARS.

blages of the people, who were addressed frequently by some of the most eminent orators in the land. It adorned the halls of justice and the sanctuaries of religion; and the Red, White, and Blue—the colors of the flag in combination—became a common ornament of the women and a token of the loyalty of the men. In less than a fortnight after the President's call for troops the post-offices were gay with letter-envelopes bearing every kind of device, in brilliant colors, illustrative of love of country and hatred of rebellion. The use of these became a passion, and no less than four thousand different kinds of "Union envelopes" were produced in the course of a few weeks. The uprising in the slave-labor states, though less general and enthusiastic, was nevertheless marvellous.

Greed a Cause of Disaster. Greed for plunder caused disaster to Sumter at Hanging Rock (which see) and Greene at Eutaw Spring (which see), and greater disasters occurred to the British from this cause. To the greed of naval officers Cornwallis was indebted for his disaster at Yorktown, more than to anything else. The best British naval officers were averse to serving against the Americans. Howe only obeyed commands when he came in 1776, and after him appeared inferior officers. Arbuthnot was old and imbecile; Graves was coarse, vulgar, and without skill in his profession; and Rodney, superior in ability to either of them, was avaricious. His fleet had been ordered to the Chesapeake to assist Cornwallis, when besieged at Yorktown, by keeping De Grasse at bay; but he lingered so long in disposing of his prizes taken at St. Eustatius (which see), and in trying to escape financial difficulties in which his indiscriminate seizure of property had involved him, that, pleading ill-health, he sent Sir Samuel Hood, and returned to England. Hood was ordered to go to the Chesapeake with fourteen ships-of-the-line and a fire-ship to form a junction with Graves; but, instead of obeying this order, which would have given the British fleet great superiority in strength to that of the French, he cruised off the New England coast in search of prizes. The consequence was, De Grasse entered the Chesapeake before there was a serious opposing force there and he worsted Graves in a fight and drove him away. (See *Naval Engagement off the Capes of Virginia.*)

Greed Predominant. After the siege of Savannah and the possession of Georgia and the coast islands of South Carolina by the British, their power might have been permanent in the South had they emancipated and armed the slaves. But the slave-trade was then the most lucrative occupation of England, and the thought of slavery being a sin, and its abolition a good, had not entered the average English mind. The army would have opposed the enlistment of negroes, and the officers were more willing to share in the profits of sending them to the West Indies and selling them as slaves than to gain advantage for their country or for the good of humanity. This greed was encouraged by the king and his ministers. Germain's instructions to the British officers authorized the confiscation and sale not only of the negroes employed in the American army, but of those who voluntarily followed the British troops and took British protection. Hundreds of confiding negroes were shipped to the West Indies as soldiers and sold as slaves. The Indians in Georgia were employed to catch slaves and bring them in. Every slave was valued at an average of $250. Georgia and South Carolina were filled with the sobs of numbers of separated families.

Greeley, HORACE, an eminent journalist, was born at Amherst, N. H., Feb. 3, 1811; died at Pleasantville, Westchester County, N. Y., Nov. 29, 1872. Fond of reading almost from babyhood, he felt a strong desire as he grew to youth to become a printer, and in 1826 became an apprentice to the art in Poultney, Vt. He became an expert workman. His parents had moved to Erie, Penn., and during his minority he visited them twice, walking nearly the whole way. In August, 1831, he was in New York in search of work, with ten dollars in his pocket. He worked as a journeyman until 1833, when he began business on his own account, with a partner, printing the *Morning Post*, the first penny daily paper (owned by Dr. H. D. Shepard) ever published. His partner (Storey) was drowned in July, and Jonas Winchester took his place. The new firm issued the *New Yorker*, devoted mainly to current literature, in 1834, of which Mr. Greeley was editor. The paper reached a circulation of nine thousand, and continued seven years. In 1840 he edited and published the *Log Cabin*, a campaign paper that obtained a circulation of eighty thousand copies; and on April 10, 1841, he issued the first number of the *Daily Tribune*, a small sheet that sold for one cent. In the fall of that year the *Weekly Tribune* was issued. Mr. Greeley formed a partnership with Thomas McElrath, who took charge of the business department, and from that time until his death he was identified with the *New York Tribune*. Of Mr. Greeley's career in connection with that paper it is not necessary here to speak, for it is generally known. His course on political and social questions was erratic. He believed it better, be-

HORACE GREELEY.

fore the Civil War broke out, to let the states secede if the majority of the people said so. When Jefferson Davis was to be released on bail, he volunteered his signature to his bail-bond; and yet during the whole war he was thoroughly loyal. In 1869 he was the Republican candidate for Comptroller of the State of New York; and in 1872 he accepted a nomination for President of the United States from a party with the principles of which, and from men with whom, he had always been in fierce antagonism. It is evident now that for a year or more Mr. Greeley's brain, overworked, was disturbed; and as soon as the election that year was over, and he was defeated, his brain, doubly taxed by anxiety at the bedside of a dying wife, was prostrated with disease, and he sank rapidly into the grave. Mr. Greeley was the author of several books, his most considerable work being a history of the Civil War, in two thick volumes, called *The American Conflict*. Mr. Greeley died in a full belief in the doctrine of universal salvation, which he had held for many years.

Greeley's Peace Mission. In the summer of 1864 a number of leading conspirators against the life of the Republic were at the Clifton House, at Niagara Falls, in Canada, where they plotted schemes for exciting hostile feelings between the United States and Great Britain; for burning Northern cities; rescuing the Confederate prisoners on and near the borders of Canada; spreading contagious diseases in the National military camps; and, ultimately, much greater mischief. These agents were visited by members of the Peace Faction (which see). At the suggestion, it is said, of a conspicuous leader of that faction, a scheme was set on foot to make the loyal people, who yearned for an honorable peace, dissatisfied with the administration. The Confederates at the Clifton House employed a Northern politician of the baser sort to address a letter to Horace Greeley, editor of the *New York Tribune*, informing him that a delegation of Confederates were authorized to go to Washington in the interest of peace if full protection could be guaranteed them. The kindly heart of Mr. Greeley sympathized with this movement, for he did not suspect a trick. He drew up a "Plan of Adjustment," which he sent, with the letter of the Confederates, to President Lincoln, and urged the latter to respond to it. The more sagacious President had no confidence in the professions of these conspirators; yet, unwilling to seem heedless of any proposition for peace, he deputed Mr. Greeley to bring to him any person or persons "professing to have any proposition of Jefferson Davis, in writing, for peace, embracing the restoration of the Union and abandonment of slavery," with an assurance of safe-conduct for him or them each way. Considerable correspondence ensued. Mr. Greeley went to Niagara Falls. Then the Confederates pretended there was a misunderstanding. The matter became vexatious, and the President sent positive instructions to Greeley prescribing explicitly what propositions he would receive; namely, for a restoration of peace, the integrity of the whole Union, and the abandonment of slavery, and which might come by and with the authority that can control the armies then at war with the United States. This declaration was the grand object of the Confederates at Niagara, and they used it to "fire the Southern heart" and to sow the seeds of discontent among the loyal people of the land.

Green, BARTHOLOMEW, the first newspaper publisher in America, was born at Cambridge, Mass., Oct. 12, 1666; died in Boston, Dec. 28, 1732. He succeeded his father, Samuel, as printer, in Boston, and on April 24, 1704, he issued the first number of the *Boston News-Letter*, a publication issued by him during his life. He published the *Weekly News-Letter*, which was combined with the other, and it was called the *Boston Weekly News-Letter*.

Green Mountain Boys. Some of the settlers who had received grants of land from Governor Wentworth, of New Hampshire (see *New Hampshire Grants*), had crossed the Green Mountains and occupied lands on the shores of Lake Champlain. Emigration flowed over the mountains rapidly after the close of the French and Indian War, and the present State of Vermont was largely covered by Wentworth's grants. The authorities of New York now proceeded to assert their claims to this territory under the charter given to the Duke of York. Acting-governor Colden issued a proclamation to that effect (Dec. 28, 1763), to which Wentworth replied by a counter-proclamation. Then the matter, on Colden's application, was laid before the king in council. A royal order was issued (March 13, 1764) which declared the Connecticut River to be the eastern boundary of New York. The settlers did not suppose this decision would affect the titles to their lands, and they had no care about political jurisdiction. Land speculators caused the New York authorities to assert further claims that were unjust and impolitic. On the decision of able legal authority, they asserted the right of property in the soil, and orders were issued for the survey and sale of farms on the "Grants" in the possession of actual settlers, who had bought, paid for, and improved them. The settlers, disposed to be quiet, loyal subjects of New York, were converted into rebellious foes, determined and defiant. A new and powerful opposition to the claims of New York was created, composed of the sinews and muskets and determined wills of the *people* of the "Grants," backed by New Hampshire, and, indeed, by all New England. New York had left them no alternative but the degrading one of leaving or repurchasing their possessions. The Governor and Council of New York summoned the people of the "Grants" to appear before them at Albany, with their deeds and other evidences of possession, within three months, failing in which it was declared that the claims of all delinquents would be rejected. No attention was paid to the summons. Meanwhile speculators had been purchasing from New York large tracts of these estates, and were preparing to take possession. The settlers sent an agent to England to lay their case before the king. He came back in

1767 with an order for the Governor of New York to abstain from issuing any more patents for lands eastward of Lake Champlain. The order was not *ex post facto*, and the New York patentees proceeded to take possession of their purchased lands. The settlers aroused for resistance, led by a brave and determined commander from Connecticut, Ethan Allen. The men under his command called themselves the "Green Mountain Boys;" and for some years the New Hampshire Grants formed a theatre where all the elements of civil war, excepting actual carnage, were in active exercise. In 1774 Governor Tryon, of New York, issued a proclamation, ordering Ethan Allen, Seth Warner, and other leaders of the Green Mountain Boys, to surrender themselves within thirty days, or be subjected to the penalty of death. These leaders retorted by offering a reward for the arrest of the Attorney-general of New York. The war for independence soon broke out and suspended the controversy. In that war the Green Mountain Boys took a conspicuous part.

Green Mountain State. A popular name of Vermont, the principal mountain-range being the Green Mountains.

Green, SAMUEL, the second printer in the United States, was born in England in 1615; died at Cambridge, Mass., Jan. 1, 1702. He succeeded Day (which see) in 1648. Mr. Green had nineteen children, and his descendants were a race of printers in New England and in Maryland. He printed the Psalter, translated into the Indian language by Eliot the Apostle, and many other books. His son Bartholomew printed, in April, 1704, the first newspaper ever issued in America—the *Boston News-Letter*—which was continued by Green and his successors.

Greene and the Southern Army. At Charlotte, N. C., General Greene assumed command of the Southern army. He found the troops without pay and their clothing in rags. There was hardly a dollar in the military chest, and subsistence was obtained wholly by impressment. At Salisbury he was quartered at the house of Mrs. Elizabeth Steele, a patriot of the purest mould. She heard Greene speak despondingly because of the emptiness of the money-chest. Her heart was touched; and while he was at table she brought two bags full of specie, the earnings of toil, and presented them to him, saying, "Take these, for you will want them, and I can do without them." Greene was very grateful; and before he left her house he wrote on the back of a portrait of the king hanging in the room, "O, George, hide thy face and mourn!" and then hung it up with its face to the wall.

Greene, CHRISTOPHER, was born at Warwick, R. I., in 1737; killed in Westchester County, N. Y., May 13, 1781. He was major in the "army of observation" authorized by the Legislature of Rhode Island. He accompanied Arnold through the wilderness to Quebec in the fall of 1775 (see *Arnold's Expedition*), and was made prisoner in the attack on that city at the close of December. In October, 1776, he was put in command of a regiment, and was placed in charge of Fort Mercer, on the Delaware, which he gallantly defended the next year. He took part in Sullivan's campaign in Rhode Island in 1778, and in the spring of 1781 his quarters on the Croton River were surrounded by a party of loyalists and he was slain. For his defence of Fort Mercer, Congress voted him a sword in 1786, and it was presented to his eldest son.

Greene, GEORGE SEARS, was born at Warwick, R. I., May 6, 1801, and graduated at West Point in 1823. He resigned in 1836, became a civil engineer, and was employed in the construction of the High Bridge and Croton Reservoir in New York city. In January, 1862, he was appointed colonel of a New York volunteer regiment, and commanded in Auger's division in Banks's corps. Having been appointed brigadier-general, he took command of Auger's division on the latter's promotion, and fought gallantly under Mansfield at Antietam. He was in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. He was wounded at Wauhatchie (which see), and was in eastern North Carolina early in 1865.

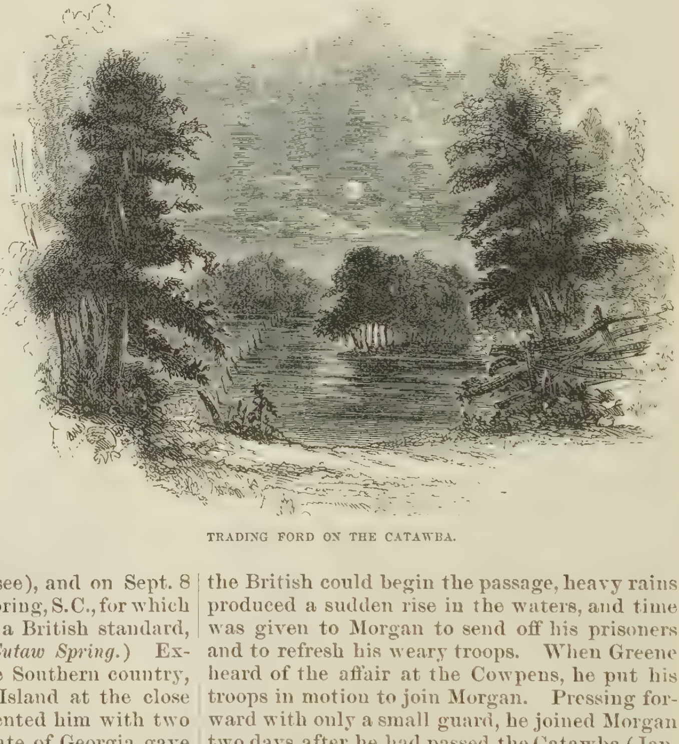
Greene, NATHANIEL, was born at Warwick, R. I., May 27, 1742; died June 19, 1786, and was buried at Savannah, Ga. His father was a member of the Society of Friends or Quakers, and the son was a birthright Friend. His education was confined to the English of the common school, and his youth was spent on the farm, in a mill, or in a blacksmith's shop. At the age of twenty years he studied law and afterwards military tactics. He was fond of books from his childhood. In 1770 he was elected a member of the Rhode Island Legislature, wherein he held a seat, a popular member, until appointed to the command of the Southern army in 1780. His military proclivities caused him to be "disowned" by Friends, and he became a member of a military company. Three regiments of militia were organized in Rhode Island after the affair at Lexington, as an "army of observation," and these Greene, as provincial brigadier-general, led to Cambridge, where he was created a brigadier-general in the Continental army, June 22, 1775. Washington saw

NATHANIEL GREENE.

and appreciated his soldierly qualities, and in August, 1776, he was made a major-general. He commanded the left wing of the army at Trenton; was active in New Jersey; by a rapid movement saved the army from destruction at the Brandywine; was in the battle of Germantown (Oct. 4, 1777); and in March, 1778, accepted the office of quartermaster-general, but with a guarantee that he should not lose his right of command in action. This office he resigned in August, 1780. In the battle of Springfield (which see) in June, 1780, he was conspicuous. During Washington's visit to Hartford (September, 1780), he was in command of the army, and was president of the Court of Inquiry in the case of Major André soon afterwards. (See *Treason of Arnold.*) Greene succeeded Gates in command of the Southern army (Oct. 14, 1780), which he found a mere skeleton, while a powerful enemy was in front of it. He took command of it at Charlotte, N. C., Dec. 4. By skill and energy he brought order and strength out of confusion, and soon taught Cornwallis that a better general than Gates confronted him. He made a famous retreat through Carolina into Virginia (see *Greene's Famous Retreat*), and, turning back, fought the British army at Guilford Court-house, N. C. (which see), March 15, 1781. Greene then pushed into South Carolina, and was defeated by Lord Rawdon in a battle at Hobkirk's Hill (which see), April 25. Soon afterwards he besieged the fort of Ninety-six (which see), and on Sept. 8 gained a victory at Eutaw Spring, S. C., for which Congress gave him thanks, a British standard, and a gold medal. (See *Eutaw Spring.*) Expelling the British from the Southern country, Greene returned to Rhode Island at the close of the war. Congress presented him with two pieces of artillery. The State of Georgia gave him a fine plantation a few miles from Savannah, where he settled in the fall of 1785, and died the next year. South Carolina also gave him a valuable tract of land. A monument dedicated jointly to Greene and Pulaski stands in the city of Savannah, and the State of Rhode Island has erected an equestrian statue of him at the national capital, executed by H. K. Browne.

Greene, Rev. Zechariah, was born at Stafford, Conn., Jan. 11, 1760; died at Hempstead, L. I., June 20, 1858, aged ninety-eight years. He was a soldier in the army of the Revolution; became a minister of the Gospel and a settled pastor on Long Island, and was a chaplain in the army in the War of 1812–15.

Greene's Famous Retreat. After the disaster at the Cowpens, Cornwallis placed his force in light marching order and started in pursuit of Morgan, hoping to intercept him before he could cross the Catawba River. The earl ordered all his stores and superfluous baggage to be burned, and his whole army was converted into light infantry corps. The only wagons saved were those with hospital stores, salt, and ammunition, and four empty ones for the sick and wounded. Sensible of his danger, Morgan, leaving seventy of his severely wounded under a flag of truce, crossed the Broad River immediately after the battle at the Cowpens, and pushed for the Catawba. Cornwallis followed the next morning. Two hours before the van of the pursuers appeared, Morgan had passed the Catawba at Trading Ford, and before the British could begin the passage, heavy rains produced a sudden rise in the waters, and time was given to Morgan to send off his prisoners and to refresh his weary troops. When Greene heard of the affair at the Cowpens, he put his troops in motion to join Morgan. Pressing forward with only a small guard, he joined Morgan two days after he had passed the Catawba (Jan. 29, 1781), and assumed, in person, the command of the division. And now one of the most remarkable military movements on record occurred. It was the retreat of the American army, under Greene, from the Catawba through North Carolina into Virginia. When the waters of the Catawba subsided, Cornwallis crossed and resumed his pursuit. He reached the right bank of the Yadkin (Feb. 3) just as the Americans were safely landed on the opposite shore. Again he was arrested by the sudden swelling of the river. Onward the flying patriots sped, and after a few hours Cornwallis was again in full pursuit. At Guilford Court-house Greene was joined (Feb. 7) by his main army from Cheraw, and all continued their flight towards Virginia, for they were not strong

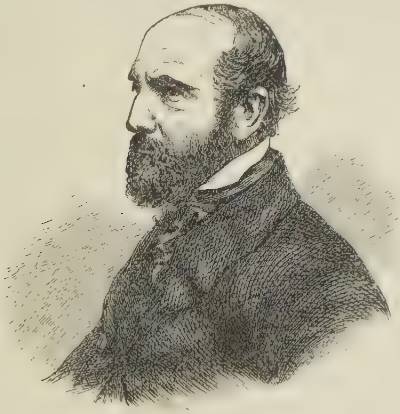


TRADING FORD ON THE CATAWBA.

enough to give battle. After many hardships and narrow escapes, the Americans reached the Dan (Feb. 15, 1781), and crossed its rising waters into the friendly bosom of Halifax County, Va. When Cornwallis arrived, a few hours afterwards, the stream was so high and turbulent that he could not cross. There, mortified and disappointed, the earl abandoned the chase, and, moving sullenly southward through North Carolina, established his camp at Hillsborough.

Greene's Triumphs in the South. While Greene and his army remained on the Santee Hills until late in the fall, his partisan corps, led by Marion, Sumter, Lee, and others, were driving the British forces from post to post, in the low country, and smiting Tory bands in every direction. The British finally evacuated all their interior stations and retired to Charleston, pursued almost to the edge of the city by the partisan troops. The main army occupied a position between that city and Jacksonborough, where the South Carolina Legislature had resumed its sessions. Greene had failed to win victories in battle, but had fully accomplished the object of his campaign—namely, to liberate the Carolinas and Georgia from British rule. In the course of nine months he had recovered the three Southern states, and at the close of 1781 he had all of the British troops below Virginia hemmed within the cities of Charleston and Savannah. General Wayne and his little army became the jailers at the latter place at the beginning of 1782.

Greenough, Horatio, sculptor, was born in Boston, Sept. 6, 1805; died at Summerville, Mass., Dec. 18, 1852. He graduated at Harvard in 1825. He evinced a taste and talent for the cultivation of art in his early youth, and soon after his graduation he went to Italy, where he remained about a year. On his return to Boston in 1826 he modelled several busts, and then returned to Italy, making Florence his residence. Ever active, ever learning, and exceedingly industrious, he executed many pieces of sculpture of great merit. Among them was a group—"The Chanting Cherubs"—the first of the kind ever undertaken by an American sculptor. He made a colossal statue of Washington, half nude, in a sitting posture, for the Capitol at Washington, but it was so large that it could not be taken into the rotunda, its destined resting-place, and it occupies a position before the eastern front of the great building. He also executed a colossal group for the government—"The Rescue"—which occupied the artist about eight years. Besides numerous statues and groups, Mr. Greenough made busts of many of our statesmen. His *Life and Essays* were published in 1853 by his friend Henry T. Tuckerman. Mr. Greenough was greatly beloved by those who were favored with his personal acquaintance as a noble, generous, and kind-hearted man.



HORATIO GREENOUGH.

Greenville, Treaty at. After the successful campaigns of General Anthony Wayne against the northwestern Indian tribes in 1793–94, his army lay in winter-quarters in Greenville, Darke Co., O., and there, on the 3d of August, 1795, he concluded a treaty with several of the tribes—namely, Wyandots, Delawares, Shawnoese, Ottawas, Chippewas, Potawatomies, Miamis, Eel River Indians, Weas, Piankshaws, Kickapoos, and Kaskaskias. There were 1130 Indian participants in making the treaty. The principal chiefs present were Tarhe, Buckhongehelas, Black Hoof, Blue Jacket, and Little Turtle. The basis of the treaty was that hostilities should permanently cease and all prisoners be restored. The boundary-line between the United States and the lands of the several tribes was fixed.

Gregg, David McM., was born in Pennsylvania in 1834, and graduated at West Point in 1855, entering the dragoon service. He was in expeditions against the Indians in Washington Territory and State of Oregon (1858–60), and was promoted to captain of cavalry in May, 1861. He was colonel of volunteer cavalry through the campaign in Virginia in 1862, and in November of that year was created brigadier-general of volunteers. He commanded a division of cavalry in the Army of the Potomac from December, 1862, until February, 1865, when he resigned. In August, 1864, he was breveted major-general of volunteers, at the age of thirty.

Gregory, Francis H., was born at Norwalk, Conn., Oct. 9, 1789; died in Brooklyn, N.Y., Oct. 4, 1866. He entered the United States navy as midshipman in 1809; was made lieutenant in 1814 and captain in 1828. He served under Chauncey on Lake Ontario, was made a prisoner, and confined in England eighteen months. In the war with Mexico he commanded the frigate *Raritan*. His last sea service was in command of the African squadron. During the Civil War he superintended the construction of iron-clads. On July 16, 1862, Captain Gregory was made a rear-admiral on the retired list. During the War of 1812 supplies for the British were constantly ascending the St. Lawrence. Chauncey ordered Lieutenant Gregory to capture some of them. With a small force he lay in ambush among the Thousand Islands in the middle of June, 1814. They were discovered, and a British gunboat was sent to attack them. They did not wait for the assault, but boldly dashed upon and captured their antagonist. She carried an 18-pound carronade, and was manned by eighteen men. These were taken prisoners to Sackett's Harbor. This and other exploits, though appreciated at the time, were not then substantially rewarded, except by promotions; but, thirty years afterwards, Congress gave Gregory and his companion officers in the capture of the gunboat (Sailing-masters Vaughan and Dixon) $3000.

FRANCIS H. GREGORY.

Grenville, GEORGE, author of the Stamp Act, was born Oct. 14, 1712; died Nov. 13, 1770. A graduate of Cambridge University, a fine mathematician, and a student at law, he gave promise of much usefulness. Entering Parliament in 1741, he represented Buckinghamshire for twenty-nine years, until his death. In 1762 he was made Secretary of State; Chancellor of the Exchequer and First Lord of the Treasury in 1763; and in 1764 he proposed the famous Stamp Act (which see). He was the best business man in the House of Commons, but his statesmanship was narrow. Thomas Grenville, who was one of the agents employed in negotiating the treaty of peace in 1783, was his son.

GEORGE GRENVILLE.

Grenville, SIR RICHARD, was born in the west of England in 1540; died at sea in 1591. Sir Walter Raleigh was his cousin. When a mere youth he served in the imperial army of Germany against the Turks, and on his return was appointed to a command in Ireland, and made sheriff of Cork. In 1571 he had a seat in Parliament and was knighted by Queen Elizabeth. The colonization schemes of his kinsman commanded his ardent approval, and on the 9th of April, 1585, he sailed from Plymouth, Eng., in command of some ships fitted out by Raleigh, bearing one hundred and eighty colonists and a full complement of seamen, for the coast of Virginia. Ralph Lane, a soldier of distinction, accompanied him as governor of the colony. Thomas Harriott, a distinguished mathematician and astronomer, was with them as historian and naturalist (see *Harriott, Thomas*); also Thomas Cavendish, the eminent English navigator, who sailed around the earth. Grenville was more intent upon plunder and finding gold than planting a colony; the choice of him for commander was unfortunate. Sailing over the usual long Southern route, they did not reach the coast of Florida until June, and as they went up the coast they encountered a storm off a point of land that nearly wrecked them, and they called it Cape Fear. They finally landed on Roanoke Island, with Manteo, whom they had brought back from England, and who had been created Lord of Roanoke. Grenville sent him to the mainland to announce the arrival of the English, and Lane and his principal companions soon followed the dusky peer. For eight days they explored the country and were hospitably entertained everywhere. At an Indian village a silver cup was stolen from one of the Englishmen, and was not immediately restored on demand. Grenville ordered the whole town to be destroyed, with all the standing maize, or Indian corn, around it. This wanton act kindled a flame of hatred in the bosoms of the natives that could not be quenched. Not observing this, the commander left the colony and returned to England with the ships. These all became piratical cruisers on the seas, and entered the harbor of Plymouth on the 18th of September laden with plunder from Spanish galleons. Governor Lane also treated the natives cruelly, and they became greatly exasperated in spite of the soothing influence of Harriott, their benefactor. In mortal fear of the Indians, their provisions exhausted, and no ship arriving from England, they hailed with joy the appearance of Sir Francis Drake, who, returning from the West Indies, touched at Roanoke Island. (See *Drake, Sir*

Francis.) They gladly entered his ship and returned to England. About three weeks afterwards Grenville arrived there with three ships, laden with provisions. Leaving fifteen men on the deserted spot to keep possession of the country, Grenville again sailed for England. He afterwards, as vice-admiral, performed notable exploits against the Spaniards, but finally, in a battle with a large Spanish fleet off the Azores, in 1591, he was wounded, made prisoner, and soon afterwards died.

Grey, CHARLES (Earl), was born Oct. 23, 1729; died Nov. 14, 1807. He was aide-de-camp to Wolfe, at Quebec, in 1759. He was commissioned lieutenant-colonel in 1761, and, as colonel, accompanied General Howe to Boston in 1775, who gave him the rank of major-general. He led the party that surprised General Wayne in the night. (See *Paoli Tavern.*) He was an active commander in the battle of Germantown (which see) and as a marauder on the New England coast in the fall of 1778. He surprised and cut in pieces Baylor's dragoons at Tappan. For these and other services in America he was made a lieutenant-general in 1783. He became general in 1795, and was elevated to the peerage in 1801.

Greytown, ATTACK UPON. There was a little village on the Mosquito coast (see *Nicaragua, Invasion of*) called San Juan, or Greytown, in which some American citizens resided. They alleged that they had been outraged by the local authorities (who were English), who professed to derive their power directly from the Mosquito king, or chief, of a native tribe so called. An appeal was made to the commander of a United States naval vessel, then lying near. That shallow commander (Hollins) actually proceeded to bombard the little town, as a punishment for the acts of its authorities. This brought out the denunciations of the English residents, who alleged that, by arrangement with the Mosquito monarch, the British government was the protector of his dominions. For a while the folly of Hollins threatened serious difficulties between the United States and Great Britain.

Gridley, RICHARD, was born at Canton, Mass., in 1711; died there, June 20, 1796. He was a skilful engineer and artillerist, and was chief-engineer in the siege of Louisburg, in 1745. He entered the service, as colonel of infantry, in 1755, was in the expedition to Crown Point, under General Winslow, planned the fortifications at Lake George (Fort George and Fort William Henry), served under Amherst, and was with Wolfe at Quebec. He retired on half-pay for life. Espousing the cause of the patriots, he was appointed chief-engineer of the army that gathered at Cambridge, planned the works on Bunker's Hill and Dorchester Heights, and was in the battle there, in which he was wounded. He was active in planning the fortifications around Boston, and in September, 1775, he was commissioned a major-general in the provincial army of Massachusetts. He was commander of the Continental artillery until superseded by Knox.

Grierson, BENJAMIN H., was born at Pittsburgh, Penn., in July, 1837; went on the staff of General Prentiss when the Civil War broke out, and became an active cavalry officer. (See *Grierson's Raid.*) He was made major-general of volunteers in May, 1865, and for his services in the war was breveted major-general United States Army in March, 1867. He had been commissioned lieutenant-colonel of United States cavalry in July, 1866.

Grierson's Raid. Some of Grant's cavalry, which he had left in Tennessee, were making extensive and destructive raids while he was operating against Vicksburg. On April 17, Colonel B. H. Grierson, of the Sixth Illinois Cavalry, left La Grange, Tenn., with his own and two other regiments, and, descending the Mississippi, swept rapidly through the rich western portion of that state. These horsemen were scattered in several detachments, striking Confederate forces here and there, breaking up railways and bridges, severing telegraph-wires, wasting public property, and as much as possible diminishing the means of transportation of the Confederates in their efforts to help their army at Vicksburg. Finally, on the 2d of May, having penetrated Louisiana, this great raid ceased, when Grierson, with his wearied troops and worn-out horses, entered Baton Rouge, where some of General Banks's troops were stationed. In the space of sixteen days he had ridden six hundred miles, in a succession of forced marches, often in drenching rain, and sometimes without rest for forty-eight hours, through a hostile country, over ways most difficult to travel, fighting men and destroying property. His troops had killed and wounded about one hundred of the Confederates, captured and paroled full five hundred, destroyed three thousand stand of arms, and inflicted a loss on their foes of property valued at $6,000,000. Grierson's loss was twenty-seven men and a number of horses. During the twenty-eight hours preceding the arrival of the raiders at Baton Rouge they had travelled seventy-six miles, engaged in four skirmishes, and forded the Comite River. Grierson declared that his experience showed the Confederacy to be only a shell.

Griffin, CHARLES, was born in Licking County, O., in 1826; died at Galveston, Texas, Sept. 15, 1867. He graduated at West Point in 1847, and entered the artillery. He was made captain of artillery in April, 1861, and with his battery fought bravely in the battle of Bull's Run. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in July, 1862; served under General Porter in the campaign against Richmond. He was active in the Army of the Potomac until the surrender of Lee at Appomattox Court-house, where, as commander of the Fifth Corps, he received the arms and colors of the Army of Northern Virginia. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general United States Army, and received other brevets for "meritorious services during the Rebellion." In the winter of 1865–66 he was placed in command of the Department of Texas.

Griffin, Cyrus, was born in Virginia in 1749; died at Yorktown, Va., Dec. 14, 1810. He was educated in England, was connected by marriage there with a noble family, and when the Revolution broke out he espoused the cause of the patriots. From 1778 to 1781, and in 1787–88, he was a member of the Continental Congress, and in the latter year its president. He was commissioner to the Creek nation in 1789, and from that year until his death he was judge of the United States District Court in Virginia.

Griffin, The, the vessel of La Salle, on Lake Champlain, was built early in 1667, at the mouth of Cayuga Creek, not far below the site of Buffalo, and near the foot of Squaw Island. She was armed with a battery of seven small cannons and some muskets, and floated a flag bearing the device of an eagle. In August, the same year, she sailed for the western end of Lake Erie. This was the beginning of the commerce on the Great Lakes. For a full account of this vessel, see O. H. Marshall's monograph on the building of the *Griffin*. (See *La Salle*.)

Grijalva, Juan de. His uncle, Diego Velasquez, the first governor of Cuba, sent him, in command of four vessels, to complete the discoveries of Cordova. (See *Cordova*.) He sailed from Santiago, Cuba, in the spring of 1518. He cruised along the peninsula of Yucatan as far as the region of the Panuco, where he held friendly communication with the Aztecs, the subjects of Montezuma. From them he obtained gold, jewels, and other treasures, with which he freighted one of his ships. Grijalva afterwards settled in Nicaragua, where he was killed by the natives, Jan. 21, 1527. He was the first discoverer of Mexico.

Grover, Cuvier, was born at Bethel, Me., July 24, 1829. He graduated at West Point in 1850, entering the First Artillery. He was made brigadier-general of volunteers in April, 1861, and commanded a brigade in Heintzelman's corps in the Army of the Potomac. When Hooker took command of the troops at Fairfax (1862), General Grover took that officer's division. From December, 1862, to July, 1864, he commanded a division of the Nineteenth Corps in the Department of the Gulf. He was in the Shenandoah campaign in 1864; and from January till June, 1865, he was in command of the District of Savannah. General Grover was breveted major-general for "meritorious services during the Rebellion," and was commissioned lieutenant-colonel of infantry in 1866.

Groveton, Battle of. After the battle at Cedar Mountain (which see), Pope took position with his army along the line of the Rapid Anna, where he was reinforced by troops from North Carolina, under Burnside and Stevens. The Confederates now concentrated their forces for a dash on Washington in heavy columns. Halleck, perceiving possible danger to the capital, issued a positive order to McClellan (Aug. 3, 1862) for the immediate transfer of the Army of the Potomac from the James River to the vicinity of Washington. The commander of that army instructed Halleck that the "true defence of Washington" was "on the banks of the James." The order was at once repeated, but it was twenty days after it was first given before the transfer was accomplished. Meanwhile, General Lee having massed a heavy force on Pope's front, the latter had retired behind the forks of the Rappahannock. Lee pushed forward to that river with heavy columns, and on the 20th and 21st of August a severe artillery duel was fought above Fredericksburg, for seven or eight miles along that stream. Finding they could not force a passage of the river, the Confederates took a circuitous route towards the mountains to flank the Nationals, when Pope made movements to thwart them. But danger to the capital increased every hour. Troops were coming with tardy pace from the Peninsula, and on the 25th, when those of Franklin, Heintzelman, and Porter had arrived, Pope's army, somewhat scattered, numbered about sixty thousand men. Jackson crossed the Rappahannock, marched swiftly over Bull's Run Mountain, through Thoroughfare Gap, to Gainesville (Aug. 26), where he was joined by Stuart, with two cavalry brigades. At twilight Stuart was at Bristow Station, in Pope's rear, and between the latter and Washington. He and Banks had no suspicion of this movement. Jackson knew the perils of his position, and the necessity for quick action. He sent Stuart forward to Manassas Junction before daylight (Aug. 27), to break up Pope's communications with the capital. The alarm instantly spread among the Nationals. Jackson, with his whole force, pressed to the Junction, and Pope attempted to capture him before he should form a junction with Longstreet, at the head of Lee's column, then approaching. Pope ordered McDowell, with Sigel and the troops of Reynolds, to hasten to Gainesville to intercept Longstreet. Reno was ordered to move on a different road, and support McDowell, while Pope moved along the railway towards Manassas Junction with Hooker's division. He directed General Porter to remain at Warrenton Station until Banks should arrive there to hold it, and then hasten to Gainesville. McDowell reached Gainesville without interruption; but, near Bristow Station, Hooker encountered General Ewell, and in the struggle that ensued each lost about three hundred men. The latter hastened towards Manassas, but Hooker's ammunition failing, he was unable to pursue. Pope now ordered a rapid movement upon the Confederates at the Junction, while General Kearney was directed to make his way to Bristow Station, where Jackson might mass his troops and attempt to turn the National right. This movement was made early on the morning of Aug. 28, 1862. Porter was ordered to move towards Bristow Station at one o'clock, but did not march before daylight, at which time Jackson had taken another direction. He destroyed an immense amount of captured stores, and hastened to join Longstreet, then approaching through Thoroughfare Gap. Some of Pope's troops failed to execute orders. The latter arrived at the Junction just after Jackson had left, and pushed all of his available forces upon Centreville in pursuit. Kearney drew Jackson's rear-guard out of Centreville late in the afternoon (Aug. 28), and the forces of the Confederates were turned towards Thoroughfare Gap, from which was coming their help. Towards evening the troops under Ewell and Taliaferro encamped near the battle-ground of Bull's Run nearly a year before. King's division of McDowell's corps was in close pursuit, and when they had reached a point desired by the watching Confederates, the latter fell fiercely upon them. A sanguinary battle ensued. The brunt of it was borne by Gibbons's brigade, supported by that of General Doubleday. The struggle continued until dark. The losses were heavy, and in that battle General Ewell lost a leg. Pope, at Centreville, now attempted to crush Jackson before Longstreet could join him. McDowell and King were directed to maintain their position, while Kearney should follow Jackson closely at one o'clock in the morning (Aug. 29), and Porter (whom he believed to be at the Junction) to move upon Centreville at dawn. Before these movements could be executed, Longstreet and Jackson had formed a partial junction. Near the entrance to Thoroughfare Gap, through which Longstreet had marched, there was a sharp engagement, which ended at twilight. Longstreet was held in check for a while by Ricketts's division and the cavalry of Buford and Bayard, which had fought the battle. Early the next morning (Aug. 29) Ricketts fled to Gainesville, closely pursued. Pope's army was now scattered and somewhat confused. Lee's whole army, now combined, pressed forward. Pope ordered Sigel, supported by Reynolds, to advance from Groveton and attack Jackson on wooded heights near. He ordered Heintzelman, with the divisions of Hooker and Kearney, towards Gainesville, to be followed by Reno, while Porter, with his own corps and King's division, was to move upon the road to Gainesville from Manassas for the turning of Jackson's flank on the Warrenton pike, and to fall heavily on his rear. Lee was then approaching along that pike, and Jackson determined to hold his advantageous position, at all hazards, until the main army should arrive. At five o'clock in the morning, Sigel, with the divisions of Schurz, Schenck, and Milroy, advanced to attack Jackson. A battle began at seven o'clock, and continued with great fury until ten, Sigel constantly advancing, while it was evident that Jackson had been reinforced. It was so. Longstreet, with the vanguard of Lee's whole army, which had been streaming through Thoroughfare Gap all the morning unopposed, had now reached the field of action. Sigel maintained his ground until noon, when Kearney's division arrived, and took position on Sigel's right. Reynolds and Reno also came up, followed soon afterwards by Hooker. Then the Nationals outnumbered the Confederates, and for some hours the battle assumed the aspect of a series of skirmishes. Pope ordered Porter into action, and other troops were directed to support him; but Porter, as he alleged, did not receive the order until dusk, and the brunt of the battle fell upon his intended supports. It was desperately and gallantly fought on both sides. Jackson was hourly reinforced by fresh divisions of Lee's army. Soon after dark this sharp and important battle at Groveton ended, without victory on either side, and each having lost about seven thousand men. Pope's entire army (excepting Banks's force at Bristow Station) and a part of McClellan's was in this action. Pope's effective men had been reduced in numbers by various causes, and it was estimated that his army fit for service did not exceed forty thousand men on the evening of the battle at Groveton.

Guadalupe Hidalgo, Treaty of. At Guadalupe Hidalgo, a city of Mexico, a treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlements was concluded Feb. 2, 1848, between Nicholas P. Trist on the part of the United States, and Don Luis Gonzaga Cuevas, Don Bernardo Couto, and Don Miguel Atristain on the part of Mexico. It provided for a convention for the provisional suspension of hostilities; for the cessation of the blockade of Mexican ports; for the evacuation of the Mexican capital by the United States troops within a month after the ratification of the treaty, and the evacuation of Mexican territory within three months after such evacuation; for the restoration of prisoners of war; for a commission to survey and define the boundary-lines between the United States and Mexico; for the free navigation of the Gulf of California and the Colorado and Green rivers for United States vessels; freedom of Mexicans in any territory acquired by the United States; Indian incursions; payment of money to Mexico for territory conquered and held, and of debts due citizens of the United States by Mexico; regulation of international commerce, and other minor regulations about property, etc. Both governments ratified the treaty. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

Guatimozin (Quauhtemotzin), the last king of Mexico, was a native of that province, and nephew of Montezuma. On the death of his elder brother, in 1520, he was raised to the throne, and vigorously defended his capital against the Spaniards. In attempting to escape he was made prisoner. He was inhumanly tortured by being stretched upon burning coals by Cortez, in order to extort from him a revelation of more treasure than was found in the vanquished city. He was removed from the coals to prison, and, afterwards suspected of complicity in an insurrection, he was hanged by the Spaniards without trial.

Guerilla Warfare in Missouri and Arkansas (1862). In the summer of 1862 these two states were overrun by bands of "guerillas," or independent bands of armed men carrying on irregular warfare. In June, 1862, Missouri was erected into a separate military district, with General J. M. Schofield at its head. When Curtis withdrew to the Mississippi and left the guerillas of Arkansas at liberty to roam about as they pleased, he found it difficult to counteract their influence on the Secessionists of Missouri. Price recruited guerilla bands for active service, and these, becoming numerous in midsummer, were preparing to seize important posts in Missouri. To meet this peril he was authorized to organize all the militia of the state, and he soon had 50,000 enrolled, and 20,000 of them ready for service. His entire force was now scattered over Missouri in six divisions, and for two months a desperate and sanguinary guerilla warfare was carried on in the bosom of that commonwealth, the chief theatre being north of the Missouri River. At Kirksville, in Adair County, there was a desperate fight (Aug. 6, 1862), in which the Confederates were defeated, with a loss of 180 killed and 500 wounded. Soon after that the guerilla bands were mostly broken up. From April until September there were in Missouri about one hundred skirmishes. The guerillas of Arkansas attempted, late in the summer, to aid those of Missouri. Nearly 800 of these attacked and captured Independence, with 362 Missouri cavalry; and at about the same time some 1500 Arkansas guerillas invaded southwestern Missouri. They joined other guerilla bands, and made southwestern Missouri a battle-field. These roving bands were soon driven out of Missouri, and formed the nucleus of an army 40,000 strong, which was gathered in Arkansas under General T. C. Hindman, formerly a member of Congress.

Guerilla Warfare in Missouri and Arkansas (1863). The Confederates occupied all Texas in 1863, and carried on a sort of guerilla warfare in Arkansas and Missouri. In the earlier months Marmaduke was very active. Early in January, with about 4000 men, he burst suddenly out of northern Arkansas and fell upon Springfield, in Missouri, but was repulsed, with a loss of 200 men. After some other reverses, he fell back; and at Little Rock, the capital of Arkansas, he planned a formidable raid into Missouri, chiefly for seizing National stores at Cape Girardeau, on the Mississippi. He invaded the state with 8000 men, and was met near the cape (April 20) by General McNeill, who, after a sharp engagement, drove the invader out of Missouri. Other bands of guerillas, under various leaders, roamed over western Arkansas, and at one time, in May, seriously menaced Fort Blunt, in the Indian Territory. These were 3000 Confederates under Colonel Coffey. There was a sharp engagement at Honey Springs, in the Indian Territory (July 17), between Nationals under General Blunt and Confederates led by General Cooper, in which the latter were defeated, with a loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners of 627. The Nationals lost 77 men. A guerilla band, led by a white savage named Quantrell, fell upon the defenceless town of Lawrence, in Kansas, on Aug. 13, and murdered 140 of the inhabitants. They also laid 185 buildings in ashes. Near Baxter's Springs, on the Cherokee Reservation, while General Blunt was on his way from Kansas to Fort Smith, with an escort of 100 cavalry, he was attacked and his escort scattered by 600 guerillas led by Quantrell, who plundered and burned the trains of the Nationals. Blunt's forces were nearly all killed or disabled in the conflict; his wounded were murdered. Blunt and only a dozen followers escaped to Fort Blair. At the close of September a Confederate force, about 2500 strong, led by Colonel Shelby, made a raid through western Missouri in search of supplies. They penetrated to Booneville (Oct. 1), on the Missouri River, when they were driven back and out of the state by Generals Brown and McNeill.

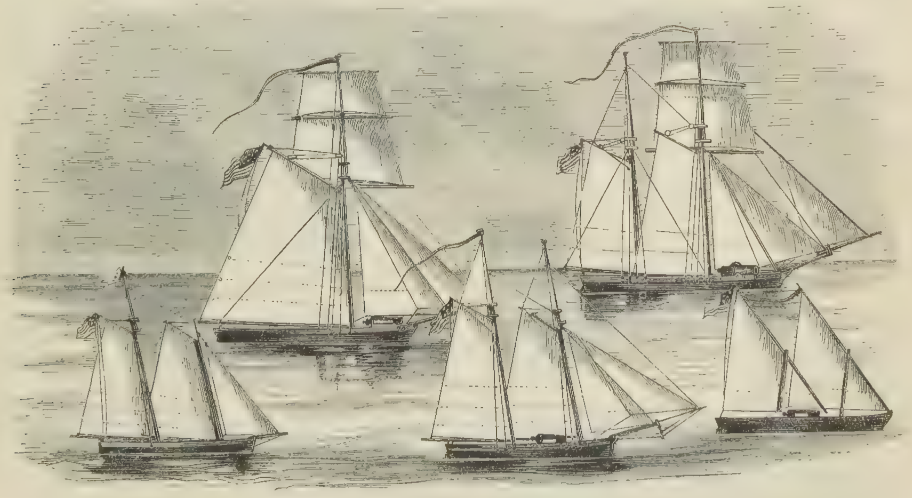
Guess, George (Sequoyah), a half-breed Cherokee Indian who invented a syllabic alphabet of his native language, of eighty-five characters. He was born about 1770; died at San Fernando, northern Mexico, in August, 1843. He had a small farm in the Cherokee country, was an ingenious silversmith, and in 1828 established a newspaper, called the *Cherokee Phœnix*. Guess accompanied his nation in their exodus to a land beyond the Mississippi.

Guilford, Battle of. Resting his troops a while in Virginia, after his race with Cornwallis, Greene recrossed the Dan into North Carolina; and as he moved cautiously forward to foil the efforts of Cornwallis to embody the Tories of that state, he found himself (March 1, 1781) at the head of about 5000 troops in good spirits. Feeling strong enough to cope with Cornwallis, he sought an engagement with him; and on the 15th they met near Guilford Court-house, where they fiercely contended for the mastery. The battle-field was about five miles from the (present) village of Greensborough, in Guilford County, N. C. Greene had encamped within eight miles of the earl, on the evening of the 14th, and on the morning of the 15th he moved against his enemy. The latter was prepared to receive him. Greene had disposed his army in three positions—the first at the edge of woods on a great hill; the second in the forest, three hundred yards in the rear; and the third a little more than one fourth of a mile in the rear of the second. The first line was composed of North Carolina militia, mostly raw recruits, nearly 1100 in number, commanded by Generals Butler and Eaton. These had two cannons, with Washington's cavalry on the right wing, and Lee's legion, with Campbell's militia, on the left wing. The whole were commanded by Greene in person. The British appeared in the front of the Americans at a little past noon in full force, the right commanded by General Leslie, and the left by Colonel Webster. Under cover of a severe cannonade the British advanced, delivering a volley of musketry as they approached, and then, with a shout, rushed forward with fixed bayonets. The American militia fled after the first firing of one or two volleys, when the victors pressed on and attacked the second line, composed of Virginia militia under Generals Stevens and Lawson. After a stout resistance they, too, fell back upon the third line. Up to this time the battle had been carried on, on the part of the British, by their right, under Leslie. Now Webster, with the left, pressed forward with the right division in the face of a terrible storm of grape-shot and musketry. Nearly the whole of the two armies were now in conflict. The battle lasted almost two hours, when Greene, ignorant of the heavy losses sustained by the British, ordered a retreat, leaving his cannons behind and Cornwallis master of the field. It was one of the most sanguinary battles of the war. The Americans lost about 400 killed and wounded, besides 1000 who deserted to their homes. The British loss was about 600. Among the fatally wounded was Colonel Webster. That battle ended British domination in North Carolina. The army of Cornwallis was too much shattered for him to maintain the advantage he had gained. After issuing a proclamation boasting of his victory, calling upon the Tories to rally to his standard, and offering pardon to the "rebels" who should submit, he moved with his whole army towards Wilmington, near the seaboard. The news of the battle produced a profound sensation in England. "Another such victory," said C. J. Fox, in the House of Commons, "will ruin the British army;" and he moved (June 12, 1781) to recommend the ministers to conclude a peace with the Americans at once. William Pitt (son of the great Chatham) spoke of the war against the Americans with great severity.

Gunboat Fleet. When the Confederate line across Kentucky had been broken (see *Military Events in Kentucky*), the national government determined to concentrate the forces of Halleck and Buell for a great forward movement to push the Confederates towards the Gulf of Mexico, according to Frémont's plan (which see). Twelve gunboats—some of them iron-plated—had been constructed at St. Louis and Cairo, and at the close of January, 1861, these were armed with one hundred and twenty-six heavy guns and some light artillery, and were placed under the command of Flag-officer A. H. Foote, of the United States Navy.

Gunboat Fleet Running the Gantlet at Vicksburg. Grant withdrew his forces from the bayous above Vicksburg (see *Bayous in the Yazoo River*), and sent them down the west side of the Mississippi, to cross and gain the rear of Vicksburg, on the line of the Black River. Porter prepared, at the same time, to run by the batteries at Vicksburg with all his gunboat and mortar fleet, with transports and barges. The object was to cover and assist Grant's movement below. The armored vessels were laden with supplies; so, also, were the transports. It was arranged for the gunboats to go down in single file, a few hundred yards apart, attack the batteries as they passed, and allow the transports to pass under cover of the smoke. This was done on the evening of April 16. These vessels were terribly pounded by the batteries on the heights, but returned the fire with spirit. One of the vessels was set on fire, which burned to the water's edge and sank. The gantlet was successfully run, and only one man lost his life in the operation. Grant immediately ordered six more transports to do likewise, and it was done.

Gunboats. By the act of Congress approved April 21, 1806, provision was made for the construction of fifty gunboats. President Jefferson had imbibed very strong prejudice in favor of such vessels. A flotilla of them, obtained from Naples, had been used effectively in the war with Tripoli in 1804; and they were favorites in the service, because they afforded commands for enterprising young officers. A few had been built in the United States in 1805, their chief contemplated use being the defence and protection of harbors and rivers. Then was inaugurated the "gunboat policy" of the government, so much discussed for three or four years afterwards. Towards the close of the year (1806) the President announced that the fifty gunboats were so far advanced that they might be put into commission the following year. In December, 1807, the President was authorized to procure one hundred and eighty-eight additional gunboats, by purchase or construction, making in all two hundred and fifty-seven. These gunboats were variously rigged, as seen in the engraving. Some carried a sin-

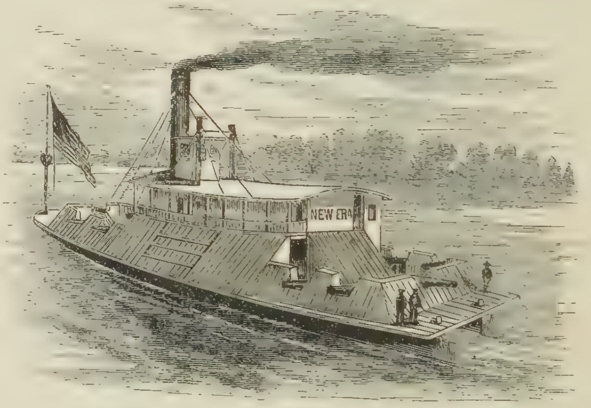


GUNBOATS IN 1807.

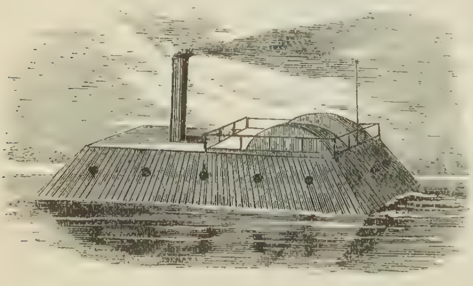
gle swivel amidship, and others one in the bow, and sometimes one in the stern. Jefferson, who had urged the construction of these little vessels-of-war, appears to have conceived the idea that such a flotilla should merely be kept in readiness, properly distributed along the coast, but not actually manned until necessity should call for their being put into commission. For this proposition he was ridiculed not only by naval officers, but among the people at large, and he was denounced by the opposition as "a dreaming philosopher," and the whole gunboat system as "wasteful imbecility called by the name of economy." Quite different were the gunboats that performed most efficient service on the Western rivers during our late Civil War. They were largely covered with plates of iron, moved by steam, and armed with very heavy guns. Foote (which see) commanded the first flotilla of gunboats on the Mississippi River. (See *Floating Batteries.*)

FOOTE'S GUNBOAT FLOTILLA, IN 1862.

Gunboats on the Western Rivers. During the Civil War gunboats and "rams" in many forms were built for service on the Western rivers. Some of them were wooden structures only, while others were of iron or covered with heavy plates of iron. The *Manassas* (which see) had no appearance of a boat, but looked like a huge water-monster. The *Louisiana* showed another form of boat. Indeed, it was a floating battery, movable by steam. This was a Confederate structure. The *New Era* was of another form. It was two boats covered by one common deck, and all heavily armored.



THE NEW ERA.



THE LOUISIANA.

Gunpowder, CAPTURE OF (1775). South Carolina made vigorous preparations for war in 1775, but found herself greatly lacking in the quantity of gunpowder needed. The Council of Safety ordered a fast-sailing ship, under Captain Lamfever, to capture gunpowder and military stores in the island of New Providence. Just as he was about to sail, with twelve volunteers, he was ordered to intercept a brig making her way towards St. Augustine, loaded with military stores and India goods. He surprised and boarded the brig, and took from her fifteen thousand pounds of gunpowder. He spiked her guns, and soon afterwards arrived at Charleston and gave the powder into the hands of the Committee of Safety. The victorious vessel had been chased to Charleston bar, but evaded her pursuers. This powder was of great service to the cause of liberty in America.

Gunpowder Plot in 1861. In June, 1861, a proposition was made to L. Pope Walker, the Confederate Secretary of War, to blow up the national Capitol some time between the 4th and 6th of July, 1861, at which time there would be a called session of Congress, and its halls, lobbies, and gallery would be filled with people. It was supposed President Lincoln would also be present. The plan so pleased the Confederates that directions were given for a conference between this modern Guy Fawkes and Judah P. Benjamin, the Confederate Attorney-general. The would-be destroyer of a multitude of innocent men, women, and children demanded a large sum of money for his proposed exploit. What arrangements were made with him (if any) have not been revealed. The plot was not undertaken. The strength of the national government at Washington soon became too manifest to make such an undertaking safe.

Gwinnett, BUTTON, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in England about 1732; died in Georgia, May 27, 1777. He was a merchant at Bristol, England, and emigrated to Charleston, S. C., in 1770. He settled on St. Catharine's Island, off the coast of Georgia, in 1772. Cautious and doubtful, he took no part in political affairs until after the war for independence was begun, when he became active in the patriot cause. He was chosen a representative in Congress in 1776, where he voted for and signed the Declaration of Independence. In 1777 he was President of the Provincial Council of Georgia, and by hostility to General McIntosh excited the resentment of the latter, who challenged Gwinnett to fight a duel. He accepted the challenge, and on May 15, 1776, was mortally wounded.

H.

Habeas Corpus, SUSPENSION OF THE PRIVILEGE OF THE WRIT OF. The second clause of Section 9, Article I., of the National Constitution says: "The suspension of the privilege of the Writ of Habeas Corpus shall not be suspended unless when, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety may require it."

Habersham, JOSEPH, was born at Savannah, Ga., July 28, 1751; died there, Nov. 17, 1815. His father, James, who was born in England in 1712, and died at New Brunswick, N. J., in 1775, accompanied Whitefield to Georgia in 1738, and was secretary of the province in 1754; president of the Council, and acting-governor in 1769–72. Joseph was a member of the first patriotic committee in Georgia in 1774, and ever afterwards took an active part in the defence of the liberties of his country. He helped to seize gunpowder in the arsenal in 1775, and was a member of the Council of Safety. He was one of a company who captured a government ship (July, 1775), with munitions of war, including fifteen thousand pounds of gunpowder. He led some volunteers who made the royal governor, Wright, a prisoner (Jan. 18, 1776), and confined him to his house under a guard. When Savannah was taken by the British, early in 1778, he took his family to Virginia; but in the siege of Savannah (1779) by Lincoln and D'Estaing, he held the office of colonel, which he retained till the close of the war. He was appointed Postmaster-general in 1795, and resigned in 1801.

JOSEPH HABERSHAM.

Hadley, ATTACK OF INDIANS UPON. At Hadley, on the Connecticut River, the Indians, in the absence of the little garrison, attempted the destruction of life and property, Sept. 1, 1675. The inhabitants were in the meeting-house, it being fast-day. The men seized their arms to defend themselves, their wives, and their little ones from the merciless barbarians. Just as the savages seemed about to strike a destructive blow, and the men, unskilled in military affairs, felt themselves almost powerless, a man with a long, flowing white beard and military air suddenly appeared, drew his sword, and, putting himself at the head of the armed men, filled them with courage and led them to victory. The barbarians fell back and fled, when the mysterious leader as suddenly disappeared, none knowing whence he came or whither he went. It was Colonel Goffe, the "regicide," who was then concealed in the house of Mr. Russell, at Hadley. (See *Goffe, William.*)

"**Hail, Columbia**!" a stirring, patriotic song, was written in the spring of 1798, when war with France seemed inevitable. Mr. Fox, a young singer and actor in the Philadelphia Theatre, was to have a benefit. There was so little novelty in the play-house that he anticipated a failure. On the morning before the appointed day he called upon Joseph Hopkinson, a lawyer and man of letters, who indulged in writing verses, and said, "Not a single box has been taken, and I fear there will be a thin house. If you will write me some patriotic verses to the air of the *President's March* (which see) I feel sure of a full house. Several people about the theatre have attempted it, but they have come to the conclusion it can't be done. I think you may succeed." Hopkinson retired to his study, wrote the first verse and chorus, and submitted them to Mrs. Hopkinson, who sang them with a harpsichord accompaniment. The tune and words harmonized. The song was soon finished, and the young actor received it the same evening. Next morning the theatre placards contained an announcement that Mr. Fox would sing a new patriotic song. The house was crowded; the song was sung, and the audience were wild with delight, for it touched the public heart with electrical effect at that moment. Eight times the singer was called out to repeat the song. When it was sung the ninth time the whole audience arose and joined in the chorus. On the following night (April 30, 1798) President Adams and his wife, and some of the heads of departments, with their families, were present, and the singer was called out time after time. It was repeated night after night in the theatres of Philadelphia and other places, and it became the universal song of the boys in the streets. On one occasion a throng of people gathered before the author's residence, and suddenly the song *Hail, Columbia!* from five hundred voices broke the stillness of the night.

Haines's Bluff. At this point on the Yazoo River there were stirring military events preparatory to the siege of Vicksburg. General Sherman, with the Fifteenth Corps, had been operating in the Yazoo region, and when Grant determined to change his base of supplies to Grand Gulf, below Vicksburg, Sherman was ordered to made a feint against Haines's Bluff, which the Nationals had been unable to pass. On the morning of April 29 he proceeded from Milliken's Bend, with Blair's division, in ten steamboats, and armored and other gunboats, and went up the Yazoo. On the morning of May 6 the armored gunboats assailed the fortifications at Haines's Bluff, and in the evening Blair's troops were landed, as if with the intention of making an attack. The bombardment was kept up until dark, when the troops were quietly re-embarked. The assault and menace were repeated the next day, when Sherman received an order from Grant to hasten with his troops down the west side of the Mississippi and join him at Grand Gulf. (See *Siege of Vicksburg.*)

Hakluyt, Richard, was born about 1553; died Oct. 23, 1616. Educated at Oxford University, he was engaged there as a lecturer on cosmography, and was the first who taught the use of globes. In 1583 he published an account of voyages of discovery to America; and four years afterwards, while with the English ambassador at Paris, Sir Edward Stafford, probably as his chaplain, he published in French a narrative of the voyages of Laudonniere and others; and in 1587 he published them in English, under the title of *Four Voyages unto Florida.* On his return to England in 1589, Hakluyt was appointed by Raleigh one of the company of adventurers for colonizing Virginia. His greatest work — *The Principal Navigations, Voyages, Trafficks, and Discoveries of the English Nation, made by Sea or over Land, to the most remote and farthest distant Quarters of the Earth, at any Time within the Compass of these Fifteen Hundred Years* — was published the same year. It contains many curious documents, and is illustrated by maps. Anthony à Wood, writing late in the seventeenth century, referring to this great work, spoke of it as an "honor to the realm of England, because possessing many ports and islands in America that are bare and barren, and only bear a name for the present, but may prove rich places in future time." Now nearly sixty million people are on the continent of North America. Hakluyt was appointed prebendary of Westminster in 1605, having been previously prebendary of Bristol. Afterwards he was rector of Wetheringset, Suffolk, and at his death was buried in Westminster Abbey. Henry Hudson, who discovered Spitzbergen in 1608, gave the name of Hakluyt's Head to a point on that island; and Bylot gave his name to an island in Baffin's Bay. A society founded in 1846, for the republication of early voyages and travels, has taken his name.

Haldimand, Sir Frederick, K. B., was born at Neuchâtel, Switzerland, in October, 1728; died at Yverdun, Switzerland, June 5, 1791. He left the Prussian army, and in 1754, with his friend Henry Bouquet (which see), entered the British military service. He came to America in 1757, and as lieutenant-colonel distinguished himself at Ticonderoga (1758) and Oswego (1759). He accompanied Amherst to Montreal in 1760. In 1767 he was employed in Florida, and became major-general in America in 1772. Returning to England in 1775 to give the ministry information respecting the colonies, he was commissioned a major-general (Jan. 1, 1776), and in 1777 a lieutenant-general and lieutenant-governor of Quebec, where he succeeded Carleton as governor in 1778. He ruled in an arbitrary manner until 1784, when he returned to England.

Hale, Nathan, Death of, as a Spy. In Knowlton's regiment (see *Harlem Plains, Battle on*) was a fine young captain, Nathan Hale, a trusted officer, and chosen for the perilous service of a spy. At the house of Robert Murray, on the Incleberg (now Murray Hill, in the city of New York), where Washington had his headquarters for a brief time while retreating towards Harlem Heights, Hale received instructions on duty from the commander-in-chief. He entered the British camp on Long Island as a plain young farmer, and made sketches and notes unsuspected. A Tory kinsman knew and betrayed him. He was taken to Howe's headquarters at the Beekman mansion, and confined in the green-house all night. He frankly avowed his name, rank, and character as a spy (which his papers revealed), and, without even the form of a trial, was handed over to the provost-marshal (Cunningham) the next morning (Sept. 22, 1776) to be hanged. That infamous officer denied Hale the services of a clergyman and the use of a Bible; but the more humane officer who superintended the execution furnished him with materials to write letters to his mother, his betrothed, and sisters. These the brutal Cunningham destroyed before the face of his victim, while tears and sobs marked the sympathy of the spectators. With unfaltering voice, Hale said, at the last moment, "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country." Hale was a native of Coventry, Conn., where he was born, June 6, 1755, and graduated at Yale

College in 1773. He was teaching school at New London when the affair at Lexington caused him to enter the army of patriots as a captain in Knowlton's regiment. Just before the American army left New York, Hale, with an associate, took, at midnight, a sloop laden with provisions from under the guns of a frigate.

Halifax, The Earl of, when only thirty-two years of age (1748), was made First Commissioner, or President, of the Board of Trade and Plantations, which office he held for many years, though unfitted by a lack of statemanship, intellectual strength, and knowledge of the world, for the position. He was fond of authority and show, but was totally ignorant of the character of the American people. He was ambitious of renown; and, finding himself virtually the controller of the affairs of a vast region of country, he resolved to make a name to be honored as a wise, industrious, and energetic executive officer. He failed to do so.

Hall, Charles Francis, an arctic explorer, was born at Rochester, N. H., in 1821; died in Greenland, Nov. 8, 1871. First he was a blacksmith, and then a journalist in Cincinnati. In 1859 he appeared in New York, and at a meeting of the Geographical Society he offered to go in search of the remains of Sir John Franklin. Funds for the purpose were raised, and in May, 1860, he sailed from New London, Conn., in a whaling vessel, commanded by Captain Buddington. The vessel became locked in the ice. He made the acquaintance of the Esquimaux, learned their language, acquired their friendship, and lived with them two years, making his way back to the United States in September, 1862, without having discovered any traces of Sir John Franklin and his party. He was accompanied by an Esquimaux and his wife. His *Arctic Researches and Life among the Esquimaux* was published in 1864. In July of that year he set out on another polar expedition, with Buddington, expecting to be absent two or three years, but did not return until late in 1869. Satisfied that none of Franklin's men were alive, Hall labored to induce Congress to fit out a ship to search for the supposed open polar sea, and it made an appropriation for the purpose. A ship called the *Polaris* was fitted out, and sent (from New York, June 29, 1871) under the general command of Hall, Buddington going as sailing-master, accompanied by scientific associates. In August they reached the northern settlement in Greenland. Pushing on northward, the vessel reached 82° 16′, probably the most northerly point yet reached. They wintered in a cove (which they called Polaris), in latitude 81° 38′. In October Hall and three others started on a sledge expedition northward, and reached a point a few miles short of that touched by the *Polaris*. They soon returned, when Hall was taken sick and soon afterwards died, it is supposed from apoplexy. In August, 1872, Captain Buddington attempted to return with the *Polaris*, but for weeks was in the ice-pack. She was in great peril, and preparations were made to abandon her. The boats, provisions, and nineteen of the crew were put on the ice, but before the rest of them could get out the vessel broke loose and drifted away. Those on the ice drifted southward for one hundred and ninety-five days, floating helplessly about two thousand miles. An Esquimaux, the friend of Captain Hall, kept the company from starving by his skill in seal-fishing. The party were picked up in April, 1873, by a Nova Scotia whaling steamer, and the *Polaris* made a port on an island, where her crew wintered, made boats of her boards, and set sail southward. They were picked up, June 23, by a Scotch whaler and taken to Dundee.

Hall, Dominick Augustine, was born in South Carolina in 1765; died in New Orleans, Dec. 19, 1820. He was district judge of Orleans Territory from 1809 till it became the State of Louisiana in 1812, when he was appointed United States judge of the state. While the city of New Orleans was under martial law early in 1815, General Jackson caused Judge Hall's arrest for interfering with the operation of that law. On his release, in March, he summoned Jackson to answer for contempt of court, and fined him $1000. (See *Jackson, Andrew.*)

Hall, Gordon, first American missionary to Bombay, was born in Tolland County, Mass., April 8, 1784; died of cholera in India, March 20, 1826. He was ordained at Salem in 1812, and sailed for Calcutta, where he arrived in February, 1813, and spent thirteen years there in missionary labors.

Hall, Lyman, signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Connecticut in 1725; died in Burke County, Ga., Oct. 19, 1790. He graduated at Yale College in 1747, and, becoming a physician, he established himself at Sunbury, Ga., where he was very successful. He was a member of the Georgia Convention in 1774–75, and was influential in causing Georgia to join the Confederacy. He was sent as a delegate to Congress in March, 1775, by the Parish of St. John, and in July was elected a delegate by the Provincial Convention of Georgia (which see). He remained in Congress until 1780, when the invasion of the state caused him to hasten home. He was governor of Georgia in 1783.

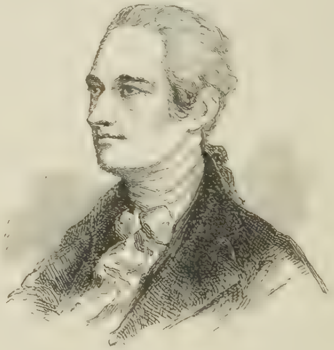
Halleck, Fitz-Greene, poet, was born at Guilford, Conn., July 8, 1790; died there, Nov. 9, 1867. At the age of eighteen years he became a clerk in the banking-house of Jacob Barker, and was long a confidential clerk with John Jacob Astor, who made him one of the first trustees of the Astor Library. From early boyhood he wrote verses. With Joseph Rodman Drake, he wrote the humorous series known as *The Croker Papers* for the *Evening Post* in 1819. His longest poem, *Fanny*, a satire upon the literature and politics of the times, was published in 1821. The next year he went to Europe, and in 1827 his *Alnwick Castle, Marco Bozzaris,* and other poems were published in a volume. Halleck was a genuine poet, but he wrote comparatively little. His pieces of importance are only thirty-two in number, and altogether comprise only about four thousand lines. Yet he wrote with great facility. His *Fanny*, in the measure of Byron's *Don Juan*, was completed and printed within three weeks after it was begun. Late in life he joined the Roman Catholic Church.

Halleck, Henry Wager, was born at Waterville, Oneida Co., N. Y., in 1814; died at Louisville, Ky., Jan. 9, 1872. He graduated at West Point in 1839, entering the engineer corps. Until June, 1840, he was assistant professor at West Point, and from 1841 to 1844 he was employed on the fortifications in New York harbor. In 1845 he visited the military establishments of Europe. In the winter of 1845–46 he delivered at the Lowell Institute, Boston, a series of lectures on the science of war, since published in book form with the title of *Elements of Military Art and Science*. He served in California and on the Pacific coast during the war with Mexico, in which he distinguished himself. He was on the staff of Commodore Shubrick at the capture of Mazatlan, and was made lieutenant-governor. From Aug. 13, 1847, to Dec. 20, 1849, he was Secretary of the Province and Territory of California, and had a large share in preparing the state constitution. He left the army in 1854, and began the practice of law in San Francisco. In August, 1861, Halleck was appointed a major-general of the United States Army, and succeeded Frémont in command of the Western Department in November. In 1862 he took command of the army before Corinth, and in July of that year he was appointed general-in-chief, and held that position until superseded by Grant, when he became chief-of-staff in the United States Army, which position he held till April, 1865, when he was placed in command of the Military Division of the James, with his headquarters at Richmond. In August he was transferred to the Division of the Pacific, and in March, 1869, to that of the South, with headquarters at Louisville. General Halleck published several works upon military and scientific topics.

HENRY WAGER HALLECK.

Hamet, Caramelli, claimed to be the lawful incumbent of the seat of power at Tripoli. The reigning Bey, his brother, was considered a usurper. Hamet had fled to Egypt for the protection of the viceroy. General Eaton agreed to assist Hamet in procuring a restoration of his rights, but failed through the conclusion of a peace between the ruler of Tripoli and the United States in 1805. (See *Tripoli, War with.*) Hamet was left at Syracuse, with a large family, by an American vessel, and without any means of support. He sent an indignant letter to the United States government, complaining of bad faith, and Congress voted him $2400 for his temporary relief.

Hamilton, Alexander, was born at Nevis, W. I., Jan. 11, 1757; mortally wounded in a duel July 12, 1804. His father was a Scotchman; his mother, of Huguenot descent. He came to the English-American colonies in 1772, and attended a school kept by Francis Barber (which see) at Elizabeth, N. J., and entered King's (Columbia) College in 1773. He made a speech to a popular assemblage in New York city in 1774, when only seventeen years of age, remarkable in every particular, and he aided the patriotic cause by his writings. In March, 1776, he was made captain of artillery, and served at White Plains, Trenton, and Princeton; and in March, 1777, became aide-de-camp to Washington, and his secretary and trusted confidant. He was of great assistance to Washington in his correspondence, and in planning campaigns. In December, 1780, he married a daughter of General Philip Schuyler, and in 1781 he retired from Washington's staff. In July he was appointed to the command of New York troops, with the rank of colonel, and captured by assault a redoubt at Yorktown, Oct. 14, 1781. After the surrender of Cornwallis he left the army; studied law; was a member of Congress (1782–83), and soon took the lead in his profession. He was a member of the New York Legislature in 1787, and of the convention at Philadelphia, that year, that framed the National Constitution. With the aid of the able pens of Madison and Jay, Hamilton put forth a series of remarkable essays in favor of the Constitution, which, in book form, bear the name of *The Federalist* (which see). Hamilton wrote the larger half of that work. He was called to the cabinet of Washington as Secretary of the Treasury, and was the founder of the financial system of the



ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

Republic. Having finished the great work of assisting to put in motion the machinery of the government of the United States, and seeing it in successful working order, he resigned, Jan. 31, 1795, and resumed the practice of law; but his pen was much employed in support of the policy of the national government. When, in 1798, war with France seemed probable, and President Adams appointed Washington commander-in-chief of the armies of the Republic, Hamilton was made his second in command, with the rank of major-general. On the death of Washington (December, 1799), Hamilton succeeded him as commander-in-chief, but the provisional army was soon disbanded. Though opposed to the practice of duelling, he felt compelled to accept a challenge to mortal combat from Aaron Burr, and was killed. (See *Hamilton and Burr.*)

Hamilton and a National Government. On Sept. 3, 1780, Alexander Hamilton wrote to Duane, member of Congress from New York, and expressed his views on the subject of state supremacy and a national government. He proposed a call for a convention of all the states on the 1st of November following, with full authority to conclude, finally, upon a general confederation. He traced the cause of the want of power in Congress, and censured that body for its timidity in refusing to assume authority to preserve the infant republic from harm. "Undefined powers," he said, "are discretionary powers, limited only by the object for which they were given." He said that "some of the lines of the army, but for the influence of Washington, would obey their states in opposition to Congress. . . . Congress should have complete sovereignty in all that relates to war, peace, trade, finance, foreign affairs, armies, fleets, fortifications, coining money, establishing banks, imposing a land-tax, poll-tax, duties on trade, and the unoccupied lands." He proposed that the general government should have power to provide certain perpetual revenues, productive and easy of collection. He claimed the plan of confederation then before Congress to be defective, and urged alteration. "It is neither fit for war," he said, "nor for peace. The idea of an uncontrollable sovereignty in each state will defeat the powers given to Congress and make our union feeble and precarious." He recommended the appointment of joint officers of state—for foreign affairs, for war, for the navy, and for the treasury—to supersede the "committees" and "boards" hitherto employed; but he neither favored a chief magistrate with supreme executive power, nor two branches in the national legislature. The whole tone of Hamilton's letter was hopeful of the future, though written in his tent in the midst of a suffering army.

Hamilton and Burr. In the winter of 1804 General Alexander Hamilton was in Albany, attending to law business. While he was there a caucus or consultation was held by the leading Federalists in a private room in Lewis's City Tavern. It was a secret meeting to consult and compare opinions on the question whether the Federalists, as a party, ought to support Col. Aaron Burr for the office of governor of the State of New York. In a bedroom adjoining the closed dining-room in which the caucus was held, one or two of Burr's political friends were concealed, and heard every word uttered in the meeting. The characters of men were fully discussed, and Hamilton, in a speech, spoke of Burr as an unsuitable candidate, because no reliance could be placed in him. The spies reported the proceedings to their principal, and on the 17th of February (1804) a correspondent of the *Morning Chronicle* wrote that at a Federal meeting the night before the "principal part of Hamilton's speech went to show that no reliance ought to be placed in Mr. Burr." In the election which ensued Burr was defeated, and, though Hamilton had taken no part in the canvass, his influence was such that Burr attributed his defeat to him. Burr, defeated and politically ruined, evidently determined on revenge —a revenge that nothing but the life of Hamilton would satiate. Dr. Charles Cooper, of Albany, had dined with Hamilton at the table of Judge Taylor, where Hamilton spoke freely of Burr's *political* conduct and principles only, to which he declared himself hostile. Dr. Cooper, in his zeal, just before the election, in published letters, said: "Hamilton and Kent both consider Burr, politically, as a dangerous man, and unfit for the office of governor." He also wrote that Hamilton and Kent both thought that Burr ought not to be "trusted with the reins of government," and added, "I could detail a still more despicable opinion which Hamilton had expressed of Burr." The latter made these *private* expressions of Hamilton concerning his political character a pretext for a challenge to mortal combat; and, seizing upon the word "despicable," sent a note to Hamilton, demanding "a prompt and unqualified acknowledgment or denial of having said anything which warranted such an expression." Several notes passed between Hamilton and Burr, through the hands of friends, in one of which Hamilton frankly said that "the conversation which Dr. Cooper alluded to turned wholly on political topics, and did not attribute to Colonel Burr any instance of dishonorable conduct, nor relate to his private character; and in relation to any other language or conversation of General Hamilton which Colonel Burr will specify, a prompt and frank avowal or denial will be given." This was all an honorable man could ask. But Burr seemed to thirst for Hamilton's life, and he pressed him to fight a duel in a manner which, in the public opinion which then prevailed concerning the "code of honor," Hamilton could not decline. They fought at Weehawken (July 12, 1804), on the west side of the Hudson River, and Hamilton, who would not discharge his pistol at Burr, for he did not wish to hurt him, was mortally wounded and died the next day. The public excitement, without regard to party, was intense. Burr fled from New York and became for a while a fugitive from justice. He was politically dead, and bore the burden of scorn and remorse for more than thirty years.

Hamilton and Jefferson, QUARREL OF. The persistent and sometimes violent attacks upon the financial policy of the government, sometimes assuming the aspect of personality towards Hamilton, that appeared in Freneau's *National Gazette*, in 1792, at length provoked the Secretary of the Treasury to publish a newspaper article, over the signature of "An American," in which attention was called to Freneau's paper as the organ of the Secretary of State, Mr. Jefferson, and edited by a clerk employed in his office. This connection was represented as indelicate, and inconsistent with Jefferson's professions of republican purity. He commented on the inconsistency and indelicacy of Mr. Jefferson in retaining a place in the cabinet when he was opposed to the government he was serving, vilifying its important measures, adopted by both branches of the Legislature, and sanctioned by the chief magistrate; and continually casting obstacles in the way of establishing the public credit and providing for the support of the government. The paper concluded with a contrast, as to the effect upon the public welfare, between the policy adopted by the government and that advocated by the party of which Jefferson aspired to be leader. Freneau denied, under oath, that Jefferson had anything to do with his paper, and declared he had never written a line for it. To this, "An American" replied that "actions were louder than words or oaths," and charged Jefferson with being "the prompter of the attacks on government measures and the aspersions on honorable men." The papers by "An American" were at once ascribed to Hamilton, and drew out answers from Jefferson's friends. To these Hamilton replied. The quarrel waxed hot. Washington (then at Mount Vernon), as soon as he heard of the newspaper war, tried to bring about a truce between the angry secretaries. In a letter to Jefferson (Aug. 23, 1792) he said: "How unfortunate and how much to be regretted it is that, while we are encompassed on all sides with avowed enemies and insidious friends, internal dissensions should be harrowing and tearing out our vitals." He portrayed the public injury that such a quarrel would inflict. He wrote to Hamilton to the same effect. Their answers were characteristic of the two men, Jefferson's concluding with an intimation that he should retire from office at the close of Washington's term. Hamilton and Jefferson were never reconciled; personally there was a truce, but politically they were bitter enemies.

Hamilton, ANDREW, was an eminent lawyer of Pennsylvania, and died in Philadelphia, Aug. 4, 1741, at a ripe old age. He acquired much distinction by his defence of the liberty of the press on the trial of Zenger in New York (which see). He filled many public stations in Pennsylvania, including that of Speaker of the Assembly, which he resigned in 1739 in consequence of physical infirmity.

Hamilton, GOVERNOR, AT DETROIT. One of the most active promoters of Indian raids upon the frontier settlements of the Americans in the Northwest was Colonel Henry Hamilton, Lieutenant-governor of Detroit. To that post he summoned several Indian nations to a council late in 1777; and from that point he sent abroad along the frontiers bands of savages to murder and plunder the American settlers. Their cruelties he applauded as evidence of their attachment to the royal cause. He gave standing rewards for scalps, but offered none for prisoners. His war-parties, composed of white men and Indians, spared neither men, women, nor children. He planned a confederation of the tribes to desolate Virginia. In 1778 he wrote to Germain, whose favorite he was, "Next year there will be the greatest number of savages on the frontier that has ever been known, as the Six Nations have sent belts around to encourage those allies who have made a general alliance." But early in that year he was made a prisoner of war at Vincennes, and he was sent to Virginia. (See *Clarke, George Rogers.*) He had formed a conspiracy for the Southern and Northern Indians to desolate the whole frontier from New York to Georgia.

Hamilton, SCHUYLER, was born in New York, July 25, 1822, and graduated at West Point in 1841. He served in the war with Mexico, and was acting aid to General Scott. He was severely wounded in a hand-to-hand engagement with Mexicans. He was breveted captain, and remained on Scott's staff until 1854. He left the army in 1855, but on the fall of Sumter (1861) he joined the New York Seventh Regiment as a private. He became aid to General Butler at Annapolis, and soon entered the military family of General Scott at Washington. He was made brigadier-general in November, 1861, and accompanied General Halleck to Missouri, where he commanded the district of St. Louis. In February, 1862, he commanded a division in Pope's army; and by the planning and construction of a canal, greatly assisted in the capture of New Madrid and Island Number Ten. In September, 1862, he was made major-general of volunteers. He resigned in February, 1863.

Hamilton's Plan for a National Government. Hamilton was afraid of democracy. He wished to secure for the United States a strong government; and in the convention at Philadelphia in 1787 he presented a plan, the chief features of which were, an assembly, to be elected by the people for three years; a senate, to be chosen by electors voted for by the people (as the President of the United States now is), to hold office during good behavior; and a governor, also chosen to rule during good behavior by a similar but more complicated process. The governor was to have an absolute negative upon all laws, and the appointment of all officers, subject, however, to the approval of the senate. The general government was to have the appointment of the governors of the states, and a negative upon all state laws. The senate was to be invested with the power of declaring war and ratifying treaties. In a speech preliminary to his presentation of this plan, Hamilton expressed doubts as to republican government at all, and his admiration of the English constitution as the best model; nor did he conceal his theoretical preference for monarchy, while he admitted that, in the existing state of public sentiment, it was necessary to adhere to republican forms, but with all the strength possible. He desired a general government strong enough to counterbalance the strength of the state governments and reduce them to subordinate importance.

Hamilton's Report on the Finances (1790). The first report to the national Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury was waited for with great anxiety not only by the public creditors, but by every thoughtful patriot. It was presented to the House of Representatives Jan. 15, 1790. It embodied a financial scheme which was generally adopted, and remained the line of financial policy of the new government for more than twenty years. On his recommendation, the national government assumed not only the foreign and domestic debts of the old government, incurred in carrying on the late war, as its own, but also the debts contracted by the several states during that period for the general welfare. The foreign debt, with accrued interest, amounting to almost $12,000,000, was due chiefly to France and private lenders in Holland. The domestic debt, including outstanding Continental money and interest, amounted to over $42,000,000, nearly one third of which was accumulated accrued interest. The state debts assumed amounted in the aggregate to $21,000,000, distributed as follows: New Hampshire, $300,000; Massachusetts, $4,000,000; Rhode Island, which came into the Union May 29, 1790, $200,000; Connecticut, $1,600,000; New York, $1,200.000; New Jersey, $800,000; Pennsylvania, $2,200,000; Delaware, $200,000; Maryland, $800,000; Virginia, $3,000,000; North Carolina, $2,400,000; South Carolina, $4,000,000; Georgia, $300,000. Long and earnest debates on this report occurred in and out of Congress. There was but one opinion about the foreign debt, and the President was authorized to borrow $12,000,000 to pay it with. As to the domestic debt, there was a wide difference of opinion. The Continental bills, government certificates, and other evidences of debt were mostly held by speculators, who had purchased them at greatly reduced rates; and many prominent men thought it would be proper and expedient to apply a scale of depreciation to them, as in the case of the paper-money towards the close of the war, in liquidating them. Hamilton declared such a course would be dishonest and impolitic, and that the public promises should be met in full, in whatever hands the evidences were found. It was the only way, he argued justly, to sustain public credit. He proposed the funding of the public debt in a fair and economical way by which the creditors should receive their promised six per cent. until the government should be able to pay the principal. He assumed that in five years, if the government should pursue an honorable course, loans might be made for five, and even four, per cent., with which the claims might be met. The propositions of Hamilton, though warmly opposed, were obviously so just that they were agreed to in March (1790), and a new loan was authorized, payable in certificates of the domestic debt at their par value in Continental bills of credit (new issue), at the rate of one hundred to one. Congress also authorized an additional loan to the amount of $21,000,000, payable in certificates of the state debts. A system of revenue from imports and internal excise, proposed by Hamilton, was adopted.

Hampden (ME.), BRITISH AT. When the British had taken possession of Castine (which see), a land and naval force was sent up the Penobscot River to capture or destroy the corvette *John Adams*, which had fled up the river to the town of Hampden. The commander of the *John Adams*, Captain C. Morris, was warned of his danger, and he notified General John Blake, Commander of the Tenth Division of Massachusetts Militia. The British force consisted of two sloops-of-war, a tender, a large transport, and nine launches, commanded by Commodore Barrie, and 700 soldiers, led by Lieutenant-colonel St. John. The expedition sailed on Sept. 1, 1814, and the next morning General Gosselin took possession of Belfast, on the western shore of Penobscot Bay, at the head of 600 troops. The expedition landed some troops at Frankfort, which marched up the western side of the river. The flotilla, with the remainder, sailed on, and arrived near Hampden at five o'clock in the evening, when the troops and about 80 marines were landed and bivouacked. They found the militia assembling to resist them. Meanwhile Captain Morris had taken out of the *John Adams* nine short 18-pounders, and mounted them on a high bank, in charge of Lieutenant Wadsworth. With the remainder of his guns, he took position on the wharf, with about 200 seamen and marines, prepared to defend his crippled ship to the last extremity. She had been much damaged by striking a rock when she entered Penobscot Bay, and had run up to Hampden to avoid capture. The British detachment landed at Frankfort, and moved forward cautiously, in a dense fog, to join the other invaders, with a vanguard of riflemen. Blake had sent a body of militia to confront the invaders. These were suddenly attacked, when they broke and fled in every direction, leaving Blake and his officers alone. This panic imperilled the force that was to defend the *John Adams*, when Morris, seeing no other means for the salvation of his troops but in flight, ordered his guns to be spiked and the vessel set on fire. This was done, and the men under Morris fled northward. With Blake and his officers and a bare remnant of his command, Morris retreated to Bangor, and thence made his way overland to Portland. The British took possession of Hampden, and a part of their force—500 strong—pushed on to Bangor with their vessels. They met a flag of truce with a message from the magistrates of Bangor asking terms of capitulation. Nothing was granted excepting respect for private property. They entered the town, when Commodore Barrie gave notice that persons and property should be protected if supplies were cheerfully furnished. This promise was speedily broken. The sailors were given license to plunder as much as they pleased. Many stores were robbed of everything valuable. The leader of the land-troops tried to protect private property. The British remained in Bangor thirty-one hours, quartered on the inhabitants, who were compelled to sign a parole as prisoners of war. General Blake was compelled to sign the same, and 190 citizens were thus bound. Having despoiled the inhabitants of property valued at over $20,000, and burned several vessels, the marauders departed, to engage in similar work at Hampden (Sept. 5). Barrie allowed the sailors to commit the most wanton acts of destruction. They desolated the village meeting-house—tore up the Bible and psalm-books in it, and demolished the pulpit and pews. As at Havre-de-Grace (which see), they wantonly butchered cattle and hogs, and compelled the selectmen to sign a bond to guarantee the delivery of vessels then at Hampden at Castine. The speedy return of peace cancelled the bond. The total loss of property at Hampden by the hands of the marauders, exclusive of a very valuable cargo on board the schooner *Commodore Decatur*, was estimated at $44,000. When a committee at Hampden waited upon Barrie and asked for the common safeguards of humanity, he replied, "I have none for you; my business is to burn, sink, and destroy"—the cruel order issued by Admiral Cochrane.

OLD MEETING-HOUSE (NOW TOWN-HOUSE), HAMPDEN.

Hampton, Attack upon (1813). The British, exasperated by their repulse at Craney Island (which see), proceeded to attack the flourishing little village of Hampton, near Old Point Comfort. It was defended at the time by about 450 Virginia soldiers, commanded by Major Stapleton Crutchfield. They were chiefly militia infantry, with a few artillerymen and cavalry. They had a heavy battery to defend the water-front of the camp and village, composed of four 6-, two 12-, and one 18-pounder cannon, in charge of Sergeant William Burke. Early on the morning of June 25, 1813, about 2500 British land-troops, under General Sir Sidney Beckwith (including rough French prisoners, called *Chasseurs Britanniques*), landed under cover of the guns of the *Mohawk*, behind a wood, about two miles from Hampton. Most of the inhabitants fled; the few who could not were willing to trust to the honor and clemency of the British, if they should capture the town. As they moved upon the village, Crutchfield and his men—infantry, artillery, and cavalry—fought the invaders gallantly; but at length overwhelming numbers, failure of gunpowder, volleys of grape-shot, and flights of Congreve rockets compelled the Americans, who were partially outflanked, to break and flee in the direction of Yorktown. Thus ended a sharp battle, in which the British lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, about fifty men, and the Americans about thirty. Of eleven missing Americans, ten had fled to their homes. The victorious British now entered the village of Hampton, and Cockburn, who had come on shore, and was in chief command, gave the place up to pillage and rapine. The atrocities committed at that town upon the defenceless inhabitants of Hampton, particularly the women, were deeply deplored and condemned by the British authorities and writers. Cockburn, who was doubtless the chief instigator of them, covered his name with dishonor by the act. The British officers who tried to palliate the offence by charging the crimes upon the Frenchmen were denounced by the most respectable British writers. A commission appointed to investigate the matter said, in their report, "The sex hitherto guarded by the soldier's honor escaped not the assaults of superior force." Leaving Hampton, Cockburn sailed down the coast of North Carolina on a marauding expedition. (See *Amphibious War*.)

Hampton Blockaded. The village of Hampton is near the end of the peninsula between the York and James rivers, Virginia. An armed sloop was driven ashore there by a gale in October, 1775. The Hamptonians took out her guns and munitions of war, and then burned her, making her men prisoners. Dunmore at once blockaded the port. The people called to their aid some Virginia regulars and militia. Dunmore sent some tenders close into Hampton Roads to destroy the town. The military marched out to oppose them; and when they came within gunshot distance George Nicholas, who commanded the Virginians, fired his musket at one of the tenders. This was the first gun fired at the British in Virginia. It was followed by a volley. Boats sunk in the channel retarded the British ships, and, after a sharp skirmish the next day (Oct. 27), the blockaders were driven away. One of the tenders was taken, with its armament and seamen, and several of the British were slain. The Virginians did not lose a man. This was the first battle of the Revolution in Virginia.

Hampton, Destruction of (1861). On the night of Aug. 7, 1861, the village of Hampton, near Fortress Monroe (which see), containing about five hundred houses, was set on fire by order of the insurgent general Magruder, and all but the court-house and seven or eight other buildings were consumed. National troops had occupied Hampton after the battle of Big Bethel (which see), but had just been withdrawn. Among other buildings destroyed at that time was the ancient St. John's Church, in the suburbs of the village. It was the third oldest house of worship in Virginia. The earliest inscription found in its graveyard was 1701. Before the Revolution the royal arms, handsomely carved, were upon the steeple. It is said that, soon after the Declaration of Independence, the steeple was shattered by lightning and the insignia of royalty hurled to the ground. The church was in a state of good preservation, and was used as a place of worship according to the ritual of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America, until 1861.

ST. JOHN'S CHURCH.

Hampton, WADE, was born in South Carolina in 1754; died at Columbia, S. C., Feb. 4, 1835. He was distinguished as a partisan officer under Sumter and Marion in the Revolution. Was twice a member of Congress—from 1795 to 1797, and from 1803 to 1805. In October, 1808, he was commissioned a colonel in the United States Army; brigadier-general in 1809, and major-general March 2, 1813. Imperious and overbearing in his nature and deportment, he was constantly quarrelling with his subordinates. He was superseded by Wilkinson in command at New Orleans when the war broke out in 1812, and was put in command of the Army of the North, with headquarters on the borders of Lake Champlain. In that position he gained no honors, and his career there was chiefly marked by disobedience to the orders of his superiors. In April, 1814, he resigned his commission, and left the army. He was an extensive land and slave owner in South Carolina and Louisiana, and passed there a large portion of his later years.—His grandson, Wade Hampton, was a leader of Confederate cavalry in the Civil War, in which he gained distinction for boldness and courage. He was a member of Congress in 1879.

Hancock and Adams. (See *Adams and Hancock.*)

Hancock and Washington. (See *Washington's Tour in New England.*)

Hancock, JOHN, LL.D., was born at Quincy, Mass., Jan. 12, 1737; died there, Oct. 8, 1793. He graduated at Harvard in 1754, and becoming a merchant with his uncle, inherited that gentleman's large fortune and extensive business. He was one of the most active of the Massachusetts "Sons of Liberty" (which see), and, with Samuel Adams, was outlawed by Gage in June, 1775. Hancock was a member of the Provincial Assembly in 1766, and was chosen President of the Provincial Congress in October, 1774. He was a delegate to the first Continental Congress, and continued in that body until 1778. As President of Congress, he first placed his bold signature to the Declaration of Independence. In February, 1778, he was appointed first major-general of the Massachusetts militia, and took part in Sullivan's campaign in Rhode Island in August following. He was a member of the Massachusetts State Convention in 1780, and governor of the state from 1780 to 1785, and from 1787 till his death. He was president of the state convention that adopted the National Constitution. Hancock's residence was in a fine stone

JOHN HANCOCK.

HANCOCK'S HOUSE, BOSTON.

mansion on Beacon Street, fronting the Common. It was built by his uncle, Thomas Hancock, from whom he inherited a fortune.

Hancock, WINFIELD SCOTT, was born in Montgomery County, Penn., Feb. 14, 1824, and graduated at West Point in 1844. He served in the war with Mexico, and left that country quartermaster of his regiment. In September, 1861, he was made brigadier-general, and served under Franklin during the campaign in the Virginia peninsula in 1862. He was distinguished in the battles of South Mountain and Antietam (which see), and in the battles of Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville he led a division in Sumner's corps. In February, 1863, he was placed in command of the Second Army Corps, which he led in the battle of Gettysburg, where he was severely wounded. He had been made major-general of volunteers in November, 1862. He led his corps in the great campaign of the Army of the Potomac, in 1864–65, and was made a brigadier-general of the United States Army Aug. 12, 1864. In July, 1866, he was breveted major-general of the United States Army.

Hand, EDWARD, was a native of Ireland, born Dec. 31, 1744; died at Rockford, Lancaster Co., Penn., Sept. 3, 1802. He came to America in the Eighth Royal Irish regiment, in 1774, as surgeon's mate; resigned his position on his arrival, and settled in Pennsylvania for the practice of the medical profession. He joined a regiment as lieutenant-colonel at the outbreak of the Revolution, and served in the siege of Boston. Made colonel in 1776, he led his regiment in the battle on Long Island, and also at Trenton. In April, 1777, he was appointed brigadier-general; and in October, 1778, succeeded Stark in command at Albany. In Sullivan's campaign against the Indians, in 1779, he was an active participant. Near the close of 1780, Hand succeeded Scammel as adjutant-general. He was a member of Congress in 1784–85, and assisted in the formation of the Constitution of Pennsylvania in 1790.

Hanging Rock, SKIRMISH AT (1780). After his unsuccessful attack on Rocky Mount (which see), Colonel Sumter crossed the Catawba, and fell upon a British post at Hanging Rock, twelve miles east of the river (Aug. 6, 1780), commanded by Major Carden. A large number of British and Tories were there. Among the former were the infantry of Tarleton's Legion. Sumter soon dispersed them, when his men scattered through the camp, seeking plunder and drinking the liquors found there. Intoxication followed. The British rallied, and attacked the disordered patriots, and a severe skirmish ensued. The British were reinforced, and Sumter was compelled to retreat; but the British had been so severely handled that they did not attempt to pursue. With a few prisoners and some booty, Sumter retreated towards the Waxhaw, bearing away many of his wounded men. The battle lasted about four hours. Sumter lost twelve killed and forty-one wounded. At the same time Marion was smiting the British and Tories with sudden and fierce blows among the swamps of the lower country, on the borders of the Pedee, Pickens was annoying Cruger near the Saluda, and Clarke was calling for the patriots along the Savannah and other Georgia streams to drive Brown from Augusta. Hanging Rock is a huge conglomerate boulder near the Lancaster and Camden highway, a few miles east of the Catawba River, in South Carolina. It is a shelving rock, twenty or thirty feet in diameter, lying on the verge of a high bank of a small stream, nearly one hundred feet above it. Under its concavity fifty men might find shelter from rain.

HANGING ROCK.

Hanover, CAVALRY BATTLE AT. General Meade's cavalry, during Lee's invasion of Maryland, before the battle of Gettysburg (which see), was continually hovering on the flanks of the Confederate army. The most dashing of the cavalry officers of that time were Colonels Kilpatrick and Custer. At about the same hour when Buford's division occupied Gettysburg (June 29, 1863), Kilpatrick, passing through Hanover, a few miles from Gettysburg, was suddenly surprised by Stuart's cavalry, then on their march for Carlisle. Stuart led in person, and made a desperate charge on the flank and rear of Farnsworth's brigade, at the eastern end of the village. A severe battle ensued in the town and on its borders, when Custer joined in the fight with his troops, and the Confederates were repulsed. The Nationals lost about five hundred men.

Hanoverian Troops. King George III. was Elector of Hanover, and when it was resolved to send mercenaries to crush the rebellion in America, the king offered the use of Hanoverian troops, and asked only a reimbursement of expenses. His agent for the purchase of other German troops (Colonel William Fawcett) went to the Hague early in August, 1775, and thence to Hanover, to receive and muster into the service of Great Britain five battalions of electoral infantry (2300 men), who were employed to garrison Gibraltar and Minorca, and thus release an equal number of troops for service in America.

Hansen, JOHN, delegate to the Continental Congress from 1781 to 1783, was born in Maryland, and died in Prince George County, in that state, Nov. 13, 1783. Mr. Hansen was President of Congress in 1781–82.

Harcourt, WILLIAM, EARL, was born in England, March 20, 1743; died June 18, 1830. He entered the army in 1759. He came to America in 1776, and distinguished himself by the capture of General Charles Lee. He was then colonel of dragoons. This exploit procured him the position of aide-de-camp to the king. He became major-general in 1782, lieutenant-general in 1793, and commander of the British forces in Holland in 1794. In 1798 he became general; succeeded to the title of earl in 1809; took his seat in the House of Lords, and became a field-marshal.

Hard-Cider Campaign. Political parties are always seeking catch-words to use in a campaign with effect among the least thoughtful of the people. General Harrison lived in the growing West, and his dwelling had once been a log-house, at North Bend, where he exercised great hospitality. In the campaign referred to a log-cabin was chosen as a symbol of the plain and unpretentious candidate, and a barrel of cider as that of his hospitality. During the campaign, all over the country, in hamlets, villages, and cities, log-cabins were erected and fully supplied with barrels of cider. These houses were the usual gathering-places of the partisans of Harrison, young and old, and to every one hard cider was freely given. The meetings were often mere drunken carousals that were injurious to all, and especially to youth. Many a drunkard afterwards pointed sadly to the hard-cider campaign as the time of his departure from sobriety and respectability.

Hardee, WILLIAM J., was born at Savannah, Ga., in 1818; died at Wytheville, Va., Nov. 6, 1873. He graduated at West Point in 1838, entering the Dragoons, and in 1860 was lieutenant of the First Cavalry. Resigning in January, 1861, he joined the insurgents, and in June was appointed brigadier-general in the Confederate army. For bravery in the battle of Shiloh (which see) he was promoted to major-general, and in October, 1862, he was raised to the rank of lieutenant-general. He was very active in military operations in Arkansas, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Georgia; and after the defeat of the Confederates at Missionaries' Ridge, late in 1863, he succeeded Bragg in the chief command, until relieved by General Johnston. He commanded at Savannah and Charleston at the time of their capture, early in 1865; fought at Averasborough and Bentonville, N. C. (which see); and surrendered with Johnston's army, April 27, 1865.

Harford, HENRY, was a natural son of Frederick Calvert, the fifth Lord Baltimore, who was a man of some literary accomplishments, but of dissolute habits, and who died without lawful issue. He bequeathed the province of Maryland to this illegitimate son, who was then (1771) a boy at school. Lord Baltimore's brother-in-law, Robert Eden, had succeeded Sharpe as governor of Maryland, and he continued to administer the government of the province in behalf of the boy, until the fires of the Revolution consumed royalty in all the provinces.

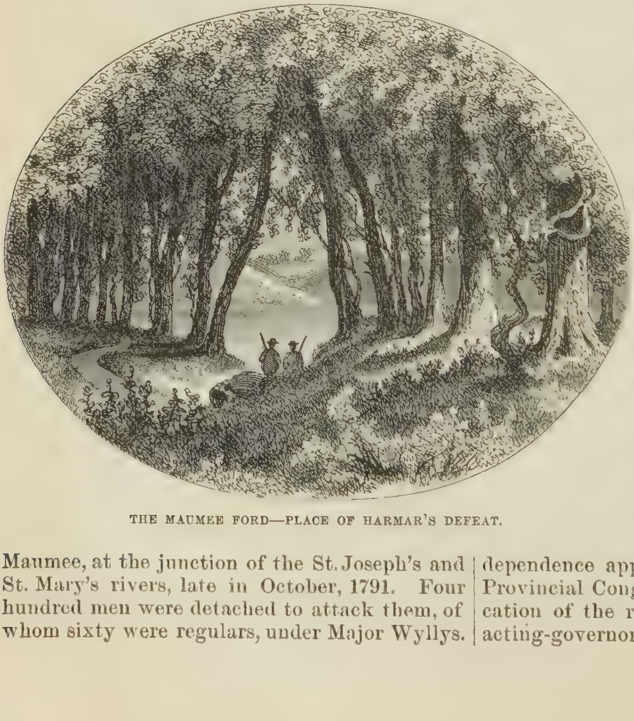
Harker, CHARLES G., was born at Swedesborough, N. J., Dec. 2, 1837; killed near Kenesaw Mountain, June 27, 1864. He graduated at West Point in 1858, and in the fall of 1861 was colonel of Ohio volunteers. He was made brigadier-general in September, 1863. He did good service in Tennessee and Georgia, especially in the battle of Shiloh, the siege of Corinth, the battle of Murfreesborough, Chickamauga, and Missionaries' Ridge. He commanded a brigade under General Howard in the Georgia campaign, and distinguished himself at Resaca.

Harlem Plains, BATTLE ON. On the morning of Sept. 16, 1776, the British advanced guard, under Colonel Leslie, occupied the rocky heights now at the northern end of the Central Park. His force was composed of British infantry and Highlanders, with several pieces of artillery. Descending to Harlem Plains, they were met by some Virginians under Major Leitch, and Connecticut Rangers under Colonel Knowlton. A desperate conflict ensued. Washington soon reinforced the Americans with some Maryland and New England troops, with whom Generals Putnam, Greene, and others took part to encourage the men. The British were pushed back to the rocky heights, where they were reinforced by Germans, when the Americans fell back towards Harlem Heights. In this spirited engagement the Americans lost about sixty men, including Major Leitch and Colonel Knowlton, who were killed. This affair made the British more cautious.

Harmar, JOSIAH, was born in Philadelphia in 1753; died there, Aug. 20, 1813. He was educated chiefly in the school of Robert Proud, the Quaker and historian. He entered the army as captain of a Pennsylvania regiment in 1776; was its lieutenant-colonel in 1777; and served faithfully through the war in the north and in the south. Made brevet-colonel in the United States Army in September, 1783, he was sent to France in 1784 with the ratification of the definitive treaty of peace. He was made Indian agent for the territory northwest of the Ohio, and in 1787 Congress made him a brevet brigadier-general. On Sept. 29, 1789, he was appointed commander-in-chief of the army of the United States, and commanded an expedition against the Miami Indians in the fall of 1790, but was defeated. Harmar resigned his commission in January, 1792, and was made adjutant-general of Pennsylvania in 1793, in which position he was active in furnishing Pennsylvania troops for Wayne's campaign in 1793–94.

Harmar's Expedition (1790). The British, in violation of the treaty of 1783, still held Detroit and other western military posts in 1790. British agents instigated the Indians of the Northwest to make war on the frontier settlers, in order to secure for British commerce the monopoly of the fur-trade. This had been kept up ever since 1783, and the posts were held with a hope that the league of states would fall in pieces and an opportunity would be afforded to bring back the new Republic to colonial dependence. Sir John Johnson, former Indian agent, was again on the frontier, and Lord Dorchester (Sir Guy Carleton) was again governor of Canada, which gave strength to the opinion that the discontents of the barbarians were fostered for a political purpose. The northwestern tribes, encouraged by the British agents, insisted upon re-establishing the Ohio River as the Indian boundary. Attempts to make a peaceable arrangement were unsuccessful. The barbarians would listen to no other terms; and in September, 1791, General Josiah Harmar led more than one thousand volunteers from Fort Washington (now Cincinnati) into the Indian country around the head-waters of the Maumee (or Miami) to chastise the hostile Indians, as Sullivan had scourged the Senecas in 1779. (See *Sullivan's Campaign.*) He did not succeed. They found the Indians near the head of the Maumee, at the junction of the St. Joseph's and St. Mary's rivers, late in October, 1791. Four hundred men were detached to attack them, of whom sixty were regulars, under Major Wyllys. These reached the Maumee after sunrise on October 23. Militia under Major Hall proceeded to pass around the Indian village at the head of the Maumee, and assist, in their rear, an attack of the main body on their front. The latter were to cross the Maumee at the usual ford, and then surround the barbarians, who were led by the celebrated chief Little Turtle. Before this could be effected the Indian encampment was aroused, and a part of them fled. Some of the militia and the cavalry who had passed the ford started in pursuit, in disobedience of orders, leaving the regulars, who had also passed the ford, unsupported, when the latter were attacked by Little Turtle and the main body of the Indians and driven back with great slaughter. Meanwhile the militia and cavalry pursuers were skirmishing with the Indians a short distance up the St. Joseph's. They were compelled to fall back in confusion towards the ford, and followed the remnant of the regulars in their retreat. The Indians did not pursue. The whole expedition now returned to Fort Washington.

FORT WASHINGTON, ON THE SITE OF CINCINNATI.


THE MAUMEE FORD—PLACE OF HARMAR'S DEFEAT.

Harnett, Cornelius, was born in England, April 20, 1723; died at Wilmington, N. C., April 20, 1781. Wealthy and independent, he was influential in his adopted state (North Carolina), and was among the first to denounce the Stamp Act and kindred measures. He was a leading man in all public assemblages as the war for independence approached; was president of the Provincial Congress in 1775; and on the abdication of the royal governor (Martin) became acting-governor of the state. He was excepted in an offer of pardon to the inhabitants of North Carolina by Sir Henry Clinton, in which exception was included Robert Howe. He was the chief constructor of the constitution of North Carolina, framed in 1776, under which Harnett became one of the Council; and in 1778 he was elected to Congress. While the British held possession of the country adjacent to Cape Fear River in 1781, Mr. Harnett was made prisoner, and died in confinement. His dwelling (yet standing, I believe, in 1880) is a fine old mansion, about a mile and a half from the centre of the city of Wilmington, N. C., on the northeast branch of the Cape Fear River.

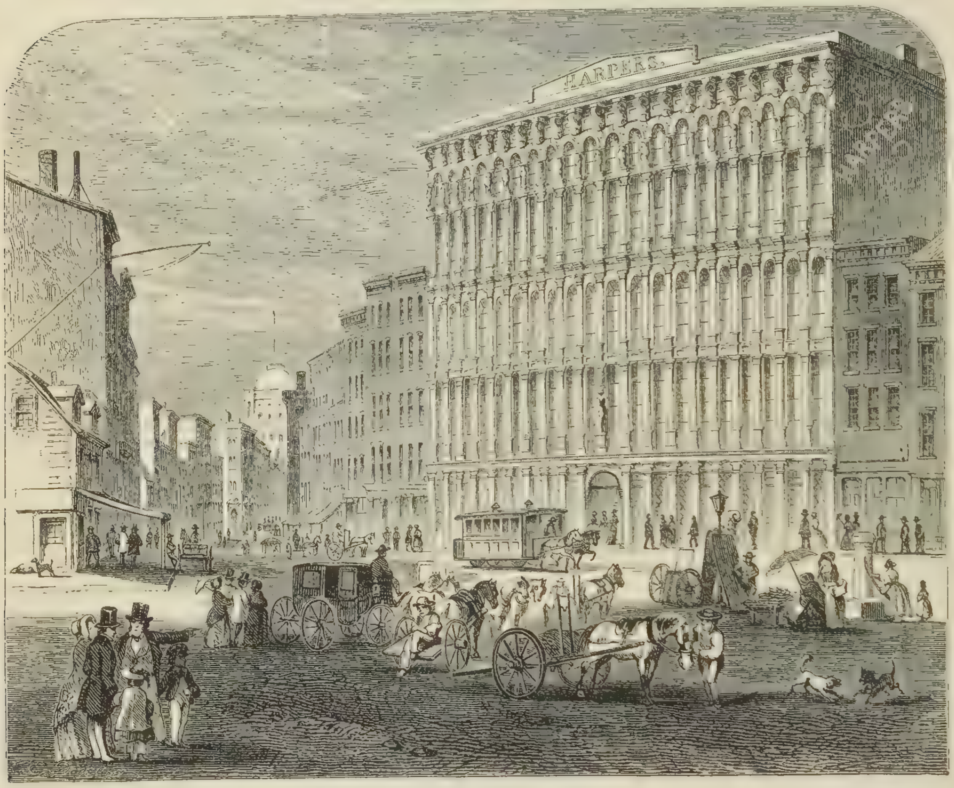
HARNETT'S HOUSE.

Harney, William Selby, was born in Louisiana in 1798. He entered the army while quite young; was in the Black Hawk War; and was made lieutenant-colonel of Dragoons in 1836. Ten years later he was colonel. He served in the Florida, or Seminole, War (which see), and in the war with Mexico. In 1848 he was breveted brigadier-general for his services in the battle of Cerro Gordo (which see). He was promoted to brigadier in 1858, and placed in command of the Department of Oregon; and in July, 1859, he took possession of the island of San Juan, near Vancouver, which was claimed to be a part of British Columbia. (See *Tribunal of Arbitration.*) Harney was recalled. He then commanded the Department of the West; and in April, 1861, while on his way to Washington, he was arrested by the insurgents at Harper's Ferry, Va., and taken to Richmond. He was soon released, and, on returning to St. Louis, issued proclamations warning the people of Missouri of the dangers of secession. In consequence of an injudicious arrangement made with Price, the Confederate leader, Harney was relieved of his command. He retired in August, 1863; was breveted major-general United States Army in March, 1865; and was a member of the Indian Commission in 1867.

Harper & Brothers, Publishing House of, was established in 1817, by James and John Harper, sons of a Long Island farmer. They had both been apprenticed to different persons in New York to learn the art of printing. When they had reached manhood they joined interests and began business for themselves by setting up a small book and job printing-office on Dover Street, in New York, not far from the great establishment of Harper & Brothers at the present time. It was an auspicious time for them, as with the return of prosperity after the War of 1812–15 there was a great demand for books. Evart A. Duyckinck was then a prosperous bookseller in New York, and he employed "J. & J. Harper" to print the first book that was issued from their press. In August, 1817, they delivered to him two thousand copies of a translation of Seneca's *Morals*, which they had "composed" and printed with their own hands. In the winter of 1818 they resolved to print a book on their own account. They first ascertained from leading booksellers how many copies each one would purchase from them in sheets. In April they issued five hundred copies of a reprint of Locke's *Essay on the Human Understanding*, with the imprint of J. & J. Harper. Joseph Wesley and Fletcher, two younger brothers, who had learned the printer's trade with James and John, became partners with the elder ones, the former in 1823 and the latter in 1826. Then was organized the firm of "Harper & Brothers," which continued forty-three years without interruption, when the senior partner of the house was suddenly separated from it by death. The brothers had established themselves in Cliff Street, and when the youngest entered the firm they were employing fifty persons and ten hand-presses. This was then the largest printing establishment in New York. At the end of nine years after J. & J. Harper began business they purchased the building on Cliff Street in which they were established. They began to stereotype their works in 1830, and led the way to the production of cheap books and the creation of a new army of readers. They continually enlarged their business, purchasing building after building on Cliff Street, and had erected a fine structure on Franklin Square, connecting with those on Cliff Street (altogether nine in number), when, at midday on Dec. 9, 1853, the whole establishment was laid in ashes, the fire occurring from an unfortunate mistake of a plumber at work in the building. Their total loss was very heavy, but very soon the present magnificent buildings arose out of the ruins. In 1776 James Rivington was considered the most extensive printer, publisher, and bookseller in this country. His establishment was at the foot of Wall Street, New York. It seldom had more than four hundred volumes on its shelves, with a fair assortment of stationery. In 1876 the bookselling business of Harper & Brothers occupied an immense building of iron on Franklin Square, five stories in height, with cellar and sub-cellar, and another on Cliff Street, in the rear of it, built of brick, six stories in height, with a basement. These buildings are connected by iron bridges at each story. The establishment is fully supplied with every kind of improved machinery for carrying on the publishing business, from the setting-up of type and stereotyping to the finishing the complete book for the reader. In 1876 they employed about five hundred persons, of whom one hundred and seventy were women. In 1850 they began the publication of *Harper's*

New Monthly Magazine, which has been the acknowledged leader in that department of literature. *Harper's Weekly*, an illustrated paper, was begun in January, 1857. *Harper's Bazar*, a beautifully illustrated repository of knowledge, of current fashions, and general literature, was commenced in November, 1867. To supply these periodicals with illustrations, they had in their art department in 1876 about thirty regular contributors of original matter and fifty engravers. Some idea of the extent of their publishing business may be conceived by the fact that the white paper used for their printing cost them, at that time, two thousand dollars a day. The four brothers—James, John, Joseph Wesley, and Fletcher—have passed from among the living, and the great establishment, constantly increasing in the bulk and prosperity of business, is conducted by their sons and grandsons. The four brothers were born at Newtown, L. I. James was born on the 13th of April, 1795, and died on the 27th of March, 1869. John was born on the 22d of January, 1797, and died on the 22d of April, 1875. Joseph Wesley was born on the 25th of December, 1801, and died February 14, 1870. Fletcher was born on the 31st of January, 1806, and died on the 29th of May, 1877.

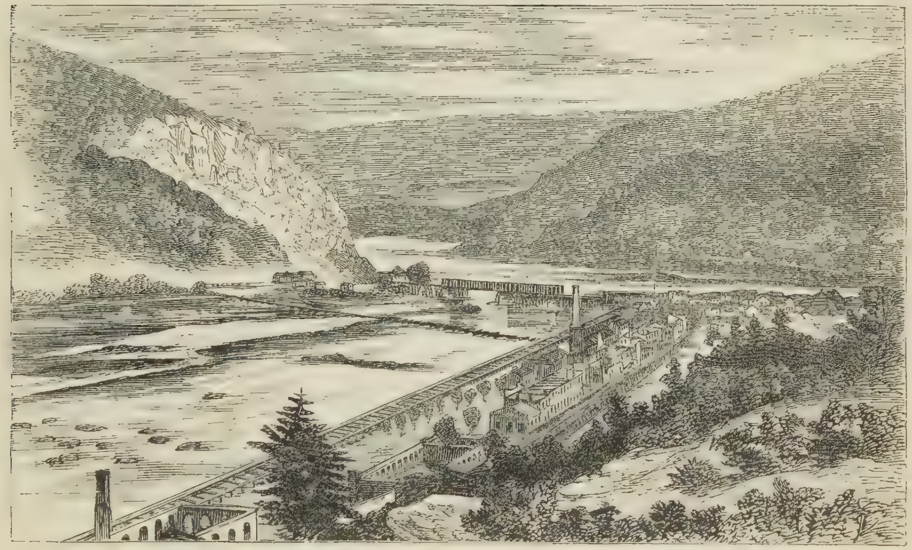
Harper's Ferry, Attempted Seizure of, by Virginia. Within twenty-four hours after the passage of the Ordinance of Secession by the Virginia Convention (April 17, 1861), the authorities of that state set forces in motion to seize the United States armory and arsenal at Harper's Ferry, a small village in Jefferson County, Va., at the confluence of the Potomac and Shenandoah rivers, where the conjoined streams pass through the Blue Ridge. It became an important point in the war that ensued. There, for many years, the national government had possessed an armory and arsenal, where 10,000 muskets were made every year, and where from 80,000 to 90,000 stand of arms were generally stored. When the secession movement began, at the close of 1860, measures were taken for the security of this post. A small body of United States dragoons, under the command of Lieutenant Roger Jones, was sent there as a precautionary measure. After the attack on Fort Sumter, rumors reached Harper's Ferry that the government property there would be speedily seized by the Virginians. The rumors were true. On the morning of April 18, the military commanders at Winchester and Charlestown received orders from Richmond to seize the armory and arsenal that night. They were further ordered to march into Maryland, where, it was expected, they would be joined by the minute-men of that state in an immediate attack on Washington. About 3000 men were ordered out, but only about 250 were at the designated rendezvous, four miles from the ferry, at the appointed hour



PUBLISHING HOUSE OF HARPER & BROTHERS.

—eight o'clock in the evening—but others were on the march. As a surprise was important, the little detachment moved on. It was composed of infantry and cavalry and some artillery, with one cannon. The cavalry, only about twenty strong, were commanded by a dashing officer—Captain Ashby. When the detachment was within a mile of the ferry, marching in silence and darkness, there was suddenly a flash and explosion in that direction. This was quickly repeated, and the mountain heights were soon illuminated by flames. Ashby dashed towards the town, and soon returned with a report that the armory and arsenal were on fire, and that the National troops had crossed the Potomac, and taken the mountain-road in the direction of Carlisle Barracks, in Pennsylvania. Lieutenant Jones had been secretly warned, twenty-four hours before, of the plan for seizing the post that night. There were indications all around him of impending troubles. Trains of powder were so prepared that, at a moment's warning, the powder in the magazine might be exploded, and the government buildings be set on fire. Word came to Jones, at near ten o'clock at night, that 2000 Virginians were within twenty minutes' march of him. The trains were fired, and the whole public property that was combustible was soon in ashes. Then Jones and his little garrison fled across the Potomac, and reached Hagerstown in the morning, and thence pushed on to Chambersburg and Carlisle Barracks, Penn. Jones was highly commended by his government. The insurgent forces immediately took possession of ruined Harper's Ferry, as a strategic point. Within a month full 8000 Virginians, Kentuckians, Alabamians, and South Carolinians were there, and menaced Washington.

Harper's Ferry, Surrender of. While Lee was in Maryland, in September, 1862 (see *Lee's Invasion of Maryland*), Harper's Ferry, where a large amount of stores had been gathered, was held by National troops, under Colonel D. H. Miles. When that post was threatened, Halleck instructed McClellan to succor the garrison, and on the day of the struggle at Turner's Gap (see *South Mountain*) he ordered Miles to hold out to the last extremity. Meanwhile Jackson, by quick movements, had crossed the Potomac at Williamsport, and at noon on Sept. 13 he was in the rear of Harper's Ferry. The Confederates were then in possession of Loudon Heights and also of Maryland Heights, which commanded Harper's Ferry. That post was completely invested on the 14th. Miles was told by McClellan to "hold on," and also informed how he might safely escape. But he appeared to pay no attention to instructions, and to make no effort at defence; and when, early on the 15th, no less than nine batteries opened upon the garrison, he displayed a white flag. Before it was seen by the Confederates, one of their shots had killed him. The post was surrendered, with all its troops, ordnance, ammunition, and stores. There were 11,583 men—half of them New-Yorkers—surrendered; and the spoils were, 73 cannons, 13,000 small-arms, 200 wagons, and a large quantity of tents and camp equipage. It was shown that Miles had disobeyed orders to take measures for the defence of the post, and he was strongly suspected of sympathy with the Confederate cause.



HARPER'S FERRY, LOOKING SOUTH.

Harriott, Thomas, a friend of Sir Walter Raleigh, was born at Oxford, England, in 1560; died in London, July 2, 1621. He was a skilful mathematician and astronomer, and taught the science of mathematics to Raleigh. In 1585 he accompanied Raleigh's expedition to Virginia, under Grenville (see *Grenville*), as historian, and most of the knowledge of that expedition is derived from Harriott's account. He was left there by Grenville, and remained a year making observations; and from the pencil of With, an artist, he obtained many useful drawings. Harriott labored hard to restrain the cupidity of his companions, who were more intent upon finding gold than tilling the soil. While Governor Lane declared that Virginia had "the goodliest soil under the cope of heaven," and "if Virginia had but horses and kine, and were inhabited by English, no realm in Christendom were comparable to it," he utterly neglected the great opportunity. (See *Lane*.) Harriott saw that the way to accomplish that object was to treat the Indians kindly, as friends and neighbors; and he tried to quench the fires of revenge which the cruelty of the English had kindled. The natives were curious and credulous. They regarded the English with awe. Their fire-arms, burning-glasses, clocks, watches, and books seemed to the savage mind like the work of the gods. As the colonists were never sick, and had no women with them, the natives thought that they were not born of woman, and were therefore immortal. Taking advantage of this feeling, Harriott displayed the Bible everywhere, and told them of its precious truths, and it was often pressed to their bosoms affectionately. When King Wingina (see *Lane*) fell ill, he sent for Harriott, and dismissing his juggling priest and "medicine-man," placed himself under the Englishman's care. He invoked the prayers of the English, and under the careful nursing of the historian the king speedily recovered. Many of his subjects resorted to Harriott when they fell sick. Had his example been followed, Virginia might soon have been "inhabited by English," and filled with "horses and kine." On his return to England, Harriott published a *Brief and True Report of the New Found Land of Virginia*. From the Earl of Northumberland he received a pension, and spent much of his time in the Tower with Raleigh and his wife. (See *Raleigh*.) Harriott was the inventor of the present improved method of algebraic calculation by introducing the signs > and <.

Harris, GEORGE, LORD, was born March 18, 1746; died at Belmont, Kent, England, May 19, 1829. He became captain in 1771, and came to America in 1775. He was in the skirmish at Lexington, and was wounded in the battle of Bunker's Hill. In the battles of Long Island, Harlem Plains, and White Plains, and in every battle in which General Howe, Sir Henry Clinton, and Earl Cornwallis, in the North, participated, until late in 1778, he was an actor. Then he went on an expedition to the West Indies; served under Byron off Grenada in 1779; also, afterwards, in India, and in 1798 was made governor of Madras, and placed at the head of the army against Tippoo Sultan, capturing Seringapatam, for which service he received public thanks and promotion. In 1812 he was raised to the peerage.

Harrison and Tecumtha. William Henry Harrison, governor of the Indiana Territory, suspicious of the movements of Tecumtha and his brother (which see), invited them to an interview at Vincennes. Though requested not to bring more than thirty followers, Tecumtha appeared with about four hundred warriors. The council was held in a field just outside the village. The governor, seated on a chair, was surrounded by several hundred of the unarmed people, and attended by judges of the territory, several officers of the army, and by Winnemack, a friendly Potawatomie chief, who had on this, as on other occasions, given Harrison notice of Tecumtha's hostile designs. A sergeant and twelve men from the fort were stationed under some trees on the border of the field, and the Indians, who sat in a semicircle on the ground, had left their rifles at their camp in the woods, but brought their tomahawks with them. Tecumtha, in an opening speech, declared the intention of the tribes, by a combination, not to countenance any more cessions of Indian lands, except by general consent. He contended that the Indians were one people, and the lands, belonging to the whole in common, could not be alienated by a part. This position was combated by Harrison, who asserted that the lands sold had been so disposed of by the occupants, and that the Shawnoese had no business to interfere. When these words were interpreted, Tecumtha, with violent gesticulations, declared the governor's statements were false, and that he and the United States had cheated and imposed upon the Indians. As he proceeded with increased violence, his warriors sprang to their feet, and began to brandish their tomahawks. Harrison started from his chair, and drew his sword, as did the officers around him. Winnemack cocked his loaded pistol, and the unarmed citizens caught up whatever missiles were at hand. The guard of soldiers came running up, and were about to fire upon the Indians, but were checked by the governor, who asked the interpreter what was the matter. On being informed, he denounced Tecumtha as a bad man; that, as he had come under promise of protection, he might depart in safety, but he must instantly leave the neighborhood. The council broke up, and Tecumtha retired to his camp. On the following morning, to allay all suspicion, he expressed regret for his conduct, and asked and obtained another interview, at which he disclaimed all hostile intentions against the white people, but gave the governor to understand that he should adhere to his determination to oppose all cessions of land thereafter. Chiefs of other tribes, who were with him, declared their intention to adhere to the new confederacy. Anxious to ascertain the real intentions of the Shawnoese chief, Harrison visited his camp, when Tecumtha told him that he should make war on the Americans with reluctance, and promised if the recent cessions were given up, and the principle adopted by the United States government of taking no more land from the Indians without the consent of all the tribes, he would be their friend and ally, for he knew the pretended friendship of the British was only selfishness. Yet, if the Americans persevered in their methods of getting the land of the Indians, he should be compelled to join that people in war against the people of the United States. Harrison promised to lay the matter before his government.

Harrison, BENJAMIN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Berkeley, on the James River, Va., in 1740; died there in April, 1791. He was a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1764, and soon became a leader among the patriots of the day. An attempt to bribe him to support the Stamp Act by offering him a seat in the Council excited his indignation, though he had opposed Henry's resolutions on the subject. He was a member of various associations and committees, and was a delegate to the first Colonial Congress, in 1774. In that body he was efficient as chairman of the Board of War. He advocated independence in 1776, and signed the great Declaration. He resigned his seat in 1777; again entered the House of Burgesses, and was chosen its speaker. This position he held until 1782, when he was elected governor of the state, and was twice re-elected. Governor Harrison did not like the National Constitution, and voted against it in convention.

Harrison, WILLIAM HENRY, ninth President of the United States, was born at Berkeley, Charles City Co., Va., Feb. 9, 1773; died at Washington, D. C., April 4, 1841. He was a son of Benjamin Harrison, governor of Virginia, and was educated at Hampden-Sidney College. He began preparations for the profession of medicine, but soon abandoned it for a military life. In 1791 Washington commissioned him an ensign. Made a lieutenant in 1792, he afterwards became an efficient aid to General Wayne, and with him went through the campaign in Ohio, in 1794. After the treaty of Greenville (1794), he was placed in command of Fort Washington, on the site of Cincinnati, and was promoted to captain. While on duty at North Bend, he was married to Anna, daughter of Judge Symmes, an extensive land-owner there. She survived him many years. In 1797 he was appointed Secretary of the Northwest Territory, and left the army. In 1799 he became a delegate to Congress, and was made the first governor of Indiana Territory in 1801. That office he held until 1813, and, as Superintendent of Indian Affairs, performed efficient service. In the course of his administration, he made thirteen important treaties with different tribes. Harrison, at the head of troops, gained a victory over the Indians (Nov. 7, 1811) at Tippecanoe (which see). He was in command of the Army of the Northwest in the second war for independence, in which position he was distinguished for prudence and bravery. Resigning his commission in 1814, he was employed in making treaties with the Indians for cessions of lands. From 1816 to 1819 he was member of Congress from Ohio, and was in the United States Senate from 1825 to 1828, having previously served a term in the Ohio Senate. In 1828 President Adams sent him as minister to the Republic of Colombia, South America, and on his return he made his residence at North Bend, O. In 1840 General Harrison was elected President of the United States, receiving 234 votes out of 294. Just one month after he entered upon his duties (March 4, 1841) he died at the national capital. President Harrison's remains lie in a vault upon an eminence overlooking the Ohio River, at North Bend.

HARRISON'S GRAVE.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

Harrison's Cabinet. Immediately after the delivery of his inaugural address, President Harrison nominated for cabinet ministers, Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, Secretary of State; Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, Secretary of the Treasury; John Bell, of Tennessee, Secretary of War; George E. Badger, of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; Francis Granger, of New York, Postmaster-general; and John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, Attorney-general.

Harrison's Invasion of Canada. The veteran Isaac Shelby, then governor of Kentucky, joined Harrison at Camp Seneca, with about four thousand mounted volunteers from his state. He had called for a certain number, and twice as many came as he asked for. They were gathered at Newport and Cincinnati. With Major John Adair and the late Senator J. J. Crittenden as his aids, Governor Shelby pressed forward towards Lake Erie. Colonel Richard M. Johnson's troop was among Shelby's men. Harrison was rejoiced to see them come. Perry had secured the coveted control of Lake Erie (see *Lake Erie, Battle of*), and thus reinforced and encouraged, Harrison moved immediately, and on the 15th and 16th of September, 1813, the whole Army of the Northwest—excepting some troops holding Fort Meigs and minor posts—were on the borders of the lake, at a point now called Port Clinton. General McArthur, who had succeeded Clay in command at Fort Meigs (which see), was ordered to embark artillery, provisions, and stores from that place, and on the 20th the embarkation of the army upon Perry's vessels began. The weather was delightful, and the whole army were in high spirits. They rendezvoused first at Put-in-bay Island, on the 24th, and the next day were upon the Middle Sister Island. The Kentuckians had left their horses on the peninsula between Sandusky Bay and Portage River, and were organized as infantry. In sixteen armed vessels and about one hundred boats the armament started from the Detroit River. On the way a stirring address by General Harrison was read to the troops, which concluded as follows: "The general entreats his brave troops to remember that they are sons of sires whose fame is immortal; that they are to fight for the rights of their insulted country, while their opponents combat for the unjust pretensions of a master. Kentuckians, remember the River Raisin! but remember it only while victory is suspended. The revenge of a soldier cannot be gratified upon a fallen enemy." Expecting to be attacked at their landing-place, the troops were debarked (Sept. 28), in perfect battle order, on Hartley's Point, nearly four miles below Amherstburg. No enemy was there. Proctor, who was in command at Fort Malden, taking counsel of prudence and fear, and in opposition to the earnest entreaties and indignant protests of his officers and Tecumtha, had fled northward with his army and all he could take with him, leaving Fort Malden, the navy buildings, and the storehouses smoking ruins. As the Americans approached the town, they met, instead of brave Britons and painted savages, a troop of modest women who came to implore mercy and protection. Their fears were removed by the kind-hearted leaders, and the Americans entered Amherstburg with the bands playing Yankee Doodle. The loyal inhabitants had fled with the army. The flotilla arrived at Detroit on the 29th, and the same day Colonel Johnson arrived there with his troop of cavalry. Harrison had encamped at Sandwich, and all started in pursuit. The enemy was overtaken at the Moravian Towns, on the Thames, and defeated in battle. (See *Thames, Battle of the.*) Detroit and all Michigan were recovered. All that Hull had lost was regained. Colonel Lewis Cass was left at Detroit, with a strong garrison, as military governor of the territory.

Harrison's Landing, ARMY AT. To this point General McClellan led his army after the battle on Malvern Hills, July 1, 1862. It is five or six miles below the mouth of the Appomattox River, on the right bank of the James, and was the birthplace of President Harrison. Its landing is one of the best on the James, and was made the chief depot of supplies of the Army of the Potomac while it lay there in the summer of 1862, and where it suffered great mortality from malarial fevers. There the commander-in-chief called for reinforcements, reporting, on the 3d of July, that he had "not over 50,000 men with their colors." The President, astounded, went to Harrison's Landing, and found the army greatly disheartened. He found the army 40,000 stronger than the commander had erroneously reported, but was unable to get a reply to his question, Where are the 75,000 men yet missing? It was found that 34,000 men, or more than three fifths of the army reported on the 3d, were absent on furloughs. The general soon afterwards reported 88,665 "present and fit for duty;" absent by authority, 34,472; absent without authority, 3778; sick, 16,619—making a total of 143,534. A week later the adjutant-general's office reported the total of the Army of the Potomac, exclusive of General Wool's command at Fortress Monroe, to be 158,314, of whom 101,691 were present and fit for duty. This great army remained there idle some weeks, suffering greatly from sickness, when it was called to the vicinity of Washington.

Harrison's Military Movements. Before the declaration of war against England (June, 1812) Kentucky and Ohio had made preparations for such an event. Early in May Governor Scott, of Kentucky, in obedience to instructions from the War Department, had organized ten regiments of volunteers, making an effective force of 5500 men; and Governor Meigs, of Ohio, promptly responded to the call for troops to accompany Hull to Detroit. (See *Canada, Invasion of.*) William Henry Harrison, then Governor of Indiana Territory, had already caused block-houses and stockades to be erected in various parts of his territory as defences against the Indians, and the militiamen were placed in a state of preparation for immediate action when called upon. Having been authorized by the national government to call upon Kentucky for any portion of its contingent of troops, he repaired to Frankfort, where he was honored with a public reception. He expressed his views freely concerning the imminent peril in which General Hull was placed, and suggested a series of military operations in the Northwest. The fall of Detroit and the massacre at Chicago (which see) caused the greatest excitement in Kentucky, and volunteers were offered by thousands. It was the general desire of the volunteers and militia of the West that Harrison should be their leader against the British and Indians. Governor Scott was requested by some of the leading men in Kentucky to appoint him commander-in-chief of the forces of that state, and he was commissioned Aug. 25, 1812. A corps of mounted volunteers was raised, and Major Richard M. Johnson became their leader. While Harrison was on his way northward from Cincinnati with his troops he received the commission of brigadier from the President of the United States, with instructions to take command of all the forces in the territories of Indiana and Illinois, and to co-operate with General Hull and with Governor Howard, of Missouri. These instructions were issued before the disaster to Hull was known. He hesitated to accept the commission because of the delicate relations in which it might place him with General Winchester, commander of the Army of the Northwest. He pressed forward to Piqua, and sent a detachment to relieve Fort Wayne (which see). At Piqua Harrison was joined by mounted volunteers under Johnson, when the army in the wilderness of Ohio numbered 2200 men. The Indian spies reported: "Kaintuckee is crossing as numerous as the trees." It was determined by a council of officers to strike the neighboring Indians with terror by a display of power. Harrison divided his army. One detachment of mounted dragoons, under Colonel Simrall, laid waste (Sept. 19, 1812) the Little Turtle's town on the Eel River, excepting the buildings erected by the United States for the now deceased chief on account of his friendship since the Treaty of Greenville in 1794 (which see). Another detachment, under Colonel S. Wells, was sent (Sept. 16) to destroy a Potawatomie town on the Elkhart River, sixty miles distant; while Colonel Payne, with another detachment, laid in ashes a Miami village in the forks of the Wabash, and several other towns lower down that stream, with their corn-fields and gardens. General Winchester arrived at Harrison's camp on Sept. 18, when the latter resigned his command to that superior in rank. The troops almost mutinied, for they revered Harrison. The latter returned to St. Mary to collect the mounted men from Kentucky, to march on towards Detroit. At Piqua he received a letter from the War Department assigning him to the command of the Northwestern Army, which, it was stated, would consist, "in addition to the regular troops and rangers in that quarter, of the volunteers and militia of Kentucky and Ohio, and three thousand from Virginia and Pennsylvania," making his whole force ten thousand men. He was instructed to provide for the defence of the frontiers, and "then to retake Detroit, with a view to the conquest of Canada." He was invested with very ample powers. "You will command such means as may be practicable," said the despatch from the War Department. "Exercise your own discretion, and act in all cases according to your own judgment." His soldiers rejoiced, and were ready and eager to follow wherever he might lead. He arranged with care an autumn campaign, which contemplated the seizure of the important position at the foot of the rapids of the Maumee, or Miami, and, possibly, the capture of Malden and Detroit, making his base of military operations the foot of the rapids. (See *Fort Meigs.*) There were nearly three thousand troops at St. Mary on the 1st of October. Fort Defiance, at the junction of the Maumee and Auglaize, was made a post of deposit for provisions, and a corps of observation was placed at Sandusky. The mounted Kentuckians were formed into a regiment, and Major Johnson was appointed its colonel; and these, with Ohio mounted men under Colonel Findlay, formed a brigade commanded by General E. W. Tupper, of Ohio, who had raised about one thousand men for the service. Harrison ordered the construction of a new fort near old Fort Defiance; but his operations were soon afterwards disturbed by antagonisms between Tupper and Winchester. The latter dismissed Tupper from his command and gave it to Allen, of the regulars, when the Ohio troops absolutely refused to serve under any but their old commander. It was really a conflict between regulars and volunteers, and the intended expedition against Detroit was postponed. Harrison was much annoyed, but prosecuted his plans with extraordinary vigor for a winter campaign.

SITE OF FORT DEFIANCE, IN 1860.

General Tupper had entered upon an independent expedition with 650 mounted volunteers, and endeavored to seize the post at the foot of the Maumee Rapids; but, after a bold attempt, he was repulsed by the British and Indians there. Some further attacks upon the barbarians succeeded, and smoothed the way for the final recovery of Michigan; but as winter came on the suffering of the troops was severe, especially of those under Winchester. The whole effective force then (December, 1812) in the Northwest did not exceed 6300, and a small artillery and cavalry force. Yet Harrison determined to press on to the rapids and beyond if possible. On Dec. 30 Winchester moved towards the rapids. Harrison, having heard of the presence of Tecumtha on the Wabash with a large force of Indians, recommended Winchester to abandon the movement; but the latter did not heed the advice. He reached the rapids, and was summoned to the River Raisin to defend the inhabitants at Frenchtown and its vicinity. Winchester pressed on, and there occurred a dreadful massacre of troops and citizens on Jan. 22, 1813. (See *Frenchtown.*) This event ended the campaign. With 1700 men General Harrison took post on the high right bank of the Maumee, at the foot of the rapids, and there established a fortified camp. (See *Fort Meigs.*) Nothing of importance occurred there during the winter. Troops were concentrated there, and in March (1813) Harrison sent a small force, under Captain Langham, to destroy the British vessels frozen in the Detroit River near Amherstburg (Fort Malden). The ice in the vicinity had broken up, and the expedition was fruitless. The attack on Fort Meigs by the British and Indians followed in May. The attack on Fort Stephenson (which see) followed, and the summer of 1813 was passed in completing arrangements for the invasion of Canada. This was done after Perry's victory on Lake Erie (which see). Harrison penetrated Canada from Fort Malden, and defeated Proctor on the Thames (which see). Soon after that Harrison, because of treatment received at the hands of the Secretary of War (Armstrong), resigned his commission and left the service.

Hart, JOHN, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Hopewell, N. J., in 1708; died there in 1780. He was a farmer, scantily educated, but a man of strong common-sense, patriotism, and moral excellence. He was in Congress from 1774 till 1777, and suffered much at the hands of the loyalists. He was compelled to flee from his home, and was hunted from place to place until the capture of the Hessians at Trenton. (See *Trenton, Battle of.*) He was called "honest John Hart."

Hartford Convention (1779). The alarming depreciation of the Continental paper-money produced great anxiety throughout the colonies, and on Oct. 20 a convention of delegates from five of the Eastern States was held at Hartford, Conn. They proposed a new regulation of prices, on the basis of twenty dollars in paper for one dollar in coin; and they advised a general convention at Philadelphia at the beginning of 1780, to adopt a scheme for all the colonies. Congress approved the suggestion of the convention, but urged the states to adopt the regulation at once, without waiting for a general convention.

Hartford Convention (1814). Because the Massachusetts militia had not been placed under General Dearborn's orders, the Secretary of State, in an official letter to Governor Strong, refused to pay the expenses of defending Massachusetts from the common foe. Similar action, for similar cause, had occurred in the case of Connecticut, and a clamor was instantly raised that New England was abandoned to the enemy by the national government. A joint committee of the Legislature of Massachusetts made a report on the state of public affairs, which contained a covert threat of independent action on the part of the people of that section, saying that, in the position in which that state stood, no choice was left it but submission to the British, which was not to be thought of, and the appropriation for her own defence of those revenues derived from the people which the national government had hitherto thought proper to expend elsewhere. The report recommended a convention of delegates from sympathizing states to consider the propriety of adopting "some mode of defence suited to the circumstances and exigencies of those states," and to consult upon a radical reform in the national Constitution. The administration minority denounced this movement as a preparation for a dissolution of the Union. The report was adopted by a large majority, and the Legislature addressed a circular letter to the governors of the other New England States inviting the appointment of delegates to meet in convention at an early day, to deliberate upon "means of security and defence" against dangers to which those states were subjected by the course of the war. They also proposed the consideration of some amendments to the Constitution on the subject of slave representation. The proposition was acceded to. Hartford, in Connecticut, was the place, and Thursday, Dec. 15, 1814, the time, designated for the assembling of the convention. On that day twenty-six delegates,* representing

---

* George Cabot, the president of the convention, was a descendant of one of the discoverers of the American continent of that name. He was a warm Whig during the Revolutionary struggle, and soon after the adoption of the national Constitution was chosen a senator in Congress by the Legislature of Massachusetts. He was a pure-hearted, lofty-minded citizen, a sound statesman, and a man beloved by all who knew him.

Nathan Dane was a lawyer of eminence, and was also a Whig in the days of the Revolution. He was a representative of Massachusetts in Congress during the Confederation, and was specially noticed for his services in procuring the insertion of a provision in the famous Ordinance of 1787 establishing territorial governments over the territories northwest of the Ohio which forever excluded slavery from those regions. He was universally esteemed for his wisdom and integrity.

William Prescott was a son of the distinguished Colonel Prescott, of the Revolution, who was conspicuous in the battle of Bunker's Hill. He was an able lawyer, first in Salem, and then in Boston. He served with distinction in both branches of the Massachusetts Legislature.

Harrison Gray Otis was a native of Boston, and member of the family of that name distinguished in the Revolution. He

Massachusetts, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Vermont, assembled at Hartford, then a town of four thousand inhabitants, and organized by the appointment of George Cabot, of Boston, as president of the body, and Theodore Dwight as secretary. The delegates were George Cabot, Nathan Dane, William Prescott, Harrison Gray Otis, Timothy Bigelow, Joshua Thomas, Samuel Sumner Wilde, Joseph Lyman, Stephen Longfellow, Jr., Daniel Waldo, Hodijah Baylies, and George Bliss, from Massachusetts; Chauncey Goodrich, John Treadwell, James Hillhouse, Zephaniah Swift, Nathaniel Smith, Calvin Goddard, and Roger Minot Sherman, from Connecticut; Daniel Lyman, Samuel Ward, Edward Manton, and Benjamin Hazard, from Rhode Island; Benjamin West and Mills Olcott, from New Hampshire; and William Hall, Jr., from Vermont. The sessions of the convention, held with closed doors, continued three weeks. Much alarm had been created at the seat of the United States government by the convention, especially because the Massachusetts Legislature, at about that time, appropriated $1,000,000 towards the support of ten thousand men to relieve the militia in service, and to be, like the militia, under the state's control. All sorts of wild rumors, suggesting treason, were set afloat, and the government sent Major Thomas S. Jesup with a regiment of soldiers to Hartford at the time of the opening of the convention, ostensibly to recruit for the regular army, but really to watch the movements of the supposed unpatriotic conclave. The convention, at the outset, proposed to consider the powers of the national executive in calling out the militia; the dividing of the United States into military districts, with an officer of the army in each, with discretionary power to call out the militia; the refusal of the executive to pay the militia of certain states, called on for their own defence, on the ground that they had not been put under the control of the national commander over the military district; and the failure of the government to pay the militia admitted to have been in the United States service; the proposition for a conscription; a bill before Congress for classifying and drafting the militia; the expenditure of the revenue of the nation in offensive operations on neighboring provinces; and the failure of the United States government to provide for the common defence, and the consequent necessity of separate states defending themselves. A committee, appointed Dec. 20, reported a "general project of such measures" as might be proper for the convention to adopt; and on the 24th it was agreed that it would be expedient for it to prepare a general statement of the unconstitutional attempts of the executive government of the United States to infringe upon the rights of the individual states in regard to the military, etc., and to recommend to the legislatures of the states the adoption of the most effectual and decisive measures to protect the militia and the states from the usurpations contained in those proceedings. Also to prepare a statement concerning the general subject of state defences, and a recommendation that an application be made to the national government for an arrangement with

---

was a lawyer by profession, and served the public in the Massachusetts Legislature and in the national Congress. He was an eloquent speaker, and as a public man, as well as a private citizen, he was very popular.

Timothy Bigelow was a lawyer, and for several years was speaker of the Massachusetts House of Representatives.

Joshua Thomas was judge of probate in Plymouth County, Mass., and was a man of unblemished reputation in public and private life.

Joseph Lyman was a lawyer, and for several years held the office of sheriff of his county.

George Bliss was an eminent lawyer, and distinguished for his learning, industry, and integrity. He was several times a member of the Massachusetts Legislature.

Daniel Waldo was a resident of Worcester, where he established himself in early life as a merchant. He was a state senator, but would seldom consent to an election to office.

Samuel Sumner Wilde was a lawyer, and was raised to a seat on the bench of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.

Hodijah Baylies was an officer in the Continental army, in which position he served with reputation. He was for many years judge of probate in the county in which he lived, and was distinguished for sound understanding, fine talents, and unimpeachable integrity.

Stephen Longfellow, Jr., was a lawyer of eminence in Portland, Me., where he stood at the head of his profession. He was a representative in Congress.

Chauncey Goodrich was an eminent lawyer, and for many years a member of the Legislature of Connecticut in each of its branches. He was also a member of each house of Congress and lieutenant-governor of Connecticut. His reputation was very exalted as a pure statesman and useful citizen.

John Treadwell was in public stations in Connecticut a greater part of his life, where he was a member of each legislative branch of the government, a long time a judge of the Court of Common Pleas, and both lieutenant-governor and governor of the state. He was a Whig in the Revolution, and a politician of the Washington school.

James Hillhouse was a man of eminent ability, and widely known. He was a lawyer of celebrity, served as a member of the Legislature of Connecticut, and was for more than twenty years either a senator or representative in Congress. He fought bravely for his country in the old war for independence, and was always active, energetic, and public spirited.

Zephaniah Swift was a distinguished lawyer. He served as speaker of the Connecticut Assembly, and was a member of Congress, a judge, and for a number of years chief-justice of the Supreme Court of Connecticut.

Nathaniel Smith was an extraordinary man. He was a lawyer by profession, and for many years was considered as one of the most distinguished members of his profession in Connecticut. He was a member of Congress, and a judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut. His whole life was marked by purity of morals and love of country.

Calvin Goddard was a native of Massachusetts, but studied and practised law in Connecticut, and became a distinguished citizen of that state. He rose to great eminence in his profession, and was in Congress four years. He was repeatedly elected a member of the General Assembly, and was appointed a judge of the Supreme Court of that state.

Roger Minot Sherman was another distinguished lawyer of Connecticut, and was for a long time connected with the government of that state. He was a man of the highest reputation as possessor of the qualities of a good citizen.

Daniel Lyman was a soldier of the Revolution, and rose to the rank of major in the Continental army. After the peace he settled as a lawyer in Rhode Island, where he became distinguished for talents and integrity. He was chief-justice of the Supreme Court of that state.

Samuel Ward was a son of Governor Ward, of Rhode Island, and at the age of eighteen years was a captain in the Continental army. He was with Arnold in his expedition to Quebec in 1775. At that city he was made a prisoner. Before the close of the war he rose to the rank of colonel. He was elected a member of the convention held at Annapolis, Md., in 1786, which was the inception of the convention which framed the national Constitution.

Benjamin Hazard was a native of Rhode Island, and a lawyer, in which profession he was eminent. He served for many years in the Legislature of his state.

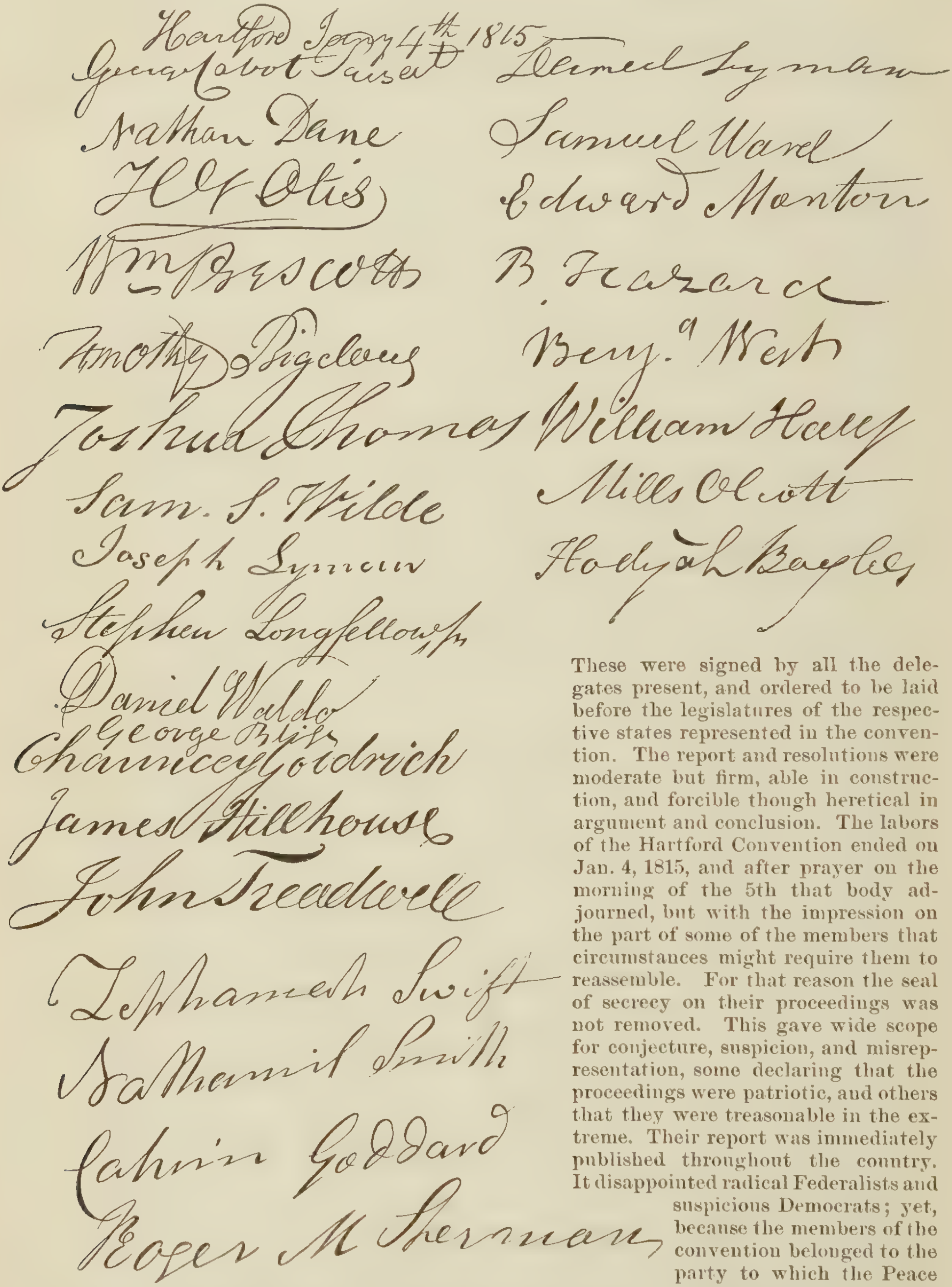
Edward Manton was a native of Rhode Island, and rarely mingled in the political discussions of his day. He was a man of sterling worth in every relation in life.

Benjamin West was a native of New Hampshire, and a lawyer by profession, in which he had a good reputation.

Mills Olcott was a native of New Hampshire, and a son of Chief-justice Olcott, of that state. He was a lawyer by profession.

William Hall, Jr., was a native of Vermont. His business was that of a merchant, and he was frequently a member of the state Legislature. He was universally esteemed and respected by all good men.

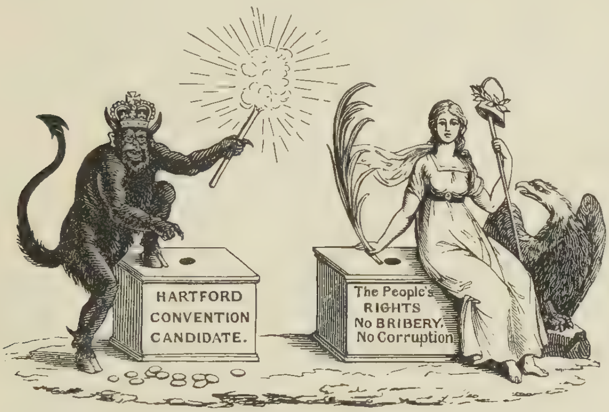
the states by which they would be allowed to retain a portion of the taxes levied by Congress, to be devoted to the expenses of self-defence, etc. They also proposed amendments to the Constitution to accomplish the restriction of the powers of Congress to declare and make war, admit new states into the Union, lay embargoes, limit the presidency to one term, and alterations concerning slave representation and taxation. The convention adopted a report and resolutions in accordance with the sentiments indicated by the scope of the deliberations.



Hartford Jany 4th 1815
Geo Cabot Presidt
Daniel Lyman
Nathan Dane
Samuel Ward
H G Otis
Edward Manton
Wm Prescott
B. Hazard
Timothy Bigelow
Benja West
Joshua Thomas
William Hall Jr
Sam. S. Wilde
Mills Olcott
Joseph Lyman
Hodijah Baylies
Stephen Longfellow jr
Daniel Waldo
George Bliss
Chauncey Goodrich
James Hillhouse
John Treadwell
Zephaniah Swift
Nathaniel Smith
Calvin Goddard
Roger M Sherman

FAC-SIMILE OF THE SIGNATURES TO THE REPORT OF THE HARTFORD CONVENTION.

These were signed by all the delegates present, and ordered to be laid before the legislatures of the respective states represented in the convention. The report and resolutions were moderate but firm, able in construction, and forcible though heretical in argument and conclusion. The labors of the Hartford Convention ended on Jan. 4, 1815, and after prayer on the morning of the 5th that body adjourned, but with the impression on the part of some of the members that circumstances might require them to reassemble. For that reason the seal of secrecy on their proceedings was not removed. This gave wide scope for conjecture, suspicion, and misrepresentation, some declaring that the proceedings were patriotic, and others that they were treasonable in the extreme. Their report was immediately published throughout the country. It disappointed radical Federalists and suspicious Democrats; yet, because the members of the convention belonged to the party to which the Peace Faction adhered, they incurred much odium, and for many years the term "Hartford Convention Federalists" conveyed much reproach. At the next election in Massachusetts the Administration, or Democratic, party issued a handbill with an engraving indicative of the character of the opposing parties—the Federal party by the devil, crowned, holding a flaming torch, and pointing to British coin on the ground; the Democratic party by a comely young woman representing Liberty, with an eagle beside her, holding in one hand the Phrygian bonnet on a staff, and in the other a palm-leaf. The above cut is a copy of the engraving on a reduced scale.



"HARTFORD CONVENTION CANDIDATE."

Hartley, David, was born in 1729; died at Bath, England, Dec. 19, 1813. Educated at Oxford, he became a member of Parliament, in which he was always distinguished by liberal views. He opposed the American War, and was appointed one of the British commissioners to treat for peace with Franklin at Paris. He was one of the first advocates in the House of Commons for the abolition of the slave-trade, and was an ingenious inventor.

Hartranft, John Frederick, was born in Montgomery County, Penn., Dec. 16, 1830, and graduated at Union College in 1853. He commanded a Pennsylvania regiment in Burnside's expedition to the coast of North Carolina early in 1862. He was in all the operations of that corps (the Ninth), and was made brigadier-general in May, 1864. At Antietam he led the famous charge that carried the lower bridge (see *Antietam, Battle of*), and was in command of the division of the Ninth Corps that gallantly recaptured Fort Steadman, before Petersburg, in March, 1865, for which he was breveted major-general. He was elected Governor of Pennsylvania in 1876.

Hartsuff, George L., was born at Tyre, N. Y., May 28, 1830; died in New York city, May 16, 1874. He graduated at West Point in 1852, serving in Texas and Florida. In 1856 he was assistant instructor in artillery and infantry tactics at West Point. He was made assistant adjutant-general, with the rank of captain, in March, 1861. He served at Fort Pickens from April till July, 1861, and then in western Virginia, under General Rosecrans. In April, 1862, he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded Abercrombie's brigade in the battles of Cedar Mountain, Manassas, and Antietam, receiving a severe wound in the latter engagement. In November he was promoted to major-general; and in the spring of 1863 was sent to Kentucky, where he commanded the Twenty-third Corps. He was in command of the works at Bermuda Hundred in the siege of Petersburg, 1864–65. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general in the United States Army.

Harvard College was the first of the higher seminaries of learning established in America. The General Court of Massachusetts had made some provisions towards educating a succession of learned ministers. They had established a school at Newtown, the name of which was changed to Cambridge, in honor of the university at which most of the Massachusetts ministers had been educated. John Harvard, a minister, who died soon after his arrival, endowed the school (1638) at Cambridge with his library and the gift of one half his estate, amounting to about $4000—a large sum at that time. The school was erected into a college, and named, in honor of its benefactor, Harvard College. Henry Dunster, a Hebrew scholar just arrived in the colony, was chosen its first president. A class began a collegiate course of study in 1638, and nine were graduated in 1642. Efforts were made to educate Indians for teachers, but only one was ever graduated. In 1642 the general management of the temporalities of the institution was intrusted to a board of trustees, and in 1650 the General Court granted it a charter, with the title, "President and Fellows of Harvard College." The profits of the ferry between Boston and Charlestown were given to the college; the town of Cambridge voted it several parcels of land, and the colonial and state Legislatures of Massachusetts made annual grants until 1814, when the practice ceased. The first honorary degree of Doctor of Divinity was given to Increase Mather in 1692, and a few years afterwards Harvard received the first of a series of munificent gifts from the Hollis family, including valuable books. Its library was destroyed by fire in 1766, and about six thousand volumes were lost, including those of the founder. The institution, which is now (1876) a university, has fifteen extensive buildings of brick and stone, from two to five stories in height. The number of instructors is 110, and the number of pupils in 1874–75 was nearly 1200. It contains a library of 200,000 volumes and a valuable museum, and is munificently endowed. From 1640 to 1876 it had twenty-three presidents. The founder, a native of England, died at Charlestown, Mass., Sept. 14, 1638.

Harvard College Circular. Even after the delusion of "Salem witchcraft" had become apparent to all sensible men, the Mathers determined to prove the reality of visible witches; and at the instance of Increase Mather, the president of Harvard College, a circular was sent out, signed by him and all the neighboring ministers, in the name of that institution (March 5, 1695), inviting reports of "apparitions, possessions, enchantments, and all extraordinary things, wherein the existence and agency of the invisible world is more sensibly demonstrated," to be used "as some fit assembly of ministers might direct." Cotton Mather afterwards lamented that in ten years scarce five returns were received to this circular.

Harvard, JOHN, founder of Harvard College, was born in Middlesex, Eng., in 1608; died at Charlestown, Mass., Sept. 14, 1638. He graduated at Emanuel College, Eng., in 1635. He emigrated to Massachusetts, where he was made a freeman in 1637, and in Charlestown he became a preacher of the Gospel. (See *Harvard College.*)

Hassler, FERDINAND RUDOLPH, was born at Aernen, Switzerland, Oct. 6, 1770; died in Philadelphia, Nov. 20, 1843. He was engaged in a trigonometrical survey of his native country, and was induced to come to America about the year 1807 by Albert Gallatin, then Secretary of the Navy. He was employed as professor of mathematics at West Point from 1807 to 1810, and in 1811 he was sent by our government to Europe as scientific ambassador to London and Paris, and to procure necessary implements and standards of measure for use in the projected Coast Survey (which see). He began that survey in July, 1816, and left it in April, 1818, but resumed it in 1832 and continued superintendent until his death, when he was succeeded by A. D. Bache. Professor Hassler made valuable contributions to the *American Philosophical Transactions* on the subject of the coast survey. In 1832 he made a valuable report to the United States Senate on weights and measures.

Hatch, JOHN PETER, was born in New York, and graduated at West Point in 1845. He served under General Scott in Mexico. In September, 1861, he was made a brigadier-general and assigned to a cavalry brigade under General King. He commanded the cavalry of the Fifth Corps in the campaign in the Shenandoah Valley in the early part of 1862. In July he took command of an infantry brigade, and in August that of King's division. He was wounded at Manassas, and at South Mountain. He also commanded forces on John's Island, near Charleston, S. C., in July, 1864, and commanded the coast division of the Department of the South from November, 1864, to February, 1865. He co-operated with Sherman while moving through the Carolinas. He was breveted brigadier-general United States Army.

Hatchee, BATTLE AT. After the repulse of the Confederates from Corinth (Oct. 4, 1862), Rosecrans gave his troops rest until next morning, when he ordered a vigorous pursuit of the fugitives. General McPherson, who had arrived with fresh troops, led in the chase, and followed the Confederates fifteen miles that day. Meanwhile, a division under General Hurlbut, which had been sent to attack the Confederate rear or intercept their retreat, had met the head of Van Dorn's column, near Pocahontas, on the morning of the 5th, and was driving it back across the Hatchee River, towards Corinth, when General Ord, who ranked Hurlbut, came up and took the command. A severe battle ensued near the waters of the Hatchee, where the Confederates lost two batteries and three hundred men. Ord fell, severely wounded. Hurlbut resumed command, but did not pursue, for his force was inferior. The greater portion of the National army followed the fugitives to Ripley, where the pursuit ended.

Hatcher's Run, BATTLE OF. On Sunday morning, Feb. 5, 1865, a strong flanking column of Nationals moved on the right of the lines of the Confederates at Petersburg, beyond Hatcher's Run, to strike the South-side railway. The entire National army in front of Petersburg had received marching orders to meet whatever might be developed by the movement. This flanking movement was led by Warren's and Humphrey's corps and Gregg's cavalry. The cavalry moved down the Jerusalem Plank-road to Reams's Station. The divisions of Ayres, Griffin, and Crawford, of Warren's corps, moved along another road, while portions of Humphrey's corps (Mott's and Smyth's divisions) moved along still another road, with instructions to fall upon the right of the Confederate works on Hatcher's Run, while Warren should move round to the flank and strike the rear of their adversaries. The cavalry had pushed on from Reams's Station to Dinwiddie Court-house, encountering Wade Hampton's horsemen, dismounted and intrenched. A division of Humphrey's corps carried the Confederate works on Hatcher's Run, making the passage of it safe for the Nationals. The latter cast up temporary earthworks, which were assailed in the afternoon, the Confederates pressing through a tangled swamp. They were repulsed. The Nationals lost about three hundred men; their antagonists a few more. Warren's corps took position on the left of Humphrey's during the night, and the cavalry was recalled. Two other corps were disposed so as to assist, if necessary. Towards noon (Feb. 6), Crawford, moving towards Dabney's Mills, met and fought the Confederates under Pegram. The latter were repulsed, but finally the Nationals were pushed back with heavy loss. Then the Confederates attacked Humphrey's corps, and were repulsed in disorder. The Nationals were rallied behind intrenchments and stood firm, and made a permanent extension of Grant's line to Hatcher's Run. The City Point railroad was extended to that stream. In the battle of Hatcher's Run the Nationals lost nearly 2000 men; the Confederates 1000. General Pegram was killed.

Hat-making. In 1662 the Legislature of Virginia offered a premium of ten pounds of tobacco (then the currency) for every good hat, of wool or fur, made in the colony. The business of hat-making rapidly increased in the colonies;

so rapidly that, in 1731, the felt-makers in London complained to the Parliament that the foreign markets were almost entirely supplied by hats made in America. They proposed to have the exportation of American hats to foreign markets prohibited; and in 1732 Parliament enacted that "no hats of felt, dyed or undyed, finished or unfinished, shall be put on board any vessel, in any place within any British plantation, nor be laden upon any horse or other carriage, with the intent to be exported from thence to any other plantation, or to any other place whatever, upon forfeiture thereof; and the offender shall likewise pay £500 for every such offence." This law remained in force until the Revolution, but it was constantly evaded, and the American establishments were able to supply the home demand during that war. It is now an important industry in the United States.

Hatteras, FORTS AT, CAPTURED. In the summer of 1861 the Confederates built two forts on Hatteras Island, off the coast of North Carolina, to guard the entrance to Hatteras Inlet, through which British blockade-runners had begun to carry supplies to the insurgents. General B. F. Butler, then in command at Fortress Monroe (which see), proposed the sending of a land and naval force against these forts. It was done. An expedition composed of eight transports and war-ships, under the command of Commodore Stringham, and bearing about 900 land-troops, under the command of General Butler, left Hampton Roads for Hatteras Inlet on the 20th of August. On the morning of the 28th the vessels of war opened their guns on the forts (Hatteras and Clark) and some of the troops were landed. The war-vessels of the expedition were the *Minnesota* (flag-ship), *Pawnee*, *Harriet Lane*, *Monticello*, *Wabash*, *Cumberland*, and *Susquehanna*. The condition of the surf made the landing difficult, and only about 300 men got on shore. The forts were under the command of the Confederate Major W. S. G. Andrews, and a small Confederate naval force, lying in Pamlico Sound, was in charge of Samuel Barron. An assault by both arms of the service began on the 28th and was kept up until the next day, when the forts were surrendered. Not one of the Nationals was injured; the Confederates lost 12 or 15 killed and 35 wounded. The number of troops surrendered, including officers, was 715, and with these 1000 stands of arms, 31 pieces of cannon, vessels with cotton and stores, and considerable gunpowder. The victorious expedition returned to Hampton Roads, when General Wool, who had succeeded General Butler in command there, issued a stirring order, announcing the victory. It was a severe blow to the Confederates, and led to important results. Colonel Hawkins, with a portion of his Ninth New York (Zouave) Regiment, was sent to garrison the forts at Hatteras and hold the island and inlet.

Haverhill, MASSACRE AT. After the attack upon Deerfield (which see), Hertel de Rouville, willing to lead his murderous and motley band in the work of murdering helpless women and children, ascended the St. Francis, and, passing the White Mountains, made their rendezvous at Winnipiseogee, where they expected to meet a party of Abenakes. Disappointed in this, they descended the Merrimac to Haverhill, a little cluster of thirty cottages and log cabins, in the centre of which was a new meeting-house. On the night of Aug. 29, 1708, when every family was slumbering, this band of invading savages rested near, and at daylight the next morning fell with fury upon the startled sleepers of the village. The midday sun shone on a charred village, strewn with murdered men, women, and children. Hearing of these cruelties, Colonel Peter Schuyler, of Albany, wrote to Vaudreuil, governor of Canada: "I hold it my duty towards God and my neighbors to prevent, if possible, these barbarous and heathen cruelties. My heart swells with indignation when I think that a war between Christian provinces, bound to the exactest laws of honor and generosity, which their noble ancestors have illustrated by brilliant examples, is degenerating into a savage and boundless butchery. These are not the methods for terminating the war. Would that all the world thought with me on this subject!"

Haviland, WILLIAM, born in Ireland in 1718; died Sept. 16, 1784. He served in the British army at Carthagena and Porto Bello, and was aid to General Blakeney in suppressing the rebellion of 1745. He was lieutenant-colonel under London in America (1757); served with Abercrombie at Ticonderoga (1758), and under Amherst (1759–60), entering Montreal with the latter officer in September, 1760. He was senior brigadier-general and second in command at the reduction of Martinique in 1762, and at the siege of Havana. He was made lieutenant-general in 1772, and general in 1783.

Havre de Grace, ATTACK ON (1813). Havre de Grace was a small village, two miles above the head of Chesapeake Bay, and near the mouth of the Susquehanna River, containing about sixty houses, mostly built of wood. It was on the post-road between Philadelphia and Baltimore, as it now is upon the railway between the two cities. On the night of May 2, 1813, Sir George Cockburn, commander of a British squadron engaged in marauding on the shores of Chesapeake Bay, approached the village, and at dawn on the morning of the 3d the inhabitants were awakened by the sound of arms. Fifteen or twenty barges, filled with armed men, were seen approaching, when a few lingering militia opened heavy guns upon them from a battery on an eminence called Point Comfort. These were answered by grape-shot from the British. The drums in the village beat to arms. The affrighted inhabitants, half dressed, rushed to the streets, the non-combatants flying in terror to places of safety. Very soon hissing Congreve rockets set buildings on fire in the town, and these were followed by more destructive bombshells. While panic and fire were raging, the British landed. All but eight or ten of the militia had fled from the village, and only two men (John O'Neil and Philip Albert) remained at the battery. These were captured, with the battery, when the guns of the latter were turned upon the town. The invaders were four hundred strong. They were divided into squads, and began the work of plundering and destroying systematically, officers and men equally interested in the business. When half the village had been destroyed, Cockburn went on shore, and was met on the common by several ladies who had taken refuge in a brick dwelling known as the "Pringle Mansion." They entreated him to spare the rest of the village, and especially the roof that sheltered them. He yielded, and called off the plunderers. Meanwhile a large British detachment had gone up the Susquehanna about six miles, to the head of tidewater, and destroyed an extensive iron and cannon foundery. A number of vessels there, which had escaped from the bay, were saved by being scuttled and sunk. After the lapse of four hours, when forty of the sixty houses in the village were destroyed, and nearly every other edifice injured, the marauders assembled in their vessels in the stream, and at sunset sailed out into the bay to pay a similar visit to villages on Sassafras River. (See *Cockburn in the Chesapeake.*) Havre de Grace was at least sixty thousand dollars poorer when the invaders left than when they came.

THE PRINGLE HOUSE.

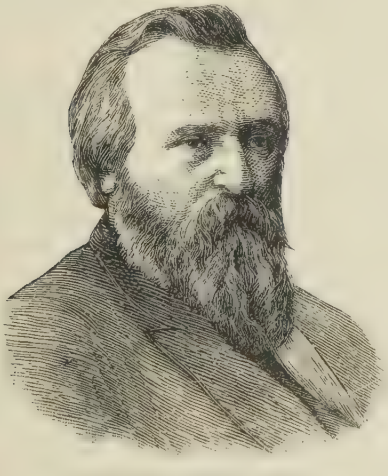
Hawk-eye State. This name is said to have been given to Iowa because an Indian chief of that name who ruled there was a terror to the *voyageurs* upon the Mississippi.

Hawley, Joseph, was born at Northampton, Mass., in 1724; died March 10, 1788. After his graduation at Yale College in 1742, he labored as a minister of the gospel with great reputation for a while, when he studied law, and in the practice of it rose to distinction rapidly. Early espousing the republican cause, he was regarded as one of its ablest advocates. He steadily refused a proffered seat in the governor's Council, but served in the Assembly from 1764 to 1776, where he was distinguished for his bold and manly eloquence. In that body he was indefatigable in his labors, and was a trusted leader with Samuel Adams, James Otis, and others. He was chairman of the committee of the First Provincial Congress of Massachusetts (October, 1774) to consider the state of the country. Mr. Hawley remained in public life until failing health compelled him to retire. Major Hawley became a violent opposer of Jonathan Edwards in his ecclesiastical views concerning the necessity of a higher and purer standard of admission to the communion-table, and was largely instrumental in the removal of that eminent metaphysician from Northampton. Convinced of his error, Hawley candidly admitted it, became the warm advocate of the views of Edwards, and, in 1760, wrote a letter deploring his part in the affair.

Hawley, Joseph Roswell, journalist, soldier, and statesman, was born in Richmond County, N. C., Oct. 31, 1826, and graduated at Hamilton College in 1847. He went to Connecticut at the age of eleven years, and began the practice of law at Hartford in 1850, connecting himself with the *Evening Press*, a republican journal, in 1857. He was a captain in the First Connecticut Regiment in the battle of Bull's Run. He was active under General Terry on the coasts of South Carolina and Florida in 1862. He was at the siege of Fort Pulaski, the battle of Pocotaligo, and sieges of Forts Wagner and Sumner; and he commanded a brigade under Seymour in the battle of Olustee, Fla. (which see). Afterwards he joined the Army of the James, under Terry, and participated in several battles during the campaign against Petersburg and Richmond in 1864. In September he was made brigadier-general, commanding Terry's division of the Tenth Corps, and became Terry's chief-of-staff in Virginia. He was breveted major-general in September, 1865, and in 1866–67 was governor of Connecticut. In March, 1872, General Hawley was elected President of the "Centennial Commission," and led the operations of the great Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia in 1876, from its inception to its close, with masterly skill. He was then a member of Congress, having been elected in 1874.

Hayes, Isaac Israel, explorer, was born in Chester County, Penn., March 5, 1832, and graduated an M.D. at the University of Pennsylvania in 1853. He was surgeon of the second Grinnell expedition to the Polar Seas, under Dr. Kane. Satisfied of the existence of an open Polar sea, he wrote and lectured on the subject on his return. He excited such interest in the subject that, with the aid of subscriptions in Europe and the United States, he was enabled to fit out the steamer *United States*, of 133 tons, in which he sailed from Boston, July 9, 1860, with thirteen other persons, for the Arctic regions. They anchored, after a perilous voyage, in Port Foulke, on the west coast of Greenland, in latitude 78° 17′, on Sept. 9, where they wintered. In April, 1861, with twelve men and fourteen dogs, he pushed northward over the ice in a boat; but finally the vessel was sent back, and Dr. Hayes, with three companions and two dog-sledges, pressed on to land in latitude 81° 37′, beyond which they discovered open water. The expedition returned to Boston in October. Dr. Hayes found his country in civil war, and he served in it as a surgeon. In 1867 he published an account of his expedition, under the title of *The Open Polar Sea;* and the Royal Geographical Society of London and the Geographical Society of Paris each presented to him a gold medal. In 1869 he sailed in the steamer *Panther*, in company with the artist William Bradford, and explored the southern coasts of Greenland. After his return he published *The Land of Desolation.*

Hayes, RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD, President of the United States, was born in Delaware, O., Oct. 4, 1822. He graduated at Kenyon College, O., in 1842, and at the Cambridge Law School in 1845. He practised law in Cincinnati until 1861, when he became, first the major, and then the colonel, of the Twenty-third Regiment Ohio Volunteers, first serving in western Virginia. He was wounded in the battle of South Mountain, Md.; and from December, 1862, to September, 1864, he commanded the First Brigade, Kanawha Division. He was appointed brigadier-general in October, 1864, for gallant conduct at Winchester, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek. On March 13, 1865, he was breveted major-general of volunteers. In 1865–68 he was a delegate in Congress, and was elected governor of Ohio in 1868. In the fall of 1876 General Hayes was elected President of the United States, receiving one more vote in the Electoral College than his Democratic opponent, Samuel J. Tilden.



RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES.

Hayne, ISAAC, was born in South Carolina in 1745; died in Charleston, S. C., Aug. 4, 1781. He was an extensive planter and owner of iron-works, a firm patriot, and was captain of artillery and state senator in 1780. He was made a prisoner at the capture of Charleston (which see), and returned to his home on parole. Early in 1781 he was ordered to take up arms as a British subject or go to Charleston a prisoner, his wife and children then being dangerously sick with small-pox. He went to Charleston, where he was required to bear arms in support of the royal government or suffer close confinement. On being assured that if he would sign a declaration of allegiance to the British crown he would not be required to bear arms against his countrymen, he did so, and hastened home to find his wife dying and one of his children dead. Finally he was summoned to take up arms against his people. This being in violation of his agreement, it dissolved all obligations, and he repaired to the American camp, received a commission as colonel, and was soon made a prisoner. Colonel Balfour, then the British commander in Charleston, hesitated about disposing of Hayne; but when Lord Rawdon arrived from Orangeburg, on his way to embark for England, pursuant to the spirit of Cornwallis's orders he directed Colonel Hayne to be hung. This was done without even the form of a trial. The prisoner did not anticipate such treatment until he was officially informed that he had not two days to live. The patriot's children, the women of Charleston, the lieutenant-governor of the province, all pleaded for his life, but in vain. The savage sentence was executed. After Balfour's death, Lord Rawdon meanly tried to fix the ignominy of the act upon that humane officer.

Hayne, ROBERT YOUNG, was born near Charleston, S. C., Nov. 10, 1791; died at Nashville, N. C., Sept. 24, 1839. He was admitted to the bar in 1812; and when his law tutor, Langdon Cheves, went to Congress he succeeded to his large practice. He rose rapidly, and in 1818 was Attorney-general of South Carolina. He was United States Senator from 1823 to 1832, and was distinguished as an orator. In the latter year he and Daniel Webster had their famous debate on the tariff, during which Hayne declared the right of a state to nullify acts of the general government. In a state convention he drew up the Ordinance of Nullification; and when, the next year, he was governor of South Carolina, he maintained that right, and prepared for armed resistance. Clay's compromise (which see) allayed the fierce dispute.

Hayne's Mission at Washington. On Jan. 11, 1861 (two days after the attack on the *Star of the West*) (which see), Governor Pickens sent two of his executive council to Major Anderson to demand the surrender of Fort Sumter to the authorities of South Carolina. Anderson refused to give it up, and referred the matter to the President of the United States; whereupon Pickens sent Isaac W. Hayne, the Attorney-general of the state, with Lieutenant Hall, of Auderson's command, to present the same demand to the national executive. Hayne bore a letter from Pickens, in which the latter declared to the President that the demand for surrender was suggested because of his "earnest desire to avoid the bloodshed which the attempt to retain possession of the fort would cause, and which would be unavailing to secure that possession." Hayne arrived in Washington Jan. 13, 1861, when ten of the disloyal senators still holding their seats advised him, in writing, not to present the letter of Pickens to the President until after the Southern Confederacy should be formed—a month later—and proposed to ask the President not to reinforce Fort Sumter meantime. Mr. Hayne offered, in writing, to refer the matter to the authorities of his state, if the President would make such a promise. This correspondence was laid before the President by some of the Senators. The executive replied, through Secretary Holt, that he could not give such a pledge without usurping the powers of Congress. When Pickens was informed of this state of the case, he directed Hayne to demand the surrender of Fort Sumter forthwith. He did so (Jan. 31), in a letter of considerable length. The President refused to receive Hayne excepting as a private citizen, and also refused compliance with the demands of South Carolina.

Haynes, John, was born at Copford Hall, Essex, England; died March 1, 1654. He accompanied Rev. Mr. Hooker to Boston in 1633, and in 1635 was chosen governor of Massachusetts. He was one of the best educated of the early settlers in New England, and possessed the qualities of an able statesman. He went to the valley of the Connecticut with Mr. Hooker in 1736; became one of the most prominent founders of the Connecticut colony; was chosen its first governor, in 1639; and served alternately with Edward Hopkins until 1654. Mr. Haynes was one of the five who drew up the written constitution of Connecticut, the first ever framed in America. (See *Connecticut, First Constitution of.*) He was a man of large estate, spotless purity of character, a friend of civil and religious liberty, and was always performing acts of benevolence. He probably did more for the true interests of Connecticut than any other of the earlier settlers.

Hays, Alexander, was born at Pittsburgh, Penn., in 1820; killed in battle in "The Wilderness," Va., May 5, 1864. He graduated at West Point in 1844; served in the war with Mexico; left the army in 1848; did good service as captain, colonel, and brigadier-general of volunteers in the Army of the Potomac from the beginning of the Civil War, distinguishing himself in the seven days' battle before Richmond in 1862, and at Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. At the time of his death he was leading a brigade in Hancock's corps. He was breveted major-general of volunteers.

Hayti. The native name of Santo Domingo (which see).

Hayti, Independence of. In 1803 France lost her hold on western Santo Domingo, known as Hayti. The negro forces were commanded by Christophe and Dessalines, rebels against Toussaint (which see). The French forces, under Rochambeau, about eight thousand in number, were driven into the town of Cape Français, and they were saved from total destruction only by flying to the ships of the British blockading squadron. On Nov. 27, 1803, the independence of Hayti was proclaimed. Upon Dessalines the negro and mulatto generals conferred the governor-generalship, and he presently proclaimed himself emperor. The French authorities, however, continued to hold possession of the eastern, or formerly Spanish, part of Santo Domingo for some time longer.

Hayward, Thomas, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in St. Luke's Parish, S. C., in 1746; died in March, 1809. He studied law in England, made a tour in Europe, and on his return became a warm defender of the rights of the colonies. He was a member of the First General Assembly of South Carolina after the flight of the royal governor. He was also a member of the Committee of Safety, and a delegate in Congress from 1775 to 1778, when he was appointed a judge. He was also in active military service in South Carolina, and in 1780 was wounded. Captured at the fall of Charleston, he was sent a prisoner to St. Augustine. He retired from public life in 1799.

Hazard, Ebenezer, was the first Postmaster-general under the Confederation (1782–89), and left the position when the new government was organized under the national Constitution. He was born in Philadelphia in 1745; died there, June 13, 1817. He graduated at Princeton in 1762. Mr. Hazard published *Historical Collections*, in two volumes, in 1792–94; also, *Remarks on a Report concerning Western Indians.*

Hazard, Samuel, was born in Philadelphia, May 26, 1784; died there, May 22, 1870. He was a son of Ebenezer. In early life he engaged in commerce, and made several voyages to the East Indies before he began a literary career. He was the author of *Register of Pennsylvania* (1828–36), in sixteen volumes; *United States Commercial and Statistical Register* (1839–42), in six volumes; *Annals of Pennsylvania*, from the discovery of the Delaware in 1609 to the year 1682, in one volume; and *Pennsylvania Archives* (1682–1790), in twelve volumes of about eight hundred pages each. These works are invaluable to historians.

Hazen, Moses, was born at Haverhill, Mass., in 1733; died at Troy, N. Y., Feb. 3, 1803. He served in the French and Indian War (which see). He was in the attack on Louisburg in 1758, and with Wolfe at Quebec in 1759, where he distinguished himself. He fought bravely at Sillery in 1760 and was made a lieutenant. A half-pay British officer, he was residing near St. John, Canada, when the Revolution broke out, and he furnished supplies to Montgomery's troops; he afterwards became an efficient officer in the Continental army. His property was destroyed by the British. In June, 1781, he was made a brigadier-general. He and his two brothers emigrated to Vermont after the war, and finally settled in Albany.

Hazen, WILLIAM BABCOCK, was born at West Hartford, Vt., Sept. 27, 1830. He graduated at West Point in 1855, when he was a resident of Ohio. He served against the Indians in California and Oregon (1856–57). Afterwards he was in Texas, and had several severe encounters; in one of these, hand-to-hand with Comanches, he was severely wounded. At the breaking-out of the Civil War he was assistant professor of tactics at West Point, and was made captain in May, 1861. Taking command of the Forty-first Regiment Ohio volunteers, he joined Buell at Louisville in December; and in January had command of a brigade, with which he took a conspicuous part in the battle of Shiloh. After that he was very active in Kentucky, Tennessee, and northern Mississippi and Alabama, and did excellent service in the battle at Stone River or Murfreesborough, in protecting the reforming army. He had been made brigadier-general in November. At Chickamauga and Missionaries' Ridge he was actively engaged, and he served through the Atlanta campaign. In Sherman's march to the sea he commanded a division, with which he captured Fort McAllister (December, 1864). He was engaged in the operations which ended in the surrender of Johnston's army in North Carolina. Hazen was breveted major-general United States Army in March, 1865.

Head, SIR FRANCIS BOND, Governor of Canada, was born in Kent County, Eng., Jan. 1, 1793. In 1825 he explored the gold and silver mines in the Argentine Republic, S. A. Late in 1835 he was appointed governor of Upper Canada, where his injudicious measures caused an insurrection, in which American sympathizers with the people became involved. He kept the outbreak in check until his resignation in March, 1838. The same year he was created a baronet. (See *Canadian Rebellion.*)

Headquarters of Washington. The following is a list of the localities of the principal headquarters of Washington during the old war for independence. Those marked with an asterisk were standing in 1876. Vassal House,* Cambridge (now the residence of H. W. Longfellow), 1775–76; at No. 180 Pearl Street and No. 1 Broadway,* New York city, 1776; also Morton House (afterwards Richmond Hill), at the junction of Varick and Charlton streets; Roger Morris's house,* Harlem Heights, New York Island, 1776; the Miller House,* near White Plains, Westchester Co., N. Y., 1776; Freeman's Tavern, Morristown, N. J., 1777–78; Ford Mansion,* Morristown, 1779–80; Schuyler House,* Pompton, N. J., 1777; the Ring House,* at Chad's Ford, on the Brandywine, and the Elmar House, Whitemarsh, 1777; the Potts House,* Valley Forge, 1777–78; the Brinkerhoff House, Fishkill, N. Y., 1778; at Fredericksburg (now in Putnam County, N. Y.); New Windsor-on-the-Hudson, 1779, 1780, and 1781; Hopper House,* Bergen Co., N. J., 1780; Birdsall House,* Peekskill-on-the-Hudson, 1780; De Windt House,* at Tappan, 1780; Moore's house, Yorktown, Va., 1781; Hasbrouck House,* Newburg-on-the-Hudson, 1782, 1783; Farm-house,* at Rocky Hill, N. J., near Princeton, 1783; Fraunce's Tavern,* corner of Broad and Pearl streets, New York city, where he parted with his officers, 1783.

Heath, WILLIAM, was born at Roxbury, Mass., March 2, 1737; died there, Jan. 24, 1814. He was bred a farmer; joined the "Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company," of Boston (which see), and was made its commander in 1770. He was also colonel of a Suffolk regiment; was a representative in the General Assembly; member of the committees of Correspondence and Safety; delegate to the Provincial Congress (1774–75), and was made a brigadier-general, early in 1776, in the Continental army. He rose to major-general in August following. He was very serviceable in organizing the undisciplined troops at Cambridge before the battle of Bunker's Hill, and went to New York with Washington in the spring of 1776. After the battle of White Plains (which see), he took post in the Hudson Highlands, and was stationed there in 1779. He had supervision of Burgoyne's captured troops, in 1777, at Cambridge. He went to Rhode Island on the arrival of the French forces in 1780. General Heath was state senator in 1791–92; was probate judge of Norfolk County in 1793, and declined the office of lieutenant-governor in 1806, to which he had been chosen.

Heckewelder, JOHN, Moravian missionary and writer, was born at Bedford, Eng., March 12, 1743; died at Bethlehem, Penn., Jan. 21, 1823. Becoming a preacher in his youth, he came to America (1754) and labored forty years among the Indians of Pennsylvania, studying carefully their language and producing a vocabulary. In 1762 he accompanied Christian Post on a mission to the Indians in Ohio; and in 1797 he was sent to superintend a mission on the Muskingum River.

MISS MARIA HECKEWELDER.

He settled at Bethlehem, Penn., after an adventurous career, and published (1819) a *History of the Manners and Customs of the Indian Nations who formerly inhabited Pennsylvania and the neighboring States.* His daughter, Johanna Maria, was born at the present village of Port Washington, on April 20, 1781, and was the first white child born within the present limits of Ohio. She lived a maiden at Bethlehem, Penn., until about 1870. In a diary kept by the younger pupils of the Bethlehem boarding-school, where Miss Heckewelder was educated, under date of Dec. 23, 1788 (the year when Marietta, O., was founded), occurs the following sentence: "Little Miss Maria Heckewelder's papa returned from Fort Pitt, which occasioned her and us great joy."

Heintzelman, SAMUEL P., was born in Pennsylvania, Sept. 30, 1805, and graduated at West Point in 1826. He served in the war with Mexico, organizing at Vera Cruz a battalion of recruits and convalescents, with whom he marched to the city of Mexico. After the war he commanded in the Southern District of California, and effectually suppressed Indian hostilities. Soon after the treachery of Twiggs (which see), he left Texas, and, at Washington, D. C., was made inspector-general there. In May he was made brigadier-general of volunteers, and commanded a division under McDowell in the battle of Bull's Run, where he was severely wounded. In the campaign on the Peninsula he commanded an army corps, having been made major-general of volunteers in May. General Heintzelman commanded the right wing of Pope's army in the battle of Manassas, or second battle of Bull's Run (which see), and afterwards took command of the defences of Washington. He retired in February, 1869, and was made major-general. He died May 1, 1880.

SAMUEL P. HEINTZELMAN.

Helena, BATTLE AT. There was a sharp struggle between the National and Confederate troops at Helena, Ark., on the west side of the Mississippi, on July 4, 1863. General B. M. Prentiss was in command there. The Confederates in that region were under the command of General Holmes, assisted by Generals Price, Marmaduke, Fagan, Parsons, McRae, and Walker, and were the remnants of shattered armies, about 8000 strong in effective men. The post at Helena was strongly fortified. It had a garrison of 3000 men, supported by the gunboat *Tyler.* Holmes was ignorant of the real strength of Prentiss, and made a bold attack upon the works. At three o'clock in the afternoon the Confederates were repulsed at all points, and withdrew with a loss, reported by Holmes, of twenty per cent. of the entire force — or 1636 men. Prentiss lost 250 men. The Confederate loss must have been much greater than Holmes reported, for Prentiss buried 300 of their dead left behind, and captured 1100 men.

Hendrick, a Mohawk chief, killed near Lake George, N. Y., Sept. 8, 1755. He was son of a Mohegan chief, and married Hunnis, a Mohawk maiden, daughter of a chief. He was a leading spirit in that nation, wise in council and eloquent in speech. He attended the Colonial Convention at Albany (which see) in 1754, and in 1755 joined General William Johnson with two hundred Mohawk warriors, at the head of Lake George. In company with Colonel Williams, he and his followers were ambushed at Rocky Brook, near Lake George, and he was slain.

HENDRICK.

Hennepin, LOUIS, a Récollet, or Franciscan, missionary and explorer. He was born at Ath, Belgium, about 1640, and died in Holland early in the eighteenth century. Entering the Franciscan Order, he made a tour through Germany and Italy, preached a while, had charge of a hospital, and was a regimental chaplain at the battle of Senef, between the Prince of Condé and William of Orange, in 1674. The next year he was ordered to Canada, and made the voyage with Bishop Laval and Robert Cavalier de la Salle (which see). After preaching in Quebec, he went to the Indian mission at Fort Frontenac, and visited the Mohawk country. In 1678 he accompanied La Salle to the Western wilds, with Chevalier de Tonti and the Sieur de la Motte.

Left by La Salle a little below the present site of Peoria to prosecute discoveries, he and two others penetrated to the Mississippi in a canoe, by way of the Illinois River, in February and March, 1680. They explored the Mississippi northward until, in April, they were captured by a party of Sioux and carried to their villages. Hennepin, at the beginning of the voyage, had invoked the aid of St. Anthony of Padua, and when he discovered the great rapids of the Upper Mississippi he gave them the name of Falls of St. Anthony. He claimed to have discovered the sources of the Mississippi, but never went above the Falls of St. Anthony, and there carved the arms of France on the forest trees. In July (1680) Hennepin and his companions were rescued from the Sioux by Graysolon du Luht (Duluth), and they were taken down to the Wisconsin River and made their way to Lake Michigan, and so on to Quebec. From the latter place Hennepin embarked for France, and there, in 1683, he published a full account of his explorations, which contains many exaggerations. Yet it is a work of much value, as it pictures the life and habits of the Indians of the Northwest. In 1697 he published his *New Discovery of a vast Country situated in America*, which contained his former work, with a description of a voyage down the Mississippi, largely copied from the narrative of Leclerc. This fraud was exposed by Dr. Sparks. Hennepin never went down the Mississippi below the mouth of the Wisconsin River, yet, in that work, he claimed to be the first who descended the great river to its mouth. He lost the favor of Louis XIV., and when he endeavored to return to Canada the king ordered his arrest on his arrival there. The time of his death is unknown. As late as 1701 he was in Rome, seeking to establish a mission on the Mississippi.

Henrico College. The London Company took the first steps for establishing schools in the English-American colonies. In 1698 the king, at their request, permitted contributions to be made in England for "building and planting a college at Henrico for the training-up of the children of the infidels," the Indians. Henrico was a settlement on the James River, below the site of Richmond, established by Governor Sir Thomas Dale, and so named in honor of Henry, Prince of Wales. The company appropriated ten thousand acres of land at Henrico as an endowment for the proposed college or university. Edwin Sandys took special interest in the undertaking, and wealthy and influential persons in England, as well as in the colony, made generous donations for it. In 1620 George Thorpe, a member of the Council for Virginia, was sent to take charge of the college land, and preparations were in progress for establishing the institution when the dreadful massacre by the Indians (1622) occurred. (See *Opechancanough.*) Mr. Thorpe and the minister at Henrico were victims, and a blight fell upon the enterprise. In 1621 Rev. Patrick Copeland, returning from the East Indies in the *Royal James*, one of the ships of the East India Company, commanded by Martin Pring (see *New England*), collected about three hundred and fifty dollars from members of that company on board for the purpose of establishing a church or a school in Virginia. The London Company determined to found a free school at Charles City, and call it the "East India School." Early in 1622 a carpenter, with apprentices, was sent over to construct a building for it, and provision was made for a school-master, when the massacre paralyzed all efforts in that direction. The university scheme was abandoned, but in 1625 efforts were made to establish the East India School, and this project also failed. No school for the education of the Indians in Virginia was established afterwards until Robert Boyle's benefactions towards the close of the century. (See *College of William and Mary.*)

Henry, JOHN, DISCLOSURES OF. An Irish adventurer, but a naturalized citizen of the United States, produced a temporary excitement in 1812 by "disclosures" concerning a plot for the destruction of the Union. According to his story, he purchased an estate in Vermont, near the Canada frontier, and there studied law for five years, and amused himself by writing articles against republican institutions, which he detested. These essays at length attracted the attention of the Governor of Canada (Sir J. H. Craig), who invited him to Montreal, from which he sent him on a mission to Boston early in 1809. That was the period of the Embargo, when violent opposition to the measure appeared in New England. It was thought that the United States might declare war against England, and Henry was instructed to ascertain whether rumors that in such an event the New England States would be disposed to separate from the rest of the Union had any solid foundation. He was to make diligent inquiries at the proper sources of information; and should any such disposition appear, and with it an inclination to form a connection with Great Britain, Henry was to intimate to the leaders that the British government might be communicated with through Governor Craig; and should the prospect seem promising, he was to exhibit these instructions as his credentials. Henry was given to understand that he would be well rewarded for his pains. He reached Boston March 9, 1809, where he remained three months, till the apparent settlement of affairs by Erskine's arrangement, when Henry was recalled by Craig. During that time he had written many encouraging letters to Craig's secretary. He spoke of the extreme discontent in New England, and expressed an opinion that, if war against England should be declared, the Legislature of Massachusetts would take the lead in setting up a separate northern confederation, which might result, perhaps, in some connection with Great Britain. He finally reported that a withdrawal from the Union was an unpopular idea there, but that there were leaders in favor of it. He did not mention any names. Henry went to England for his reward for his services, when he was treated coolly by the officers of the government, and, in a letter from Under-secretary Peel, he was referred to

Craig's successor in the Canadian government. Offended at this treatment, Henry did not go to Canada, but landed in Boston, accompanied by a Frenchman, who called himself Count de Crillon, but who was an impostor and swindler. Henry visited Governor Gerry, and from him obtained a letter of introduction to President Madison. He then went to Washington, and laid the whole matter before the President, who was so well satisfied of the great value of Henry's disclosures, at the moment when war was about to be declared against England — overwhelming proof of the secret designs of the British government to destroy the new Republic—that he gave Henry $50,000 out of the secret service fund in his possession for the entire correspondence of the parties to the affair in this country and in England. At Philadelphia, Henry wrote a letter to the President (Feb. 26, 1811) as a preface to his disclosures, and on the 9th of March he sailed for France in the United States schooner *Wasp*, where he would be safe from British vengeance. On the same day the documents were laid before Congress, with a message from the President, in which he charged that the British government had employed a secret agent in fomenting disaffection in the capital of Massachusetts to the constituted authorities of the nation, and "in intrigues with the disaffected for the purpose of bringing about resistance to the laws, and eventually, in concert with a British force, of destroying the Union and forming the eastern part thereof into a political connection with Great Britain." Both political parties endeavored to make political capital out of these "disclosures," but the excitement created soon died away. Mr. Foster, the British minister at Washington, declared publicly that he had no knowledge of the affair. Lord Holland called upon the British government (May 5) for an explanation, and gave notice that he should call for an investigation. Every pretext was brought to bear to defeat such a measure; and when it could no longer be resisted, the ministry cast the odium of the transaction, in which they had evidently been engaged, on Sir James Craig. Lord Holland declared that, until such investigation should be had, the fact that Great Britain had entered into a "dishonorable and atrocious intrigue against a friendly power would stand unrefuted." And so it stands to this day.

Henry, Joseph, LL.D., was born in Albany, N. Y., Dec. 17, 1797. He was a watchmaker for some years. In 1826 he was appointed Professor of Mathematics in the Albany Academy, and in 1827 he began a series of experiments in electricity. He fully developed the power of electro-magnetism, and perfected the electro-magnetic telegraph, endowing it with the power of intelligent communication, which Professor Morse achieved. So early as 1831 he transmitted signals through a wire more than a mile in length, an account of which was published in *Silliman's American Journal of Science.* He was called to the chair of Natural Philosophy in the College at Princeton, N. J.; and, going to England in 1837, he explained to Professor Wheatstone his method of ringing a church-bell one hundred miles away by an electro-magnet. On the organization of the Smithsonian Institute at Washington in 1846, Professor Henry was appointed its secretary, which position he filled with great ability until his death, May 13, 1878. He published many scientific papers.

Henry, Patrick, was born in Hanover County, Va., May 29, 1736; died June 6, 1799. He was of Scotch descent. His father was a native of Aberdeen, and liberally educated. Embarking in commercial pursuits at the age of fifteen years, he was unsuccessful. Marrying Miss Shelton, daughter of an innkeeper, at eighteen, he assisted, at times, in "keeping a hotel;" and finally, after six weeks' study, he took up the profession of the law. But want of business kept him very poor, and he was twenty-seven years old before his oratorical powers were discovered. Then, in a celebrated case tried in the court-house of Hanover County (see *Parsons's Case*), he made such a wonderful forensic speech that his fame as an orator was established. Henry became a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1765, wherein, that

PATRICK HENRY.

HANOVER COURT-HOUSE.

year, he introduced resolutions for their bold opposition to the Stamp Act (see *Henry's Resolutions*), and made a most remarkable speech. From that time he was regarded as a leader of the radical patriots of his colony. He was admitted to the bar of the highest court in Virginia in 1769, and in 1773 he was appointed one of the Virginia Committee of Correspondence. As a delegate to the First Continental Congress in 1774, he opened the business of that body by declaring the union of the provinces, and saying, "I am not a *Virginian*—I am an *American*." He was an eloquent leader in the famous Provincial Convention at Richmond (March, 1775), and, at the head of the militia of Hanover, compelled Governor Dunmore to restore powder he had removed from the colonial magazine at Williamsburg. For a short time Henry was in the military service, and was the first governor of the *State* of Virginia (1776–79). He was again elected governor after the war; and was a member of the state convention that ratified the national Constitution, he opposing it with all his strength because it menaced state supremacy. In 1794 Henry retired from the bar, and took up his abode at Red Hill, in Charlotte. Washington appointed him Secretary of State in 1795; but he declined the nomination, as he did that of envoy to France, offered by President Adams, and of governor, offered by the people. Henry was elected to the State Senate in 1799, but he never took his seat.

Henry VIII., Statute of. Early in January, 1768, an address to the king was voted by the House of Lords, in which they recommended the transmission of instructions to the governor of Massachusetts to obtain full information of all treasons, and to send the offenders to England to be tried under an unrepealed statute of Henry VIII., which provided for the punishment of treason committed out of the kingdom. Against this proposition Edmund Burke, in the House of Commons, thundered eloquent anathemas. "At the request of an exasperated governor," he said, "we are called upon to agree to an address advising the king to put in force against the Americans the Act of Henry VIII. And why? Because you cannot trust the juries of that country, sir! That word must convey horror to every feeling mind. If you have not a party among two millions of people, you must either change your plan of government or renounce the colonies forever." He denounced the measure as "cruel to the Americans and injurious to England."

Henry's Resolutions in the Virginia Assembly. When the news of the passage of the Stamp Act and kindred measures reached Virginia (May, 1765) the House of Burgesses was in session. The aristocratic leaders in that body hesitated, and the session was drawing near its close, when Patrick Henry, finding the older and more influential members disinclined to move in the matter, offered a series of resolutions, in which all the rights of British-born subjects were claimed for the Virginians; denied any authority, anywhere, excepting in the Provincial Assembly, to impose taxes upon them; and denounced the attempt to vest that authority elsewhere as inconsistent with the ancient constitution and subversive of liberty in Great Britain as well as in America. The aristocratic members were startled, and a hot debate ensued. Henry supported his resolutions with rare eloquence and boldness. Some rose from their seats, and others sat in breathless silence. At length, when alluding to tyrants, Henry exclaimed, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third—" At this moment there was a cry of "Treason! treason!" from different parts of the house. Henry paused a moment, and concluded his sentence by saying "may profit by these examples. If that be treason, make the most of it." The resolution passed in spite of the old leaders; but in Henry's absence, the next day, they were reconsidered and softened. But a manuscript copy had already been sent to Philadelphia, and they soon appeared in the newspapers, producing a wonderful effect. These resolutions were followed in Massachusetts by the recommendation of a committee of the General Assembly for a congress of delegates from the several colonies to meet in New York city in October following. (See *Stamp Act Congress.*)

Herkimer (or Herkheimer), Nicholas, was born about 1727; died Aug. 16, 1777, at his home at Danube, N. Y., from a wound received in the battle at Oriskany. He was the son of a palatine who settled in that region in the time of Queen Anne, and one of the original patentees of Burnet's Field (now in Herkimer County, N. Y.). Nicholas was made a lieutenant of Provincials in 1758, and was in command at Fort Herkimer during the attack of the French and Indians upon it that year. In 1775 he was appointed colonel of the First Battalion of Tryon County militia. He was also chairman of the County Committee of Safety; and in September, 1776, he was made brigadier-general by the Provincial Convention of New York. He commanded the Tryon County militia in the battle at Oriskany (Aug. 6, 1777), where he was severely wounded in the leg by a bullet, and he bled to death in consequence of defective surgery. On the 4th of October following the Continental Congress voted the erection of a monument to his memory of the value of $500, but it has never been erected. He was a stanch patriot and brave soldier.

Herron, Francis J., was born at Pittsburgh, Penn., and removed to Dubuque, Io., in 1856. He organized and commanded the "Governor's Grays," which he led in the battle of Wilson's Creek (which see); and in the battle of Pea Ridge (which see) he commanded the Ninth Iowa Regiment, which he had raised, and of which he was lieutenant-colonel. In July, 1862, he was promoted to brigadier-general, and distinguished himself in Arkansas. In November, 1862, he was made a major-general; and he took part in the capture of Vicksburg in 1863. He was with General Banks afterwards in his operations in Louisiana. After the war he practised law in New Orleans, and was made United States Marshal for Louisiana.

Heth, HENRY, was born in Virginia about 1825; graduated at West Point in 1847; left the service and joined the insurgents in April, 1861, and entered the service of Virginia as brigadier-general. He was made a Confederate major-general in May, 1863, and commanded a division of A. P. Hill's corps in Virginia. He fought at Gettysburg, and in the campaign in defence of Richmond (1864–65), and surrendered with Lee.

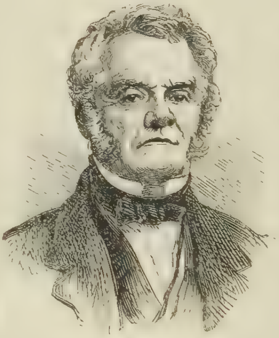
Hewes, JOSEPH, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Kingston, N. J., in 1730; died in Philadelphia, Nov. 10, 1779. His parents were Quakers, and he was educated at the College of New Jersey. He was engaged in business at Edenton, N. C., in 1760, and was a member of the Colonial Legislature in 1763. Mr. Hewes was a delegate in the First Continental Congress, and was on the Committee to "State the Rights of the Colonies." He was active in the most important committees of that body. At the head of the Naval Committee, he was, in effect, the first Secretary of the United States Navy. He declined a re-election in 1777, but resumed his seat in 1779, which he resigned in October on account of failing health.

Hiacoomes was the first Indian convert to Christianity in New England. When the first white settlers landed at Martha's Vineyard (1642), he was there, and he was converted under the preaching of Thomas Mayhew. He learned to read, and in 1645 he began to preach to his countrymen. An Indian church was formed there, and Hiacoomes was ordained pastor, and Tackanash was appointed teacher, by Eliot and Colton. Hiacoomes died about 1690, aged eighty years.

Hi-a-wat-ha, the reputed founder of the Iroquois Confederacy. Tradition tells us that he came from above, dwelt among the Onondagas, and caused the five related nations to form a confederacy for their mutual protection. (See *Iroquois Confederacy.*) The people called him Hiawatha, the "wise man." When they had assembled at the great conference on the border of the lake, Hiawatha appeared in a white canoe, with his young daughter; and as they walked up the bank, a sound like a rushing wind was heard in the air. Then a dark object, increasing in size every moment as it approached, appeared in the heavens. Fear seized the people, and they fled. Hiawatha stood firm. The object was an immense white heron, which fell upon and crushed the beautiful girl, at the same time being destroyed itself. The father was unhurt, and after grieving three days for the loss of his darling child, he reappeared at the council, and addressed the assembled nations. He told the Mohawks that they should be the first nation, because they were warlike and mighty, and should be called the "Great Tree;" the Oneidas were made the second nation, because they were wise in council, and received the name of the "Everlasting Stone;" the Onondagas were the third nation, because they were gifted in speech and mighty in war, and they were named the "Great Mountain;" the Cayugas were the fourth nation, for they were cunning hunters, and they received the name of the "Dark Forest;" and the Senecas were the fifth nation, for they dwelt in the open country, and were skilful in the cultivation of corn and beans and making cabins. To these he gave the name of "Open Country." These five nations formed a league like that of the Amphyctions of Greece, and became almost invulnerable. Hiawatha was regarded as the incarnation of wisdom, and was sent to earth by the Great Spirit to teach savages how to live better lives. The story of his life is fancifully told by Longfellow, in his *Song of Hiawatha.*

Hicks, ELIAS, was born at Hempstead, L. I., March 19, 1748; died at Jericho, L. I., Feb. 27, 1830. He was a very able preacher among Friends, or Quakers, and was a formally recognized minister at the age of twenty-seven. After preaching many years, he embraced Unitarian views, and boldly promulgated them. This produced a schism in the society, and a separation, the new lights receiving the name of "Hicksites," and the old church of "Orthodox." They have never fused. He preached with eloquence and vigor until a short time before his death, when he was about eighty-two years of age.

Hicks, THOMAS HOLLIDAY, governor of Maryland, was born in Dorchester County, Md., Sept. 2, 1798; died in Washington, D. C., Feb. 13, 1865. He was a farmer in early life, was often in the state Legislature, and was governor of the commonwealth from 1858 to 1862. He was elected to the United States Senate, in 1862, for the unexpired term of a deceased senator, and re-elected for the term ending in 1867. When the Civil War broke out, Governor Hicks stood firmly for the Union. He declared, in a proclamation after the attack on the Massachusetts regiment in Baltimore (April 19, 1861), that all his authority would be exercised in favor of the government. By his patriotism and firmness, Maryland was saved from attempting secession from the Union.


THOMAS HOLLIDAY HICKS.

Higginson and the Brownes at Salem. With the carefully selected company of pioneers in the founding of the colony of Massachusetts Bay, who landed at Naumkeag (afterwards named Salem), with John Endicott, in 1629, was Francis Higginson, an eminent non-conforming minister, acting as the pastor to the emigrants and as missionary to the heathen. It was late in June when the little company arrived at their destination, where "the corruptions of the English

Church were never to be planted," and Higginson served the people in spiritual matters faithfully until the next year, when he died. With the same company came two excellent brothers, John and Samuel Browne. Both were members of the Council, were reputed to be "sincere friends of the plantation," had been favorites of the company in England, and one of them, an experienced lawyer, had been a member of the Board of Assistants in London. They did not expect the new system in religious worship established by the austere Endicott, and they refused to unite with the public assembly. Resting upon their rights under the charter, they gathered a company in which the Book of Common Prayer was used in worship. This was a mortal offence. Should the hierarchy of England be allowed to thus intrude the forms of worship of the prelacy in the retreat of the Puritans? Not at all. Regarding the Brownes as spies in the camp, these excellent men, acting innocently in accordance with the dictates of their own consciences, were rudely seized like criminals (after their mode of worship was forbidden as a mutiny and they presented), and were sent back to England in the returning ships. So was the seed of Episcopacy first planted in Massachusetts, and so was its germ ruthlessly plucked.

Higginson, Francis, first minister at Salem, Mass., was born in England, in 1588; died in Salem, Mass., Aug. 6, 1630. He was an eloquent Puritan divine, and accepted an invitation to the new Puritan settlement at Salem, to which place he emigrated in the summer of 1629, and died of hectic fever the next year. His son John succeeded, became a leader, and so supported his mother in the maintenance of her six children. He became chaplain of the fort at Saybrook, was one of the "seven pillars" of the Church at Guilford, and became pastor of his father's church at Salem in 1660, where he continued until his death, in 1708, a period of about fifty years.

High Commission, Court of, an ecclesiastical tribunal created by Queen Elizabeth (1559), by which all spiritual jurisdiction was vested in the crown. It was designed as a check upon Puritan and Roman Catholic Separatists. Originally it had no power to fine or imprison, but under Charles I. and Archbishop Laud it assumed illegal powers, and became an instrument of persecution of the non-conformists of every kind. It was complained of to Parliament, and was abolished in 1641, at the beginning of the Civil War in England.

High Hills of Santee, The, are composed of elevated lands extending southward from the Kershaw line twenty-two miles parallel with the Wateree River. They have ever been noted for their salubrity and their mineral springs, and were made famous by the encampment of General Greene's army upon them in the summer of 1781. They are immense sand-hills, varying in width on the summit from one to five miles. The village of Statesburg is on these hills, and there was the residence of General Sumter.

Highland Defences Abandoned. Sir Henry Clinton took possession of Forts Clinton and Montgomery on Oct. 6, 1777, and sent a marauding expedition up the Hudson. (See *Kingston, Burning of.*) The news that reached the marauders of the surrender of Burgoyne made them flee in haste back to New York; and at the same time Clinton was ordered by General Howe, at Philadelphia, to abandon the Highland posts, and send to the Delaware a reinforcement of six thousand soldiers.

Hildreth, Richard, historian, was born at Deerfield, Mass., June 28, 1807; died in Florence, Italy, July 11, 1865. He graduated at Harvard College in 1829. He studied and practised law and wrote for newspapers and magazines until 1832, when he began to edit the *Boston Atlas*. In the course of many years, Mr. Hildreth wrote several books and pamphlets, chiefly on the subject of slavery, to which system he was opposed. He resided on a plantation in the South in 1834–35; in Washington, D. C., as correspondent of the *Atlas*, in 1837–38, when he resumed his editorial post on that paper; and resided in Demerara, British Guiana, from 1840 to 1843, when he edited, successively, two newspapers there. Mr. Hildreth's principal work was a *History of the United States*, in six volumes (1849–56). He was one of the editors of the *New York Tribune* for several years. In 1861, President Lincoln appointed him United States Consul at Trieste, but failing health compelled him to resign the position. He never returned to his native country.

Hill, Ambrose Powell, was born in Culpepper County, Va., in 1824; killed at Petersburg, Va., April 2, 1865. He graduated at West Point in 1847, entered the First Artillery, and served in the war with Mexico, and against the Seminoles in 1849–50; and, resigning in 1861, joined the insurgents, and was made colonel of Virginia volunteers. He soon rose to major-general in the Confederate army, and was one of its most efficient officers in the various encounters in 1862 and 1863, in Virginia and Maryland. He was one of the most efficient officers of Lee's army, in the defence of Petersburg and Richmond, in 1864–65. In the final struggle at Petersburg, he was instantly killed by a musket-shot.

Hill, Daniel Harvey, was born in South Carolina, in 1824. He graduated at West Point in 1842; entered the artillery; served in the war with Mexico, and was breveted captain and major; left the army in 1849, and became professor of mathematics — first in Washington College, Lexington, Va., and then in Davidson College, North Carolina. In 1859 he was principal of the Military Institute at Charlotte, N. C.; and when the Civil War broke out he joined the insurgents, becoming colonel of North Carolina volunteers. He took part in the defence of Richmond in 1862, and was active in the seven days' battle. He soon rose to the rank of major-general. He commanded the Department of the Appomattox, and in February, 1865, was in command at Augusta, Ga. He was a brother-in-law of "Stonewall" Jackson, and a skilful commander. He published two works on religious subjects.

Hillabee Towns, DESTRUCTION OF. There was an existing jealousy between the West Tennessee troops, under Generals Jackson and Coffee, and the East Tennessee troops, under Generals Cocke and White, both intent upon punishing the Creeks. After the battle of Talladega (which see), the Hillabee Creeks were disposed to peace, and offered to make terms with Jackson. He cordially responded, and preparations were made for the happy transaction. Meanwhile Generals Cocke and White, ignorant of this measure, came down upon the Hillabees, and spread destruction in their path. Ockfuskee and Genalga, two deserted villages—one of thirty and the other of ninety houses—were laid in ashes; and on the morning of Nov. 18, 1813, the troops appeared before the principal town. The inhabitants were unsuspicious of danger, and made no resistance; yet General White, for the purpose of inspiring terror in the minds of the Creek nation, fell furiously upon the non-resistants, and murdered no less than sixty warriors. Then, with two hundred and fifty widows and orphans as prisoners in his train, he returned to Fort Armstrong, a stronghold which the East Tennesseeans had built on the Coosa, in the present Cherokee County, Ala. The Hillabees, knowing no other American commander than Jackson, regarded this outrage as most foul perfidy on his part, and thenceforth they carried on the war with malignant fury.

Hillsborough, Lord, and Johnson of Connecticut. William Samuel Johnson, a strict Churchman and able jurist, was agent for the Colony of Connecticut in England. He was very desirous to avoid a rupture between the colonies and the mother country, but he was faithful to the interests and rights of his colony. He called on the Earl of Hillsborough, to congratulate him on his elevation to the newly created office of Secretary of State for the Colonies, and told the earl that he might count on his friendship and affection, for Connecticut was a "loyal colony." Hillsborough, rather curtly, complained that Connecticut had very little correspondence with the home government, and that repeated requests for copies of the laws of the colony had been disregarded. "The colony has several times sent over a copy of the printed law-book," answered Johnson. "It is the duty of your colony," said the earl, "to transmit from time to time not only the laws that pass, but all the minutes of the proceedings of the Council and Assembly, that we may know what you are about, and rectify whatever is amiss." "If your lordship means," answered Johnson, "to have the laws of our colony transmitted for the inspection of the ministry, as such, and for the purpose of approbation or disapprobation by his majesty in council, it is what the colony has never done, and, I am persuaded, will never submit to. By the charter which King Charles II. granted, the colony was invested with a power of legislation not subject to revision." "There are such things as extravagant grants, which are, therefore, void," said Hillsborough. "You will admit there are many things which the king cannot grant, as the inseparable incidents of the crown," Johnson answered. "Nobody has ever reckoned the power of legislation among the inseparable incidents of the crown;" and he presented logical arguments in favor of the colony. For two hours they discussed the subject of the rights of Connecticut, and Hillsborough showed that there was a disposition on the part of the ministry to declare the charter of Connecticut, as well as those of the other colonies, void; not because of any pretence that the charter had been violated, but because the people, by the enjoyment of it, were too free. "You are in danger of being too much a separate, independent state," said Hillsborough, "and of having too little subordination to this country."

Hillsborough's Instructions. When the Massachusetts Circular Letter (which see) reached the ministers, they were highly offended, and Lord Hillsborough, Secretary of State for the Colonies, instructed the governor of Massachusetts to require the Assembly to rescind that circular, and in case of refusal to dissolve them. Instructions were also sent to all the other colonial governors to take measures to prevent the respective Assemblies from paying any attention to the circular. This excited hot indignation in the Assemblies and among the people. It was regarded as a direct attempt to abridge or absolutely control public discussion in the colonies. They resented the act in strong but decorous language; and that order was more potential in crystallizing the colonies into a permanent union than any event in their past history. The colonial Assemblies everywhere took decided action. The Massachusetts Assembly refused to rescind. (See *Circular Letter*.) New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut warmly commended the action of Massachusetts. The New York Assembly adopted the circular, and declared the right of the colonists to correspond, through their representatives, on subjects of public importance. The Legislature of Pennsylvania treated the order with decorous scorn, and a meeting of the people urged, by resolution, a cordial union of all the colonies in resistance to oppression. The Assembly of Delaware, also, took bold ground in the matter. When Governor Sharpe made an arrogant demand in the matter of the Assembly of Maryland, in laying the obnoxious order before them, that body assured him that they should not treat a letter "so replete with just principles of liberty" with indifference, and added, "We shall not be intimidated by a few sounding expressions from doing what we think is right;" and they thanked the Massachusetts Assembly. Virginia not only approved the circular, but sent one of her own to the colonial Assemblies, inviting their concurrence with it. North Carolina rejected the order and approved the circular. A committee of the South Carolina Legislature declared, by resolutions, that the circulars of both Massachusetts and Virginia were replete with duty to the king, respect for Parliament, attachment to

Great Britain, and "founded upon undeniable constitutional principles." The resolutions were adopted by the Assembly, and the royal governor dissolved them. Then the citizens of Charleston paraded the streets by torch-light, garlanded an effigy of the Goddess of Liberty with flowers and evergreens, and crowned it with laurel and palmetto leaves. They also burned the seventeen Massachusetts "Rescinders" in effigy. The Georgia Assembly approved the Circular, and were dissolved by Governor Wright.

Hindman, Thomas C., was born in Tennessee, in 1818; died at Helena, Ark., Sept. 27, 1868. He served in the War with Mexico; was member of Congress from 1859 to 1861, and of the Charleston Convention in 1860 (which see). He became a brigadier-general in the Confederate army, and was the chief leader of Confederate troops in Arkansas. After the battle of Shiloh (which see), in which he participated, he was made a major-general. He was in command of a division in Polk's corps at Chickamauga. After the fall of the Confederacy, he went to Mexico, and returned to Helena in the spring of 1867, where he was murdered by one of his former soldiers.

Hinman, Elisha, was born at Stonington, Conn., March 9, 1734; died there, Aug. 29, 1807. He went to sea at the age of fourteen years, and was a captain at nineteen, sailing to Europe and the Indies. He entered the navy of the Revolution, under Hopkins, in 1776, and was one of the first captains appointed by Congress. He was a very active officer. Captured when in command of the *Alfred*, 32 guns, he was taken to England, whence he escaped to France, and cruised successfully after his return, in 1779–80. President Adams offered him the command of the *Constitution* in 1798, but on account of his age he declined. From that time until 1802 he was engaged in the revenue service.

Hobkirk's Hill, Battle of (1781). When Greene heard of the retreat of Cornwallis, he pursued him as far as the Deep River, when he turned back and moved southward towards Camden to strike a blow for the recovery of South Carolina. Lord Rawdon, one of Cornwallis's best officers, was in command at Camden. On the 19th of April Greene encamped at Hobkirk's Hill, only about a mile from Rawdon's intrenchments, where, six days afterwards, he was surprised by the British and defeated, after a sharp battle of several hours. Greene's force was too weak to assail Rawdon's intrenchments with any prospect of success, and he encamped on a wooded eminence and awaited reinforcements under Sumter. On the night of the 24th a drummer deserted to the British and informed Rawdon of Greene's weakness and his expectation of strength. As his provisions were almost exhausted, Rawdon saw no chance for success in battle unless he should strike immediately, so he prepared to fall upon Greene early on the morning of the 25th. Unsuspicious of danger, Greene's army were unprepared for an attack. The cavalry horses were unsaddled, some of the soldiers were washing their clothes, and Greene and his staff were at a spring on a slope of Hobkirk's Hill taking breakfast. Rawdon had gained the left flank of the Americans by marching stealthily along the margin of a swamp. Partially surprised, Greene quickly formed his army in battle-line. His cavalry were soon mounted. The Virginia brigade, under General Huger, with Lieutenant-colonels Campbell and Hawes, formed the right; the Maryland brigade, with Delaware troops under Kirkwood, led by Colonel Otho H. Williams, with Colonel Gunby and Lieutenant-colonels Ford and Howe, occupied the left; and the artillery, under Colonel Harrison, were in the centre; North Carolina militia were held in reserve; and in this position Greene was prepared to receive the oncoming Rawdon, whose forces ascended the slope with a narrow front. The regiments of Ford and Campbell endeavored to turn their flank, while Gunby's Marylanders assailed the front with bayonets without firing. The battle was thus opened with great vigor, Greene commanding the Virginians in person. At the moment when the Americans felt sure of victory, Captain Beatty, commanding a company of Gunby's veterans, was killed, and his followers gave way. An unfortunate order was given for the whole regiment to retire, when the British broke through the American centre, pushed up to the brow of the hill, and forced Greene to retreat. Meanwhile Washington had fallen on the British rear and captured about two hundred soldiers, whose officers he quickly paroled, and in the retreat carried away fifty of the captives. The Americans were chased a short distance, when Washington turned upon the pursuers, made a gallant charge, and checked them. By this movement Greene was enabled to save all his artillery and baggage. He rallied his men, crossed the Wateree above Camden, and rested in a strong position before moving on Fort Ninety-six. The loss of each army in the battle was about the same—less than two hundred and seventy. This defeat disconcerted Greene at first, but his genius triumphed.

VIEW AT THE SPRING; HOBKIRK'S HILL.

Hoboken, MASSACRE AT. The river Indians, or those dwelling on the borders of the Hudson, were tributary to the powerful Mohawks. In the midwinter of 1643, a large party of the latter came down to collect by force of arms tribute which had not been paid. The River Indians —five hundred in number—fled before the invaders, and took refuge, with their wives and children, among the Hackensacks at Hoboken, opposite Manhattan Island, where they asked the protection of the Dutch. At the same time many of the tribe in lower Westchester fled to Manhattan and took refuge with the Hollanders. The humane De Vries, who had a settlement on Staten Island, proposed to Governor Kieft to make this an occasion for establishing a permanent peace with the Indians, whose anger his cruelties had fearfully aroused. But the "man of blood" refused; and it was made the occasion of spilling more innocent blood. On a cold night in February, 1643, the fugitives at Hoboken, and those on Manhattan, slumbering in fancied security, were attacked by order of Kieft, without the shadow of an excuse, by armed Hollanders sent by the governor to murder them. Eighty of these Dutchmen were sent across the Hudson stealthily, among floating ice, and fell suddenly upon the stricken families at Hoboken. They spared neither age nor sex. "Warrior and squaw, sachem and child, mother and babe, were alike massacred," says Brodhead. "Daybreak scarcely ended the furious slaughter. Mangled victims, seeking safety in the thickets, were driven into the river; and parents, rushing to save their children, whom the soldiers had thrown into the stream, were driven back into the water, and drowned before the eyes of their unrelenting murderers." About one hundred of the dusky people perished there, and forty of those on Manhattan. The river and the surrounding country were lighted with the blaze of burning wigwams; and by that horrid illumination De Vries witnessed the butchery from the ramparts of Fort Amsterdam. He told the cowardly governor, who remained within the walls of the fortress, that he had begun the ruin of the colony. The governor sneered at the clemency of De Vries; and when the soldiers returned to the fort the next morning, with thirty prisoners and heads of several of the slain Indians of both sexes, he shook their bloody hands with delight, praised them for their bravery, and made each of them a present. Then De Vries uttered his prophecy. (See *Kieft.*)

Hochelaga, the capital of the Huron king, on the site of Montreal, Canada. It contained fifty houses when Europeans first visited it. Each house was about one hundred and fifty feet long and forty wide, covered over with the broad bark of trees, finely cut and joined like boards, and divided into many rooms. Above were garrets, in which the Indians kept their corn. The town was circular in form, stockaded, and environed by three courses of ramparts made of timber, and about thirty feet in height. It had one sally-port, which was closed with heavy timbers, stakes, and bars. On the ramparts were magazines of stones for the defence of the town. It was to this capital that Cartier ascended in October, 1535. He and his companions landed at the foot of the rapids below Montreal, and with great pomp marched to the residence of the king at the town—a village of about fifty huts, surrounded with a triple row of palisades, in the midst of extensive cornfields. The mountain which was back of the village Cartier named Mont Real (Royal Mountain), the name given to the great city which now lies there. Women and maidens brought armfuls of children to see the white men. The king, Azouhanna, helpless from palsy, was brought to Cartier on a deer-skin, and he prayed that the white chief might cure him of his malady. Many others came for the same purpose, but Cartier could only pray for their recovery. (See *Cartier.*)

Hoe, RICHARD MARCH, was born in New York city, Sept. 12, 1812. His father, Robert Hoe, was a most ingenious mechanic, born in Leicestershire, England, in 1784, and died in Westchester County, N. Y., Jan. 4, 1833. He was a builder, and arrived in New York in 1803, when he relinquished his trade and began the manufacture of printing-materials and of a hand-press invented by his brother-in-law, Peter Smith. Making great improvements in printing-presses, his business increased, but, his health failing, in 1832 his eldest son, Richard, took charge of the business, with two partners. Meanwhile Richard had made material improvements in the manufacture of saws, and the production of these implements became an important part of their business. In 1837 Richard went to England to obtain a patent for an improved method of grinding saws. His observation of printing-presses in use there enabled him to make very great improvements in printing-machines. He patented his "Lightning Press," so called because of the rapidity of its motions, in 1847. For many years Richard has carried on the manufacture of printing, hydraulic, and other presses, with his two brothers, Robert and Peter, the senior partner adding from time to time, by his inventive genius, great improvements, especially in the construction of power-presses, for rapid

RICHARD MARCH HOE.

and excellent printing. The "Perfecting Press" manufactured by the Hoes is capable of throwing off about fifteen thousand newspapers, printed on both sides, in one hour. (See *Printing*.) Their main establishment in New York covers more than an entire square, and they employ nearly one thousand persons. Educational forces have been greatly increased by the inventions of Richard M. Hoe, who may be ranked among the foremost of public benefactors.

Holland. The United Provinces of Holland, by their States-General, acknowledged the independence of the United States on April 19, 1782. This was brought about by the energetic application of John Adams, who, on the capture of Laurens (see *Laurens, Petition of*), was sent to the Hague as minister-plenipotentiary to the States-General, or government, of Holland. His special mission was to solicit a loan, but he was clothed with full powers to negotiate a treaty of amity and commerce. Mr. Adams acquainted the States-General, and also the Stadtholder (the sovereign) — the Prince of Orange—with the object of his mission. Mr. Adams was not received in the character of minister-plenipotentiary until nearly a year after his arrival. He persuaded the States-General that an alliance with the United States of America would be of great commercial advantage to the Netherlands; and immediately after Holland had acknowledged the independence of the United States Mr. Adams negotiated a treaty of amity and commerce (Oct. 8, 1782); he also made a successful application for a loan, which was a seasonable aid for the exhausted treasury of the colonies. The treaty was signed at the Hague by John Adams and the representatives of the Netherlands, and was ratified in January, 1783.

Holland at War with Great Britain. Late in 1780 Great Britain, satisfied that the Netherlands would give national aid to the "rebellious colonies," and desirous of keeping that power from joining the Armed Neutrality League (which see), sought a pretext for declaring war against the Dutch. British cruisers had already depredated upon Dutch commerce in time of peace, and the British government treated the Netherlands more as a vassal than as an independent nation. The British ministry found a pretext for war in October (1780), when Henry Laurens, late President of the American Congress, was captured on the high seas by a British cruiser, and with him were found evidences of a negotiation of a treaty between the United States and the Netherlands, which had been in progress some time. On Dec. 20 King George declared war against Holland. Before the declaration had been promulgated, and while efforts were making at the Hague to conciliate England and avoid war, British cruisers pounced upon and captured two hundred unsuspecting merchant vessels laden with cargoes of the aggregate value of $5,000,000; orders had also gone forth for the seizure of the Dutch island of Eustatius. This cruel and unjust war deepened the hatred of continental Europe for Great Britain, for that government was regarded as a bully, ever ready to oppress and plunder the weak.

Holland Land Company. The tract of land ceded by the State of New York to the State of Massachusetts in 1786 (see *Territorial Dispute between Massachusetts and New York*) was sold by the latter state to Oliver Phelps and Nathaniel Gorham for $1,000,000. These gentlemen soon afterwards extinguished the Indian title to a part of this territory, surveyed it into tracts denominated ranges and townships, and sold large parcels to speculators and actual settlers. In 1790 they sold nearly the whole of the residue of the survey (1,204,000 acres) to Robert Morris, of Philadelphia, for eight pence an acre, who resold it to Sir William Pulteney. Phelps and Gorham being unable to fulfil their contract in full with Massachusetts, compromised, and surrendered that portion of the land to which the Indian title was unextinguished, in consideration of which the state relinquished two thirds of the contract price. In 1796 Robert Morris purchased from the state this portion also, extinguished the Indian title, sold off several large tracts upon the east side of and along the Genesee River, and mortgaged the residue to Wilhelm Willink, of Amsterdam, and eleven associates, called the "Holland Land Company." This company, by the foreclosure of the mortgage, acquired full title to the land, surveyed it, and opened their first land-office in Batavia, N. Y., in 1801. It was in this land speculation that Robert Morris was involved in financial ruin, and compelled to endure the privations of a debtor's prison for a long time. The Holland Land Company having sold the larger part of the domain, they, in 1805, conveyed the residue of the wild lands to several companies, who finally disposed of all to *bona fide* purchasers and settlers.

Holland Menaced. The consuls and other agents of the British government were enjoined to exercise great watchfulness in every part of Europe to intercept all munitions of war destined for the American colonies. New England mariners resorted to the island of St. Eustatius. To check the formation of magazines there which the colonists might use, the British envoy, with haughty menaces, required the States-General of Holland to forbid their subjects from even transporting military stores to the West Indies, except sufficient to supply the wants of their own colonies. (See *Rule of* 1756.)

Holland Receives an American Ambassador (1782). For eight months John Adams had been waiting in Holland for an audience of reception by the States-General, but that cautious body delayed until the voice of the people should be heard. When he heard of the result at Yorktown, Adams presented (June 9, 1782) to the President of the States-General a request that he might have an opportunity to offer his credentials, and demanded a categorical answer which he might transmit to Congress. He then went in person to the deputies of the several cities of Holland, making the same demand of each one of them. It was a bold and novel procedure, but the sturdy diplomat was equal to the occasion. First Friesland declared (Feb. 26, 1782) in favor of receiving the American ambassador. On April 4 Zealand adhered; Overyssel on the 5th, Groningen on the 9th, Utrecht on the 10th, and Guelderland on the 17th. On the 19th of April, the anniversary of the affair at Lexington, their high-mightinesses the States-General, representing the unanimous decision of the lower provinces, resolved that Mr. Adams should be received. So it was that the Dutch Republic was the second power on the earth to recognize the independence of the United States.

Holland's Neutrality. King George asked leave to recruit troops for his army in Holland, and to obtain from that republic the loan of its "Scottish brigade." The traditions, the dignity, the principles, and the policy of the States-General forbade compliance with the request, and it was refused. This gave great offence to Great Britain. The king felt that "He that is not with me is against me." This was the first attempt of either party to induce Holland to take part in the American war.

Hollins, George N., was born at Baltimore, Md., Sept. 20, 1799, entered the United States Navy in 1814, and assisted in the defence of the capital in August of that year. He was made a prisoner on board the *President*, and kept so until the end of the war. In 1815 he accompanied Decatur to the Mediterranean. He became notorious by the bombardment of a town on the Pacific coast. (See *Greytown.*) In 1861 he left the navy and joined the insurgents, and in the Confederate service operated on the Mississippi with "rams" and gunboats.

Hollis, Thomas, was born in England in 1659, and died in London in February, 1731. He was a benefactor of Harvard College, by giving it, altogether, nearly $20,000 in endowments of professorships. He also gave books to the library, and fonts of Hebrew and Greek type for the use of the college.

Holmes, Abiel, D.D., LL.D., was born at Woodstock, Conn., Dec. 24, 1763; died at Cambridge, Mass., June 4, 1837. He graduated at Yale College in 1783, and was a tutor there in 1786 and 1787. He was pastor of a church in Georgia from 1785 to 1791, and of the First Church, Cambridge, from 1792 to 1832. He prepared and published, in two octavo volumes, very valuable *Annals of America*, closing in 1826. He also published a *Life* of his father-in-law, President Stiles (1798), a *Memoir of the French Protestants*, a *History of Cambridge*, and many sermons. Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, the distinguished poet, is a son of this eminent divine.

Holmes, Oliver Wendell, M.D., son of Abiel, was born at Cambridge, Mass., Aug. 19, 1809. He graduated at Harvard University in 1829; began the study of law, but soon abandoned it for the study of medicine, and in 1822 he went to Europe, and studied in the hospitals of Paris and other large cities. In 1838 Dr. Holmes was appointed professor of anatomy and physiology in Dartmouth College; and in 1847 he was given the same chair in Harvard, which he has filled ever since. He began his brilliant literary career in early life as a poet and essayist, and has sustained the bright promise of his youth. His poems are often strongly marked with the most delicate humor, and he ranks high as a poet at home and abroad. His books, and his contributions to newspaper and magazine literature, are numerous and highly esteemed.

Holt, Joseph, was born in Breckenridge County, Ky., Jan. 6, 1807, and entered upon the practice of law in 1828. He followed his profession in Kentucky and Mississippi until 1857, when President Buchanan appointed him Commissioner of Patents, and Postmaster-general in 1859. When John B. Floyd left the cabinet at the close of 1860, Mr. Holt assumed the charge of the War Department, in which position he was watchful and efficient. In 1863 he was appointed judge advocate of the United States Army, and was a thorough supporter of Lincoln's administration throughout. In 1864 he was placed at the head of the Bureau of Military Justice, and declined the cabinet appointment of Attorney-general. He was breveted major-general of the United States Army in March, 1865.

JOSEPH HOLT.

Home Manufactures (1768). The women assisted the non-importation leagues by self-denial and industry. They caught the spirit of opposition to the Stamp Act, and resolved to deny themselves foreign luxuries; and when the new taxation scheme (1767) went into operation, they set their fingers at work producing home-made clothing. A letter written at Newport, R. I., early in 1768, said: "Within eighteen months past, 487 yards of cloth and 36 pairs of stockings have been spun and knit in the family of James Nixon, of this town. Another family, within four years past, hath manufactured 980 yards of woollen cloth, besides two coverlids and two bed-ticks, and all the stocking-yarn for the family. Not a skein was put out of the house to be spun, but the whole performed by the family. We are credibly informed that many families in this colony within the year past, have each manufactured upwards of 700 yards of cloth of different kinds." In Boston, forty or fifty young ladies, calling themselves "Daughters of Liberty," met at the house of Rev. Mr. Moorhead, where they spun, during the day, 237 skeins of yarn, some very fine, which were given to the pastor. There were upwards of 100 busy spinners in Mr. Moorhead's congregation. That wool might not be wanting, the colonists entered into an agreement to abstain from killing and eating lambs. Through the industry of the people and the frugality practised, the markets were soon sufficiently supplied with coarse and common clothes, which were cheerfully worn. The spinning-wheel was the weapon with which the women of America fought the ministry. The infant manufactories of America received a strong impulse from non-importation agreements, and home-made articles, first worn from necessity, became fashionable. The graduating class at Harvard College took their degrees in homespun suits in 1770.

Hood Chased by Sherman (1864). Instructed by the chief of the Confederacy to draw Sherman out of Georgia, for his presence was creating great disaffection to the Confederate cause, Hood moved rapidly towards Tennessee, threatening important points on the railway. Sherman followed as rapidly, and, by forced marches, saved Kingston (Oct. 10, 1864), which was one of the threatened places. Hood turned westward towards Rome. Sherman followed, and sent Garrard's cavalry and the Twenty-third corps across the Oostenaula, to strike Hood's flank if he should turn northward. By quick movements Hood avoided the intended blow, and, appearing before Resaca, demanded its surrender. A vigorous attack by the Confederates was repulsed, and Hood moved on, closely pursued by Sherman. The Confederates destroyed the railway near Buzzard's Roost and captured the Union garrison at Dalton. Sherman tried to make Hood fight, but that active leader avoided this peril and puzzled the Nationals by his inexplicable movements. Still pursuing, Sherman and his entire force were grouped about Gaylesville, in a fertile region of northern Alabama. Now satisfied that Hood did not mean to fight, but was luring the Nationals out of Georgia, Sherman determined to execute a plan which he had already submitted to Lieutenant-general Grant—namely, to destroy Atlanta and its railway communications, march his army through the heart of Georgia, and capture and take possession of Savannah or Charleston, on the Atlantic seaboard. He abandoned the chase after Hood and returned to Atlanta early in November.

Hood, John B., was born in Bath County, Ky., in 1830; died of yellow fever in New Orleans, Aug. 30, 1879. He graduated at West Point in 1853, became a cavalry officer, and fought the Comanche Indians, in Texas, in 1857. He left the army and espoused the cause of the Confederates in 1861, receiving the appointment of brigadier. He joined Twiggs in betraying the army in Texas into the hands of the Secessionists. He was promoted to major-general in 1862, and commanded the largest division of Longstreet's corps at Gettysburg. He lost a leg at Chickamauga. In the Atlanta campaign in 1864 he was with Longstreet, and superseded Johnston in command of the army at Atlanta in July. He invaded Tennessee late in that year; was defeated at Nashville and driven into Alabama, and in January, 1865, was relieved of command by General Richard Taylor.

JOHN B. HOOD.

Hood's Invasion of Tennessee. Late in October, 1864, General Hood, with about 55,000 troops, crossed the Tennessee River at Florence, where Forrest, the guerilla chief, aided him (see *Hood Chased by Sherman*); and at Johnsville, on the Tennessee, destroyed National stores valued at $1,500,000. Hood had been reinforced by General Taylor, of Louisiana. General Thomas, then at Nashville, had about 30,000 troops, who, under Schofield, confronted Hood; and he had about as many more at different points, in active service. Hood moved on Nashville (Nov. 17). General Schofield, who was at Columbia with a large force, fell back to Franklin, where, with not more than 18,000 men, he made a stand. He fought Hood there (Nov. 30) and checked his onward march. (See *Franklin, Battle of.*) Schofield fell back to Nashville, followed by Forrest's cavalry. Hood pushed forward to invest that city. There a severe battle was fought (Dec. 15), when Hood was repulsed and made a hasty retreat across the Tennessee into northern Alabama, closely pursued by the victors. (See *Nashville, Battle of.*)

Hooker, Joseph, was born at Hadley, Mass., in 1815; died at Garden City, L. I., Oct. 31, 1879. He graduated at West Point in 1837, entering the artillery. He served in the war with Mexico, and was breveted lieutenant-colonel for bravery therein. He resigned in 1853 and settled in California, where he was residing when, in May, 1861, he was appointed brigadier-general of volunteers and assigned to the Army of the Potomac, in which he acquired the name of "Fighting Joe Hooker." In May, 1862, he was made major-general. He was severely wounded in the battle of Antietam, and soon afterwards was commissioned brigadier-general in the United States Army. Early in 1863 he succeeded Burnside in the command of the Army of the Potomac, and was himself succeeded by General Meade in June. He performed efficient service near Chattanooga in the fall of 1863, and in the Atlanta campaign of 1864. Hooker was breveted major-general of the United States Army in 1868, when he retired from active service.

JOSEPH HOOKER.

Hooker, Thomas, founder of the Colony of Connecticut, was born at Marketfield, Leicestershire, Eng., in 1586; died at Hartford, Conn., July 7, 1647. He was a popular non-conformist preacher in London, but was silenced, when he kept a school, in which John Eliot, the "Apostle," was his assistant. Hooker fled from persecution to Holland in 1630, and arrived at Boston in September, 1633. He was ordained pastor of the church at Newtown, and in June, 1636, he and his whole congregation began a migration to the valley of the Connecticut, where they founded Hartford. He was exceedingly influential in all New England.

Hooper, William, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Boston, Jan. 17, 1742; died at Hillsborough, N. C., October, 1790. He graduated at Harvard in 1760. He studied law under James Otis, and went to North Carolina in 1764, settling in Wilmington in 1767. He was a representative in the Provincial Legislature, and was a delegate to the first Continental Congress in 1774, in which he drew up an address to the inhabitants of Jamaica. Soon after signing the Declaration of Independence he resigned his seat and returned home, where he subsequently took part in local public affairs.

Hopkins, Commodore Esek, Cruise of. A squadron of seven vessels, fitted out by the Marine Committee (see *Navy Department, Continental*), sailed on a cruise (February, 1776), under Commodore Hopkins, then nearly sixty years of age, to operate against the fleet of Lord Dunmore (see *Dunmore's War on the Virginians*) on the Virginian coast. He sailed from the Delaware. His flag-ship was the *Alfred*, 28 guns. Hopkins proceeded farther south, and made a descent on the island of New Providence, one of the Bahamas, capturing its governor, its fort, and one hundred guns, with a quantity of stores. Leaving the Bahamas for the New England coast, he fell in with and captured two British vessels (April 4) off Long Island, for which the President of Congress complimented him officially. He attacked another British vessel of 29 guns, but she escaped. For this, Hopkins and one or two of his lieutenants were censured. Charges were preferred against him, and he was dismissed from the service, Jan. 2, 1777. He was a brother of Stephen Hopkins, a member of Congress. No commander-in-chief of the navy was afterwards appointed.

Hopkins, Edward, was born at Shrewsbury, Eng., in 1600; died in London, March, 1657. He was a successful merchant in London, and, being much attached to Mr. Davenport, came with him to America, in 1637, and accompanied him to the banks of the Quinnipiac and assisted in the preliminary work of founding the New Haven Colony. He went to Hartford, where he was chosen governor in 1639, and ruled the Connecticut Colony from 1640 to 1654, alternately every other year with Mr. Haynes. On the death of his elder brother, Mr. Hopkins returned to England, where he became warden of the fleet, commissioner of the admiralty, and member of Parliament. In 1643 Mr. Hopkins had aided in forming the New England Confederacy, and he never lost his interest in the colonies. At his death he bequeathed much of his estate to New England institutions of learning—for the support of grammar-schools at Hartford and New Haven, which are still kept up. He also left a donation of £500, which, by a decree in chancery, went to Harvard College.

Hopkins, Esek, was the first commodore of the American navy. He was born at Scituate, R. I., in 1718; died at North Providence, R. I., Feb. 26, 1802. Governor Cooke commissioned

ESEK HOPKINS.

him a brigadier-general at the breaking-out of the Revolution. In December, 1775, Congress commissioned him commander-in-chief of the inchoate navy, and he put to sea in the first squadron in February, 1776, consisting of four ships and three sloops, sailing for the Bahama Islands. There he captured a large quantity of ordnance stores and ammunition, and one hundred cannons. He captured two British vessels on his return. Complaint was made that he had not annoyed the British ships on the Southern coast, and he was arraigned before the Naval Committee of Congress, on the charge. He was acquitted, but unavoidable delays in getting vessels to sea afterwards caused other charges to be made, and he was dismissed the service, Jan. 2, 1777. During his long life he exerted great political influence in Rhode Island.

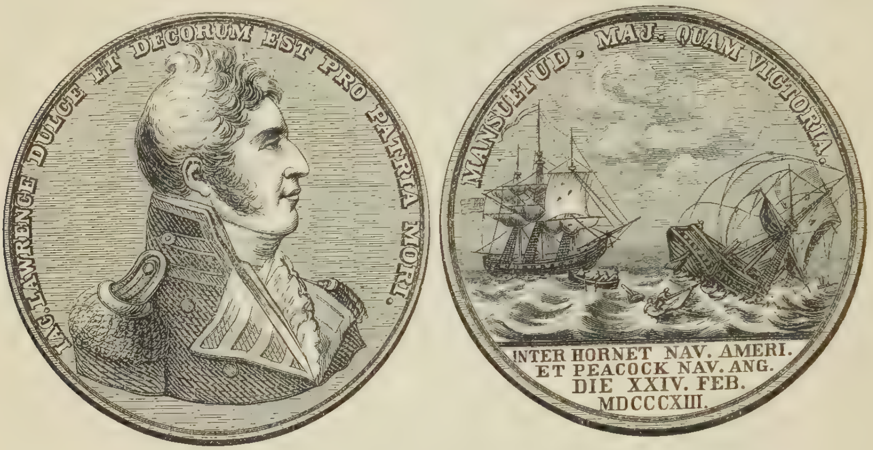
Hopkins, SAMUEL, D.D., father of the American Colonization Society (which see), and of the so-called Hopkinsian divinity, known as Hopkinsian Calvinism. He was born at Waterbury, Conn., in September, 1721; died at Newport, R. I., Dec. 20, 1803. Graduated at Yale College in 1741, he studied divinity with Jonathan Edwards, and became a pastor in 1743. He settled in Newport in 1770, but, during the British occupation of that place, his parish was so much impoverished that he was compelled to live on weekly contributions and the voluntary aid of a few friends the remainder of his life. Newport was a great slave-mart, and Dr. Hopkins powerfully opposed the traffic. So early as 1773 he formed a plan for evangelizing Africa and colonizing it with free negroes from America. He exerted such influence against slavery that, in 1774, Rhode Island passed a law forbidding the importation of negroes into the colony, and, early in 1784, the Legislature declared that all children born after the following March should be free.

Hopkins, STEPHEN, LL.D., one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Scituate, R. I., March 7, 1707; died at Providence, July 19, 1785. He was engaged in early life in mercantile business and land-surveying; became an active member of the Rhode Island Legislature, and was speaker of the Assembly from 1732 till 1741. In 1739 he was chief-justice of the Court of Common Pleas, and of the Supreme Court from 1751 to 1754. Mr. Hopkins was a delegate in the Colonial Convention at Albany in 1754, and one of the committee who drew up a plan of union. From 1754 to 1768 he was governor of Rhode Island, excepting four years. He was a member of the first Continental Congress, and remained in that body from 1776 to 1778. He had been from the beginning a stanch opposer of the oppressive measures of Parliament. He was one of the committee that drafted the Articles of Confederation (which see); was a good mathematician, and was for many years chancellor of Brown University. Notwithstanding his defective early education, Mr. Hopkins's knowledge of literature, science, and political economy was varied and extensive.

Hopkinson, FRANCIS, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Philadelphia in 1738; died there, May 9, 1791. He graduated at Princeton in 1763. In 1765 he was admitted to the bar; visited England; and on his return married Miss Borden, of Bordentown, N. J. His republican principles caused his removal from a lucrative office in New Jersey. He was a member of Congress in 1776–77, and was distinguished during the Revolution by political and satirical writings. His best known is *The Battle of the Kegs.* He was for several years Commissioner of the Loan-office, and was Judge of Admiralty for ten years—1779–89.

Hopkinson, JOSEPH, author of *Hail, Columbia*, was a son of Francis, and was born in Philadelphia, Nov. 12, 1778; died there, Jan. 15, 1842. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania, became a lawyer of much repute, and was the leading counsel of Dr. Rush in his suit against Cobbett. (See *Cobbett's Revenge.*) He was also counsel for Judge Chase in his impeachment trial. (See *Chase, Samuel.*) As a member of Congress (1816–20), he distinguished himself by his course on the tariff question, and by his opposition to a recharter of the United States Bank. In 1828 Mr. Hopkinson was appointed Judge of the United States District Court of eastern Pennsylvania, an office which his father and grandfather had held. He was a leading member of the convention that revised the Constitution of Pennsylvania in 1837. Mr. Hopkinson was Vice-President of the American Philosophical Society. His best-known literary production is *Hail, Columbia* (which see).

Hornet and Peacock, BATTLE OF THE. After the capture of the *Java* (see *Constitution and Java*) Bainbridge left the sloop-of-war *Hornet*, Commander James Lawrence, to blockade the *Bonne Citoyenne*, an English vessel laden with treasure in the harbor of San Salvador, on the coast of Brazil. The *Hornet* was driven away by a larger British vessel, and on the 24th of February, 1813, she fell in with the British brig *Peacock*, 18 guns, Captain Peake, off the mouth of the Demerara River. The *Hornet*, gaining a good position, with quick and incessant firing, came down upon the *Peacock*, closed upon her, and in this advantageous position poured in her shot with so much vigor for fifteen minutes that her antagonist not only struck her colors, but raised the union in a position that indicated a cry of distress. Very soon afterwards the mainmast of the *Peacock* fell and went over her side. She was sinking when officers from the *Hornet* went on board of her. Her guns were thrown overboard, the holes made by balls were plugged, and every exertion was made to keep her afloat until her wounded could be removed, but in vain. She rapidly filled and went to the bottom of the sea, taking down with her nine British and three American seamen. Lawrence sailed immediately for the United States, and the story of the exploit of the *Hornet* created a profound sensation. A Halifax newspaper said: "It will not do for our vessels to fight those of the Americans single-handed; they are a dead nip." Public honors were awarded to Lawrence, and Congress voted him thanks and a gold medal. The corporation of New York resolved to present him with the freedom of the city (which see), with a piece of plate bearing appropriate devices and inscriptions, and to give a public dinner to the officers and crew of the *Hornet*. The banquet was given at Washington Hall, on Tuesday, May 4, 1813, only a few weeks before Lawrence was slain. Art and song made contributions to the praise of Lawrence, and the pencil caricature made fun of the vanquished British, as seen in the annexed sketch, which was published by Charles, a Philadelphian, soon after the victory. A silver medal was given to each of the other officers of the *Hornet*. The officers of the *Peacock* sent a public letter of thanks to Lawrence for his generous treatment of the prisoners.


JAC. LAWRENCE DULCE ET DECORUM EST PRO PATRIA MORI.
MANSUETUD. MAJ. QUAM VICTORIA.
INTER HORNET NAV. AMERI.
ET PEACOCK NAV. ANG.
DIE XXIV. FEB.
MDCCCXIII.

MEDAL AWARDED TO CAPTAIN LAWRENCE BY CONGRESS.

Free Trade & Sailors rights
You old rascal!
Boo-o-o-o-hoo!!!

HORNET AND PEACOCK.

Hornet and Penguin. When Decatur departed with the *President* (see *President and Endymion*) he ordered the remainder of his squadron to rendezvous at the port of Tristan d'Acunha, the principal of a group of islands in the South Atlantic, in latitude 37° south and 12° west from Washington. They followed the *President* to sea (Jan. 22, 1815), not knowing her fate, and the *Hornet*, 18 guns, Captain James Biddle, and *Tom Bowline* arrived at the rendezvous together at the middle of March. On the 23d they entered the port, and the *Hornet* was about to cast anchor, when a strange sail was discovered at the windward. Biddle immediately went seaward to reconnoitre. The stranger came down before the wind, and a little before two o'clock was within musket-shot distance from the *Hornet*, displayed English colors, and fired a gun. The challenge was accepted by the *Hornet*, and for fifteen minutes a sharp cannonade was kept up. Then the British vessel ran down upon the *Hornet* with the intention of boarding her. The vessels became entangled, and the opportunity for boarding was lost by the refusal of the men of the stranger to undertake it. Biddle's men, on the contrary, were eager for a hand-to-hand fight, but, as his advantage lay with his guns, he would not allow it. His broadsides terribly raked his antagonist, and in a few minutes she was surrendered. Springing upon the taffrail to inquire if she had actually surrendered, Biddle was fired upon by two British marines and wounded in the neck. His assassins were instantly slain by bullets fired from the *Hornet*. The latter became disentangled, and wore to give her antagonist a broadside, when twenty men on the stranger threw up their hands and asked for quarter. The conquered vessel had struck her colors after a battle of twenty-three minutes. She was the brig *Penguin*, 18 guns, Captain Dickenson. She mounted nineteen carriage-guns, besides guns in her top. Her complement of men was one hundred and thirty-two, and her size and weight of metal was the same as those of the *Hornet*. The latter lost one man killed and ten wounded. The loss of the *Penguin* was unknown. Among her slain were her commander and boatswain. After taking from her all that was valuable, Captain Biddle scuttled her (March 25), and she went to the bottom of the deep South Atlantic Ocean. Special honors were bestowed upon Captain Biddle. When he arrived at New York a public dinner was given to him, and his native town (Philadelphia) gave him a beautiful service of silver-plate. Congress thanked him in the name of the Republic, and voted him a gold medal. Converting the *Tom Bowline* into a cartel ship, he sent his prisoners in her to Rio Janeiro.

Hornet, CHASE OF THE. When sailing towards the Indian seas on the morning of April 27, 1815, the *Hornet* and *Peacock* were close together, and Captain Warrington, of the latter, signalled to Biddle, of the former, that a strange vessel was seen in the distance. Both sloops started in chase, with a light wind, and gained on the stranger. The *Peacock* was ahead, and on the afternoon of the 28th displayed caution in her movements, for she had discovered that the stranger was a heavy British line-of-battle ship, and that she was about to turn upon and chase the American vessels. Then the *Peacock* and *Hornet* spread their sails for flight. The latter was in greater peril, for she was a slower sailer than her consort. The huge Englishman was gaining upon her. Biddle began to lighten her, and during the entire night of the 28th and early morning of the 29th the chase became exceedingly interesting. At dawn the British vessel was within gunshot distance of the *Hornet*, on her lee quarter. At seven o'clock the pursuer threw out British colors and a rear-admiral's flag, and began firing. Onward the *Hornet* sped, casting overboard anchors, shot, cables, spars, boats, many heavy articles on deck and below, and all of her guns but one. At noon the pursuer was within a mile of her, and again commenced firing. Onward the *Hornet* still sped, her commander having resolved to save his ship at all hazards. By consummate seamanship and prudence he did so, and, with her single gun, and without boat or anchor, the *Hornet* arrived at New York, June 9, 1815. The vessel that had pursued her was the British ship *Cornwallis*, 74 guns, on her way to the East Indies.

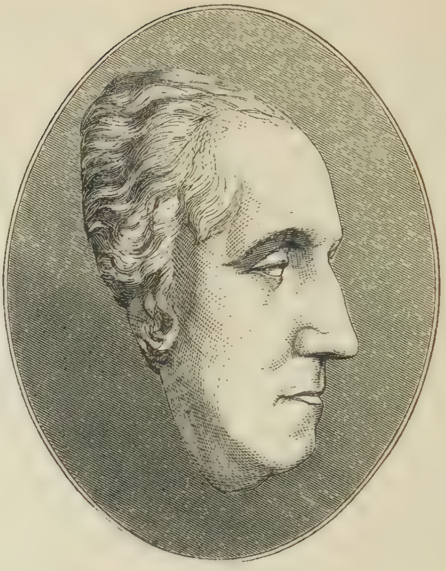
Hosmer, HARRIET G., sculptor, was born at Waterbury, Mass., Oct. 9, 1830. She began modelling in clay at an early age, and, having finished her education in school, she took a course of anatomical instruction in a medical college at St. Louis, Mo. She made a bust of "Hesper," in marble, in 1852, which attracted much attention, and her father (a physician) placed her under the tuition of Mr. Gibson, sculptor, at Rome. Her best-known work—"Beatrice Cenci"—was executed for the public library at St. Louis. She soon became a distinguished and popular artist. One of her best productions, finished in 1859, is "Zenobia in Chains." Miss Hosmer makes Rome her permanent abiding-place, where she is constantly and profitably employed.

Hospitality to the Continental Congress. The Philadelphians gave the members of the Continental Congress, assembled in their city in September, 1774, a most hospitable reception. The Carpenters' Association, themselves warm patriots, gave them the free use of their hall—the famous Carpenters' Hall—and their library above; and the directors of the Library Company of Philadelphia requested their librarian to furnish the members of the Congress with any books which they might wish to use during the session. They were also recipients of unbounded hospitality at the hands of leading citizens, among whom they were continually entertained at tables sumptuously provided. John Adams recorded in his diary an entertainment given by a young lawyer, a member of the Society of Friends. "This plain Friend," says Adams, "and his plain though pretty wife, with her 'thees' and 'thous,' had provided a most costly entertainment in ducks, hams, chickens, beef, pig, tarts, creams, custards, jellies, fools, trifles, floating islands, beer, porter, punch, wine," etc. His diary contains notices of many such entertainments at that time.

Hostile Forces in the West Indies (1778). So soon as D'Estaing's destination became known in England, a British fleet, under Admiral Byron, was sent to follow him across the Atlantic. It did not arrive at New York until late in the season. Byron proceeded to attack the French fleet in Boston harbor. His vessels were dispersed by a storm, and D'Estaing, his ships perfectly refitted, sailed (Nov. 1, 1778) for the West Indies, then, as between England and France, the principal seat of war. On the same day five thousand British troops sailed from New York for the same destination, escorted by a strong squadron. The English fleet arrived first, and, joining some other vessels already there, proceeded to attack the Island of St. Lucia. D'Estaing unsuccessfully tried to relieve it. Soon afterwards Byron's fleet, from the northeast coast, arrived, when D'Estaing took refuge at Martinique. Byron tried in vain to draw him into action, and then started to convoy, a part of the way, the homeward-bound West Indiamen of the mercantile marine. During his absence a detachment from Martinique captured the English island of St. Vincent. Being largely reinforced soon afterwards, D'Estaing sailed, with his whole fleet and conquered the island of Grenada. Before the conquest was quite completed Byron returned, when an indecisive engagement took place, and the much damaged British fleet put into St. Christopher's. D'Estaing then sailed (August, 1779) to escort, part of the way, the homeward-bound French West Indiamen; and, returning, sailed for the coast of Georgia to help the Americans to recover that state.

Houdon, JEAN ANTOINE, an eminent French sculptor, was born in Versailles, March 20, 1741; died in Paris, July 15, 1828. He passed ten years at Rome in the study of the antiques. In 1785 he was employed to make a marble statue of Washington for the State of Virginia, which now stands in the rotunda of the state Capitol at Richmond. He visited Mount Vernon and made a cast of the living face only, and, after returning to France, modelled the entire full length of the patriot. That original cast is at Mount Vernon. It is the true model of Washington's face, and should be the standard portrait, instead of that of Stuart, in which the artist avowedly exaggerated. (See p. 648.)

HOUDON'S STATUE OF WASHINGTON.



HOUDON'S MASK OF WASHINGTON'S FACE.

Housatonic, New England Trading-post on the. Denied a footing on the Delaware by the Dutch, the New-Englanders pressed their encroachments towards the Upper Hudson. High up on the Housatonic River they established a trading-post, as the Dutch alleged, to draw off the Indian trade from them.

House of Burgesses, the name given to the collected representatives of boroughs in Virginia when representative government was first established there under the administration of Governor Yeardly. That body was elected by the people, and at first consisted of two representatives from seven corporations. These, with the governor and Council, formed the General Assembly of Virginia. That general form of government was maintained until that colony became an independent state in 1776. That first House of Burgesses assembled at Jamestown in July, 1619, and by the end of summer four more boroughs were established and representatives chosen. The character of the *personnel* of that popular branch of the Virginia Legislature for many years was sometimes severely criticised by contemporary writers. A clergyman who lived there wrote that the popular Assembly was composed largely of those unruly men whom King James had sent over from the English prisons as servants for the planters, and were not only vicious, but very ignorant. These men (Stith, an accurate historian observes) disgraced the colony in the eyes of the world. Finally better material found its way into the House of Burgesses; and when the old war for independence was kindling, some of the brightest and purest men in the commonwealth composed that House, and were the conservators of the rights of man in Virginia as opposed to the governor and his council.

Houston and Texas. Samuel Houston, the hero of Texan independence, was governor of that state when the Secessionists, in convention, declared its withdrawal from the Union. The convention officially informed the governor of the act, and that they had instructed their appointed delegates to ask for the admission of Texas into the "Southern Confederacy." To this communication Houston promptly replied, in substance, that the convention had transcended its delegated powers; that its acts were usurpations; and that he should consider it his duty to act as governor until the Legislature of the state should take action in the matter, regardless of all alleged changes in the political relations of the state. This reply produced great excitement. Believing the governor was about to assemble the militia of the state to resist the convention, that body passed an ordinance (March 8, 1861) which defied his authority. Then the venerable Houston, in a stirring address to the people, recounted his services and his trials, and complained bitterly of the "usurpations" of the convention, which, he said, "had transferred the people, like sheep from the shambles, from the Union to an unlawful league." Loving Texas too well to do aught that should kindle civil war upon its soil, he said he should not attempt, under the circumstances, to exercise his authority as governor, nor would he take the oath of allegiance to the "Southern Confederacy."

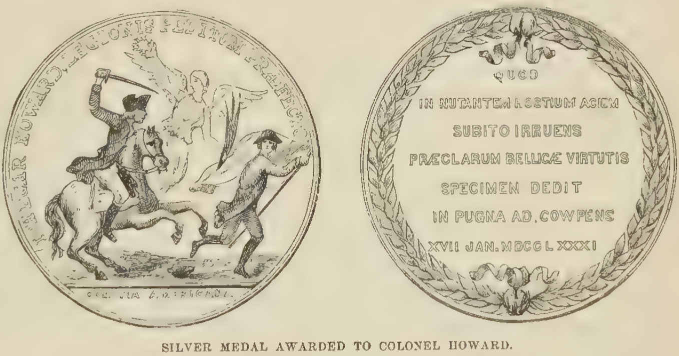
Houston, Samuel, first President of Texas, was born near Lexington, Va., March 2, 1793; died at Huntsville, Tex., July 25, 1863. His family went to Tennessee in his early days, where the Cherokee Indians adopted him as one of their nation. He served with distinction under Jackson in the Creek War, in 1813–14, and was severely wounded. Leaving the army in 1818, he became a lawyer, and was a member of Congress from 1823 to 1827. He was governor of Tennessee in 1827, and afterwards lived among the Cherokees, as their legal protector from fraud. Emigrating to Texas, he took a leading part in its public affairs. Instrumental in achieving its independence (1836), he was elected its first President that year; also from 1841 to 1844. He favored the annexation of Texas to the United States, and was elected its first United States Senator in 1846. In that position he remained until 1849, when he was chosen governor of Texas. He opposed the secession and insurrectionary movements in that state with all his might, and retired from office rather than take the oath of allegiance to the Southern Confederacy.

SAMUEL HOUSTON.

Hovey and Washburne's Raid. While General Pemberton was confronting General Grant on the Tallahatchie, late in 1862, Generals Hovey and Washburne crossed the Mississippi, and, with their cavalry, made such destructive raids upon the railways in Northern Mississippi that the Confederates fell back to Grenada. They had broken up railways and destroyed rolling-stock on which the Confederates greatly depended.

Howard, John Eager, was born in Baltimore County, Md., June 4, 1752; died there, Oct. 12, 1827. He was a captain in Hull's regiment at the battle of White Plains. He became a major in the Continental army in 1777, and was distinguished in the battle of Germantown. He was in the battle of Monmouth (which see), and was made lieutenant-colonel. In 1780 he was detailed, with the Maryland and Delaware troops, to serve in the Southern Department. In Gates's defeat, near Camden, he participated, and he led the Continental infantry in the battle of the Cowpens, at one time holding in his hands the swords of seven surrendered British officers. For his conduct there Congress voted him a silver medal. It was the first occasion during the old war for independence in which the bayonet was effectively used. He was distinguished in the battles of Guilford, Hobkirk's Hill, and Eutaw Spring, and was severely wounded in the latter engagement. After the war he married a daughter of Chief-justice Chew, of Pennsylvania. He was a member of Congress (1787–88), and governor of Maryland from 1789 to 1792. Colonel Howard was a member of the Maryland Senate in 1795, and United States Senator from 1796 to 1803. He was named by Washington for one of his brigadier-generals in 1798. When Baltimore was threatened in 1814, Howard placed himself at the head of aged men armed for its defence.

JOHN EAGER HOWARD.



SILVER MEDAL AWARDED TO COLONEL HOWARD.

Howard, Oliver Otis, LL.D., was born at Leeds, Me., Nov. 8, 1830. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1850, and at West Point in 1854, entering the Ordnance Corps, and becoming instructor in mathematics at West Point in 1857. He took command of a Maine volunteer regiment in June, 1861, and commanded a brigade at the battle of Bull's Run. In September he was made a brigadier-general. At the battle of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines (which see), he lost his right arm. After the battle of Antietam (which see) he commanded Sumner's corps; and while Hooker led the Army of the Potomac, in 1863, he was in command of the Eleventh Corps.

OLIVER OTIS HOWARD.

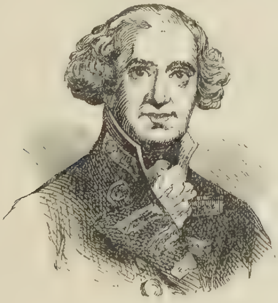
Howard was conspicuous at Gettysburg (which see), and in Lookout Valley and Missionaries' Ridge; also in the relief of Knoxville, late in the year. He was in command of the Army of the Tennessee in 1864, and was in all of the battles in the Atlanta campaign. The right of Sherman's army, on its march to the sea, was commanded by Howard, as well as in the march through the Carolinas afterwards. In December, 1864, he was made a brigadier-general in the United States Army, and was afterwards breveted major-general. At the conclusion of the war, General Howard was made commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, and held the office until the bureau was closed, in June, 1872. Trustee and president of Howard University, he resigned in April, 1873, and was appointed special commissioner to the Indians in March, 1872. He was afterwards appointed to the command of a department on the Pacific coast.

Howe, Elias, Jr., inventor of a sewing-machine, was born at Spencer, Mass., July 9, 1819; died in Brooklyn, L. I., Oct. 3, 1867. In 1835 he engaged in manufacturing cotton-mill machinery at Lowell, and contrived the sewing-machine of which he was the inventor, producing his first machine, with pecuniary assistance from a friend, in May, 1845, and patented it in September, 1846. Public indifference, violation of his rights, and extreme poverty tended to discourage him, but it did not. In 1854 he was enabled to establish his legal claim to priority of invention. Then a flood-tide of prosperity flowed in, and by the time his patent expired, in September, 1867, he had realized about $2,000,000. At the Paris exposition that year, he received a gold medal and the cross of the Legion of Honor. He had contributed largely in support of the government during the Civil War, and, until his health failed, did duty as a private soldier in a Connecticut regiment.

Howe, General, abandons New Jersey. The campaign of 1777 was long delayed. The British army, not having received its supply of tents, as well as reinforcements and stores, did not move until towards the middle of June. Washington had watched all Howe's movements with much anxiety and perplexing uncertainty. Whether he would move up the Hudson or on Philadelphia was a question that caused Washington to make disposition of his troops to meet either enterprise. He moved a large portion of his main army from Morristown to Middlebrook, twelve miles from Princeton, leaving Putnam, with a division of Eastern troops, in the Highlands. Howe moved out of New Brunswick (June 13) with the apparent design of forcing his way to Philadelphia. As Washington had only eight thousand men with him, he called troops from the Highlands, and the New Jersey militia turned out in force to aid him. Howe's real object seems to have been to draw Washington into an engagement, for he had another plan for reaching Philadelphia. He made a sudden and rapid retreat, evacuated New Brunswick, and fell back to Amboy. Washington sent Stirling, with his division, to the low ground, and moved with the main army to Quibbletown. Then Howe turned suddenly, to gain the rear of the Americans, when Washington fell back to his strong position at Middlebrook, where Howe did not choose to attack him. In that movement Stirling's division lost a few men and three pieces of artillery. Howe now abandoned New Jersey, crossed over to Staten Island, and there embarked his main army, about sixteen thousand strong (leaving Sir Henry Clinton, with five thousand men, to hold New York), to co-operate with Burgoyne, who was to descend from the St. Lawrence, in defending the city from assault. Howe finally sailed, in his brother's fleet, for Chesapeake Bay.

Howe, George Augustus (Viscount), born 1724; killed near Ticonderoga, July 8, 1758. He succeeded to his father's title when he was eleven years of age. In 1757 he was commissioned colonel of the Sixtieth (Royal American) regiment. Later in the year he was made colonel of the Fifty-fifth Foot, and soon afterwards brigadier-general, and sent to America with General Abercrombie in the spring of 1758. He led the right wing of the army in the expedition against Ticonderoga. At the head of an advanced party, he met a detachment of French troops in the forest between the foot of Lake George and Ticonderoga, and in a skirmish with them was killed at the outset. His body was taken back to the head of the lake, and thence to Albany, by young Major Philip Schuyler, where it was entombed in the family vault of the Schuylers. There it remained several years. The remains were finally placed in a leaden coffin, and deposited under the chancel of St. Peter's Church, in Albany. When his remains were taken from the vault, his hair, which had been cut short as an example for his soldiers, had grown to long, flowing, and beautiful locks. The province of Massachusetts erected a monument to his memory in Westminster Abbey. Lord Howe was elder brother of Richard and William Howe, who came to fight the Americans in their war for independence. His fall was regarded as an ill omen in the army, and produced almost universal consternation and languor. Mante says, "With him the soul of the expedition seemed to expire." Abercrombie returned with his troops to Albany.

Howe, Richard (Earl), born March 19, 1725; died August 5, 1799. Educated at Westminster and Eton, he succeeded to the Irish viscounty and the family estate on the death of his brother, killed near Ticonderoga in 1758. In 1739 he was a midshipman in Anson's fleet, and was made post-captain for gallantry in 1745. He entered Parliament in 1757, and in 1765 was made Treasurer of the British Navy. In October, 1770, he was promoted to rear-admiral of the Blue, and in 1776 was sent to command the British fleet on the American station, charged with a commission, jointly with his brother, to make peace with or war upon the Americans. They failed to secure peace, and made war. After leaving the Delaware with his fleet, in 1778, he had an encounter off Rhode Island with a French fleet, under the Count D'Estaing, when he disappeared from the American waters. In 1782 he was made admiral of the Blue, and created an English viscount; and in September of that year he relieved Gibraltar, and received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. In 1787 he was made admiral of the White, and in August the next year was raised to an earldom. Because of a complete victory over the French, which he obtained in 1794, he was rewarded with a gold medal, the Order of the Garter, and the commission of admiral of the fleet, which he resigned in 1797. His last service in the royal navy was persuading mutineers at Spithead to return to duty. In St. Paul's Cathedral a fine monument was erected to the memory of Admiral Howe.



RICHARD HOWE.

Howe, Robert, was a native of Brunswick, N. C. History bears no record of his private life. He was in the Legislature in 1773. He appears to have been one of the earliest and most uncompromising of the patriots of the Cape Fear region, for we find him honored with an exception, together with Cornelius Harnett, when royal clemency was offered to the rebels by Sir Henry Clinton, in 1776. He was appointed colonel of the first North Carolina regiment, and with his command went early into the field of Revolutionary strife. In December, 1775, he joined Woodford at Norfolk, in opposition to Lord Dunmore and his motley army. For his gallantry during this campaign, Congress, on the 29th of February, 1776, appointed him, with five others, brigadier-general in the Continental army, and ordered him to Virginia. In the spring of 1776, British spite towards General Howe was exhibited by Sir Henry Clinton, who sent Cornwallis, with nine hundred men, to ravage his plantation near old Brunswick village. He was placed in chief command of the Southern troops in 1778, and was unsuccessful in an expedition against Florida and in the defence of Savannah. His conduct was censured, but without just cause. Among others whose voices were raised against him was Christopher Gadsden, of Charleston. Howe required him to deny or retract. Gadsden would do neither, and a duel ensued. They met at Cannonsburg, and all the damage either sustained was a scratch upon the ear of Gadsden by Howe's ball.

ROBERT HOWE.

Howe, Samuel Gridley, M.D., was born in Boston, Mass., Nov. 10, 1801; died there, Jan. 6, 1876. He graduated at Brown University in 1821, became a physician, and, sympathizing with the Greeks in their struggle for independence, went there in 1824, and served as a surgeon in the army and in other capacities until 1830. In 1831 he became interested in the establishment of an institution for the blind in Boston. The Perkins Institute was the result. It was put in operation in 1832, with Dr. Howe at the head of it. In that institution, through the unwearied efforts of Dr. Howe, Laura Bridgman, a deaf, dumb, and blind girl, became educated. Dr. Howe, while in Europe, preparatory to opening the institution, engaged a little in politics, and was in a Prussian prison about six weeks. He was ever active in every good work. He went to Greece again in 1867, as bearer of supplies to the Cretans in their struggle with the Turks. In 1871 he was one of the commissioners sent by the government of the United States to Santo Domingo to report upon the annexation of that island to the American Republic.—JULIA WARD, wife of Dr. Howe, was born in New York in 1819, and is distinguished for her literary talents and benevolent work.

Howe, WILLIAM, was born Aug. 10, 1729; died July 12, 1814. He was, by illegitimate descent, uncle of George III. He entered the army as cornet of dragoons, and distinguished himself under Wolfe at Quebec. Made colonel of infantry in 1764, he rose to the rank of major-general in 1772. In May, 1775, he arrived at Boston with reinforcements for General Gage. At that time there was much reluctance among British officers to serve against the American colonists. The Earl of Effingham and the eldest son of William Pitt resigned their commissions rather than engage in the unnatural service; and General Oglethorpe, the senior general of the royal army, declined the proffered service of commander-in-chief of the British army in America. After Gage's recall, it was offered to General Howe, and accepted. He was in chief command in the battle on Bunker's (Breed's) Hill (June 17, 1775), and when forced to leave Boston (March, 1776) he went with his troops to Halifax. In August, the same year, he landed a large number of troops on Staten Island, near New York. With them the Americans were defeated in battle on Long Island (Aug. 27, 1776), and for this he was soon afterwards knighted. He took possession of New York city Sept. 15, and was defeated in battle at White Plains, Oct. 28. (See *White Plains, Battle of.*) On the 16th of November he captured Fort Washington, on New York island, and in July, 1777, he sailed in the fleet of his brother, Admiral Howe, for Chesapeake Bay. Marching for Philadelphia, he defeated Washington in battle on Brandywine Creek (Sept. 11, 1777), and entered Philadelphia on the 26th of September. Howe repulsed an attack made by Washington (Oct. 4) at Germantown, and spent the ensuing winter in Philadelphia. In May, 1778, he was succeeded by Sir Henry Clinton, and returned to England. Sir William was made lieutenant-general of ordnance in 1782, and in 1786 colonel of dragoons and full general. In 1795 he was appointed governor of Berwick, and on the death of his brother, in 1799, succeeded to his Irish viscounty. Howe was governor of Plymouth and a Privy-Councillor at the time of his death.

Howe, WILLIAM, COMMANDER OF THE BRITISH ARMY IN AMERICA. The ministry resolved to raise the military force in Boston to ten thousand men, and supersede the incapable Gage. The command was offered to General Amherst, who declined it; it was then offered to William Howe, a man of inferior genius as a military commander. "Is it a proposition or order from the king?" he asked, when it was offered. When told it was an order, he said, "It is my duty to obey it." His constituents in Nottingham reproached him, saying, "Your brother died there (see *Howe, George Augustus*) in the cause of freedom; the Americans have shown their gratitude to your name and family by erecting a monument to him." "If you go," said some of them, "we hope you may fall."

Howe's Expedition against St. Augustine (1778). In retaliation for incursions from Florida (see *Florida, Incursions from*), General Robert Howe, at the head of two thousand Americans, mostly militia of South Carolina and Georgia, attempted the capture of St. Augustine. He met with very little opposition before he reached the St. Mary River, where the British had erected a fort, called Tonyn, in compliment to the governor of the province. On the approach of Howe they destroyed the fort; and, after some slight skirmishing, retreated towards St. Augustine. But the Americans were driven back from Florida by a fever which swept away nearly one fourth of their number, and rendered their retreat absolutely necessary.

Howitzer, A, is a short cannon, or species of mortar, of iron or brass. They are generally four or five feet long and ten inches in diameter. There are mountain howitzers, sometimes carried on horseback, weighing 220 pounds, the whole length about 37 inches, and diameter of bore 4½ inches. The range varies, according to elevation, from 150 to 1000 yards.

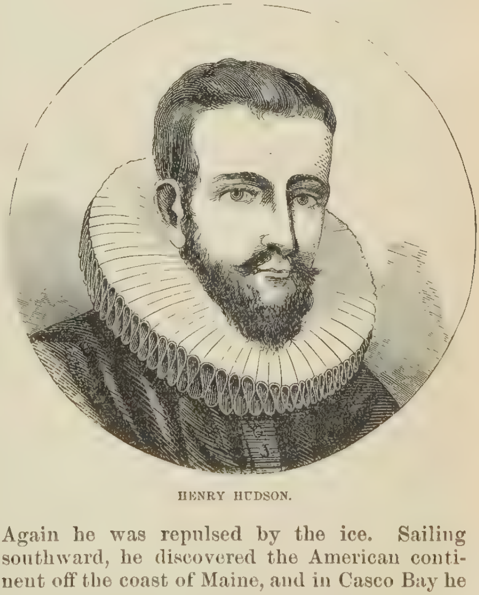
Hubbardton, BATTLE AT (1777). Generals Fraser and Riedesel, with British and German troops, began a pursuit of the Americans as soon as their flight from Ticonderoga was discovered. They overtook their rear-guard, about 1200 strong (July 7, 1777), at Hubbardton, Vt. The main body of St. Clair's army had marched towards Castleton, leaving the rear-guard, under Colonel Seth Warner, to gather up stragglers. While waiting their arrival, Warner was struck by the van of the pursuers, and a sharp engagement took place. Colonel Francis, of New Hampshire, was killed. The Americans were dispersed, and fled, excepting 200 who were made prisoners. The pursuers lost almost as many in killed and wounded, and soon gave up the chase. St. Clair, with about 2000 men, made his way through the woods to Fort Edward. The Americans also lost 120 in killed and wounded. The British captured about 200 stand of arms.

Huddy and Asgill. Captain Joseph Huddy was a captain in the New Jersey line during the Revolution. Late in 1781 he was in charge of a block-house on Tom's River, Monmouth County, N. J. There he and his little garrison were captured in March, 1782, by a band of refugee loyalists sent by the "Board of Associated Loyalists" of New York, of which ex-Governor Franklin of New Jersey was president, and taken to that city. On April 8, these prisoners were put in charge of Captain Richard Lippincott, a New Jersey loyalist, who took them in a sloop to the British guard-ship at Sandy Hook. There Huddy was falsely charged with being concerned in the death of Philip White, a desperate Tory, who was killed while trying to escape from his guard. While a prisoner, Huddy was taken by Lippincott to a point at the foot of the Navesink Hills, near the present light-houses, and there hanged. Lippincott affixed a label to the breast of the murdered Huddy, on which retaliation was threatened, and ending with the words, "*Up goes Huddy for Philip White!*"

This murder created intense excitement at Freehold, N. J., where Huddy was buried, and the leading citizens petitioned Washington to retaliate. A council of his officers decided in favor of retaliation, and that Lippincott, the leader, ought to suffer. He was demanded of Sir Henry Clinton. Congress authorized retaliation, and from among several British officers, prisoners of war, Captain Charles Asgill, a handsome young officer, twenty years of age, and son of Sir Charles Asgill, was chosen by lot, to be executed immediately. Washington postponed the execution until he should hear from Clinton about the surrender of Lippincott. Clinton at once condemned the action of Lippincott, and ordered (April 26) the Board of Associated Loyalists not to remove or exchange any prisoners of war without the authority of the commander-in-chief. He caused the arrest of Lippincott for trial, who claimed that he acted under the orders of the Board of Associated Loyalists. Franklin tried to get him to sign a paper that he had acted without their orders or approbation, but he stoutly refused, and was acquitted. Sir Guy Carleton succeeded Clinton, and he promised that further inquiry in the matter should be had. Meanwhile months elapsed and the execution was postponed. Lady Asgill appealed to the king in behalf of her only son. She also wrote to the King and Queen of France asking them to intercede with Washington. She also wrote a touching letter to Washington, who was disposed to save the young officer, if possible. The King and Queen of France did intercede, and on Nov. 5, 1782, Congress resolved, "That the commander-in-chief be, and hereby is, directed to set Captain Asgill at liberty." It was done. The case of young Asgill had created an intense interest in Europe, and, on the arrival of every ship from America at any European port, the first inquiry was about the fate of Asgill. In 1836, Congress granted to Martha Piatt, only surviving child of Captain Huddy, then seventy years of age, $1200 in money and 600 acres in land, the "amount due Captain Huddy for seven years' service as captain of artillery." Asgill succeeded to the title and estate of his father, and rose to the rank of general in the British army. The famous Madame de Sevigné made the story of Captain Asgill the groundwork of a tragic drama.

CAPTAIN CHARLES ASGILL.

Hudson, Henry, was born about the middle of the sixteenth century. He was an expert English navigator, and was first employed by English merchants, in 1607, to search for a northeastern passage to India. He sailed from Gravesend on the 1st of May, 1607, in a small vessel manned by only ten men and a boy—the latter his son. In latitude 80°, on the eastern coast of Greenland, he was stopped by the ice-pack. He fought the ice-floes and storms for many weeks, and then returned to England in September, bearing only the fruit of the discovery of the island of Spitzbergen. Neither he nor his employers were disheartened, and late in April, 1608, he sailed again, expecting to make a passage between Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla. Again he was compelled by the ice to turn back. His employers were now discouraged, and Hudson went over to Holland and offered his services to the Dutch East India Company, and they were accepted. On the 6th of April, 1609, he sailed from Amsterdam in the *Half Moon*, a stanch vessel of ninety tons, and steered for Nova Zembla. Again the ice-barrier forbade his entrance to the polar seas. Determined not to return fruitless to Amsterdam, he sailed around the southern shores of Greenland, into the beaten track of searchers after a northwest passage. Again he was repulsed by the ice. Sailing southward, he discovered the American continent off the coast of Maine, and in Casco Bay he repaired his storm-shattered vessel. He then sailed southward as far as the Capes of Virginia, touching at Cape Cod on the way. Returning, he discovered Delaware Bay, and early in September he entered Raritan Bay, south of Staten Island, and afterwards entered the (present) har-


HENRY HUDSON.

bor of New York. Treating the Indians unkindly, they were hostile, and one of his seamen was killed by them, who attacked a boat's crew in canoes. From the north flowed a large river into New York Bay. Believing it would afford a northwest passage, he sailed up the stream, and was not undeceived until he met fresh-water in the Highlands. He kept on in his ship as far as the site of Albany, and in small boats several miles farther. Returning to the sea, he followed the coast southward as far as Chesapeake Bay, and then returned to England and told the story of his discoveries. The unworthy monarch on England's throne, jealous of the advantage which the Dutch might derive from Hudson's discoveries, detained him as an English subject; but the navigator outwitted his sovereign, for he had sent an account of his voyage to his Amsterdam employers by a trusty hand. Hudson made a fourth voyage, in 1610, leaving England in April, and in June and July discovered, far up the coast of North America, the bay that bears his name, and intended to winter there, but his provisions ran short and he was compelled to return. Some of his crew mutinied, and, seizing him, placed him, his son, and seven of his adherents in an open boat, and set them adrift. His fate was revealed by one of the mutineers. England sent an expedition in search of him, but no trace could be found.

Hudson, Henry, Cruel Fate of. In 1610 Henry Hudson sailed from England on his fourth voyage in search of a polar ocean passage to India; this time in the northwest. He discovered the bay that bears his name in the far north of the western hemisphere, and intended to winter there; but a majority of his crew became mutinous and compelled him to sail homeward. On the way his son and seven of his men who had remained faithful to him were seized by the mutineers, and, with the commander, were placed in an open shallop and abandoned on the icy sea, where, of course, they soon perished. The names of the wretched passengers in that little vessel, left to perish, were Henry Hudson, John Hudson, Arnold Ludlow, Shadrach Fanna, Philip Staffe, Thomas Woodhouse, Adam Moore, Henry King, and Michael Bute. The compassionate carpenter of the ship furnished them with a fowling-piece, some powder and shot, some meal and an iron pot to cook it in, and a few other things. They were towed by the ship out of the ice-floes to the open sea, and then cut adrift.

Hudson's Bay Company, Foundation of the. In 1666 Captain Gillam was sent from England in a ship to search for a northwest passage to India through Hudson's Bay. He sailed into Baffin's Bay, but was turned back at the seventy-fifth degree by the ice-pack. He then entered Hudson's Bay, and sailed to the southern end of it, where, at the mouth of a river which he named Rupert, he built a fort which he named Charles, and laid the foundations of a fur-trade with the natives. Two years afterwards the Hudson's Bay Company was chartered. The king gave to Prince Rupert, and several lords, knights, and merchants associated with him, a charter, under the title of the "Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay." The charter ceded to the company the whole trade of the waters within the entrance to Hudson's Strait and of the adjacent territories. The original sum invested by the company was a little more than $50,000. No trade in the world was so profitable as that engaged in by the Hudson's Bay Company. It was said that at one time the proprietors of the stock, not ninety in number, gained about two thousand per cent.

Hudson's Voyage up the North River, Limit of. There is some difference of opinion as to the limit of Hudson's voyage in the river that bears his name, De Laet making it the forty-third degree of north latitude, which is about twenty-five miles above Albany. Juet, in his journal of the voyage, says the *Half Moon* anchored (probably near the site of Albany), and sent out small boats to explore the rapidly shallowing stream. The boats probably went a little distance above the site of Waterford; probably to between latitude 42° and 43°. Brodhead, the latest historian of New Netherland, says he thinks the boats went, probably, "some distance above Waterford."

Huger, Isaac, was born in South Carolina, March 19, 1742; died in Charleston, S. C., in November, 1797. He and his four brothers—Daniel, John, Francis, and Benjamin—were distinguished in the struggle for independence, the latter falling in the lines at Charleston, May 11, 1780. They were of Huguenot descent. Isaac was in the Cherokee expedition in 1760, and entered the patriot army of South Carolina as lieutenant-colonel in June, 1775. He rose to brigadier in January, 1779, for active and gallant services. In the attack on Savannah, in the fall of that year, he led the Georgia and South Carolina militia. His force was defeated and dispersed by Tarleton at Monk's Corner, S. C. He distinguished himself under Greene, especially at Guilford and Hobkirk's Hill (which see).

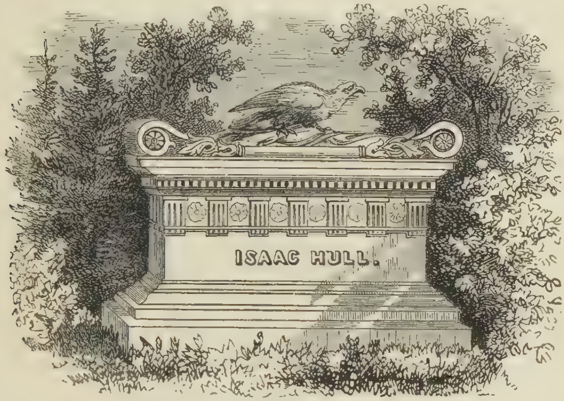
Huguenots in America. The name of Huguenot was first given to the Protestants of France who favored the Reformation, but afterwards it was confined to the Calvinists, or followers of John Calvin, who was the morning-star of the Reformation in that country. Under his teaching the number of Protestants in France rapidly increased from 1528 to 1559, when the great synod held in May adopted Calvin's ideas of church government and discipline, as well as doctrine, in an embodied confession of faith. The Huguenots were then so strong that they confidently expected to be the dominant party in the state in time. They included some of the royal family and many of the nobility. Among the latter were Admiral Coligni, a man respected by both parties, a brave and patriotic soldier, and for a while the favorite of the queen-mother and regent of France, Catharine de' Medici. In 1555 he formed a project of a settlement for the persecuted Huguenots in America; and in that year Henry II. furnished two ships, commanded by the Chevalier de Villagagnon, who, with a small Protestant colony, sailed from Havre-de-Grace in May (1555), and reached the bay of Rio Janeiro, Brazil, in September. Coligni provided ministers for his colony, and in a synod that year, held at Geneva, of which Calvin was president, the church determined to send two ministers to Brazil. The enterprise was a failure. On the death of Henry, Queen Catharine became regent of the kingdom during the minority of her son Charles. She cared nothing for religion, but had espoused the cause of the Protestants because the leader of the Roman Catholics was the Duke of Guise, a descendant of Charlemagne, and a claimant of a right to the French throne. The Protestants were still suffering greatly from persecution, and late in 1561 Coligni sought permission from Catharine to provide a refuge for them in the wilds of America. She readily granted all he desired, and early in 1562 he sent John Ribault, an expert mariner of Dieppe, with two caravels (small two-masted ships without whole decks), with sailors and soldiers, and a few gentlemen of fortune, who were prompted by a love of adventure and the prospect of gain to seek a place wherein to plant a colony. They arrived off the coast of Anastasia Island (it is supposed), below the site of St. Augustine, at the close of April. Sailing along the "sweet-smelling coast" of Florida, northward, the two vessels entered a river which was named Mary, and were kindly received by the natives when they landed. The Frenchmen were delighted with everything they beheld—the climate; the forest, redolent with the perfume of the magnolia; birds with gorgeous plumage and sweetest notes; and "people of the finest forms and kindest natures." In the presence of half-naked, wondering semi-worshippers, the Christians knelt in the shadows of a flower-laden magnolia-tree, and offered thanksgivings to God for their safe voyage. At twilight they returned to their ships; and the next morning conveyed a stone column, on which were carved the arms of France, planted it on a flowery knoll, and in the usual manner took possession of the country in the name of the boy-king Charles IX., son of Catharine. A few days later they sailed northward, entered a broad sound which they named Port Royal, on the coast of South Carolina, explored the Coosa and the Combahee, in the land where D'Allyon met a deserved fate (see *D'Allyon*), and on Port Royal Island, near the site of Beaufort, made choice of a spot for a colony. The Indians were kind, and so were the Frenchmen, and there was mutual friendship. Ribault addressed his company on the glory to be obtained and the advantage to the persecuted Huguenots by planting there the seed of empire, and asked, "Who will undertake the work?" Nearly all were willing. A colony of thirty persons was organized by the choice of Albert Pierria for governor. Ribault built a fort, and named it Carolina, in honor of his king, the remains of which were yet visible when the writer visited it in 1866. After giving the colonists good advice, Ribault departed for Europe with the rest of the company. Coligni was delighted with his report, but was unable to do anything for his colony then, for civil war was raging between the Huguenots and Roman Catholics. When it subsided the admiral sent three vessels—the *Elizabeth of Honfleur*, the *Pétite Britain*, and the *Falcon*—under the command of René-Laudonnière, who was with the former expedition, to the aid and reinforcement of the colony. He was accompanied by Jacob Lemoyne, an artist and geographer; two skilful pilots (the brothers Vasseur) of Dieppe; and many young men of family and fortune, as well as mechanics and laborers. Laudonnière left Havre-de-Grace on the 22d of April, 1564, reached the coast of Florida in two months, and, instead of going to Port Royal, he proceeded to plant a colony on the banks of the St. John. He had evidently heard of the fate of the first colony before leaving France. That colony, expecting supplies from home, had not planted, and when Ribault did not return they were menaced with starvation. The friendly Indians supplied them with corn, but it was consumed by fire. Dissensions arose among them, a mutiny broke out, and their governor was murdered. The Indians became distrustful of the Frenchmen and withheld supplies, and the latter determined to desert Port Royal. Constructing a frail brigantine, they departed for home, with scanty supplies. Tempest-tossed on the ocean, their food was exhausted, and their vessel floated, a mere wreck, on the waters. One after another died and fell into the sea, and the survivors were about to eat the last victim when a green shore greeted their eyes, and a small vessel saved them from death. It is believed they were on the shores of England, for it is known that some of these French adventurers were taken before Queen Elizabeth, and gave her the first information concerning that beautiful middle region of America which Raleigh afterwards tried to colonize. (See *Raleigh.*) Laudonnière anchored his ship, landed where Ribault had set up the arms of France, and erected a fort on the south bank of the river, which he named Carolina. Rumors came of rich mines in the interior, and a violent gold-fever raged. Disappointment cured the fever, but idleness and improvidence were the rule in the colony. There were too many "gentlemen" who would not soil their hands with labor. At length there was a mutiny, and some of the soldiers and sailors seized two of the vessels, sailed for the West Indies, and turned pirates. The rich soil was neglected, starvation was threatened, and Laudonnière determined to return to France. From Sir John Hawkins (see *Drake, Sir Francis*), who sailed into the St. John, he bought a ship, and was about to embark for Europe with the whole company, when Ribault appeared with a squadron of seven ships, with supplies, and a fresh colony of men, women, and children. He arrived near the close of August, 1565. A few days afterwards Pedro Menendez, a Spanish officer, appeared off the mouth of the St. John with five ships, who told Laudonnière that he was sent by his master, Philip of Spain, to hang and destroy all Protestants whom he should find on land or sea; that he should execute his orders to the letter, and that if any Roman Catholics were among the Huguenots they should be well treated. The captains of the French vessels cut their cables and put to sea, chased by the Spaniards, who could not overtake them, and returned to the coast farther south. The Frenchmen returned to the St. John, where Indians brought the news that the Spaniards had landed, and were building fortifications. Ribault, who was in chief command, believing the Spaniards meant to march overland and attack Fort Carolina, with three ships manned by sailors and soldiers went to sea to drive their enemies from the coast. Meanwhile Menendez had sent a galleon to Cuba for a reinforcement of Spanish troops. The spot fortified by Menendez was the site of St. Augustine, Fla. During Ribault's absence the Spanish marched over the country, captured Fort Carolina, butchered a greater portion of the Huguenots there, and hanged some of them upon trees, with the inscription over them, "Not as Frenchmen, but as Lutherans." The number of Huguenots murdered there was one hundred and forty-two. Ribault's vessels meanwhile had been wrecked below St. Augustine, and while making his way towards Fort Carolina, with about three hundred men, they were caught by the Spaniards and massacred. Laudonnière and a few others escaped from the St. John, and so ended the Huguenot colony. (See *Coligni.*) A fiery Frenchman, Chevalier Dominic de Gourges, a Roman Catholic, determined to avenge this outrage. He sold his property to obtain money to fit out an expedition to Florida. He kept his destination a secret, even from his followers. He arrived in Florida in the spring of 1568, and was joined by the natives in an attack upon two forts on the St. John occupied by the Spaniards below Fort Carolina. The strong places were captured, and the whole of the Spaniards were slaughtered, excepting a few whom De Gourges hanged upon trees, under the words, "Not as Spaniards and mariners, but as traitors, robbers, and murderers." Menendez firmly planted a colony at St. Augustine. In 1598 Henry IV., of France, issued an edict at Nantes (see *Edict of Nantes*) that secured full toleration, civil and religious, for the Huguenots, and there was comparative rest for the Protestants until the death of Cardinal Mazarin, in 1661. Then the Huguenots began to be persecuted, and in 1685 Louis XIV. revoked the Edict of Nantes. The fires of intolerance were kindled, and burned so furiously that at least five hundred thousand Protestants took refuge in foreign lands. In 1705 there was not a single organized congregation of Huguenots in all France. Many came to America—some to South Carolina, some to New York, and a few to Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Virginia. They formed excellent social elements wherever they settled, and many leading patriots in our old war for independence were descended from them. Three of the presidents of the Continental Congress—Henry Laurens, John Jay, and Elias Boudinot—were of Huguenot parentage.

Huguenots in Brazil. The benevolent Admiral De Coligni formed a project in 1555 to establish a colony of Huguenots, or French Protestants (see *Huguenots*) in Brazil, where they might have freedom in divine worship; also to promote the interests of his nation. Two ships, furnished by Henry II., of France, were placed under the command of the Chevalier De Villagagnon, who sailed with a colony of Protestants from Havre-de-Grace in May. They arrived on the coast of South America in September, at the harbor of (present) Rio Janeiro. There on an island an attempt was made to build a fort, but it was washed away by the sea. Some Protestant ministers were invited from Geneva. At a synod held at Geneva in that year, of which Calvin was president, it was resolved to send two ministers to Brazil; they finally sent fourteen missionaries in 1556. Three ships were fitted out at the royal expense to convey more Protestants to Brazil, under the command of Villagagnon, who had embraced the Reformed religion, but abandoned it and returned to the bosom of the Roman Catholic Church. His treatment of the colony under his charge caused its ruin, and nearly all of the emigrants returned to France. But for the treachery of Villagagnon Rio Janeiro might now have been the capital of a French, instead of a Portuguese, empire.

Hull, Isaac, was born at Derby, Conn., March 9, 1775; died in Philadelphia, Feb. 13, 1843. At the age of nineteen he commanded a merchant ship which sailed to London. He entered the navy as lieutenant in 1798, and rose to captain in 1806. He was in the *Constitution*, and distinguished himself in the West Indies and in the Mediterranean. He sailed in the *Constitution* in July, 1812, and had a remarkable chase by a British squadron. (See *Constitution, Famous Retreat of the.*) In August he encountered the *Guerriere*, and made her a captive. (See *Constitution and Guerriere.*) For this exploit Congress

ISAAC HULL.

voted Captain Hull a gold medal. Afterwards he was a naval commissioner, and commodore of the navy-yards at Boston, Portsmouth, and Washington. He served in the American navy, afloat and ashore, thirty-seven years. His remains rest in Laurel Hill Cemetery, and over them is a beautiful altar-tomb of Italian marble—a copy of the tomb of Scipio Barbato at Rome. It is chastely ornamented, and surmounted by an American eagle, in the attitude of defending the national flag, upon which it stands.



HULL'S MONUMENT.

Hull, WILLIAM, was born at Derby, Conn., June 24, 1753; died at Newton, Mass., Nov. 29, 1825. He graduated at Yale College in 1772, studied divinity a year, then became a student at the Litchfield Law School, and was admitted to the bar in 1775. He soon afterwards became captain in Webb's regiment, and joined the Continental army at Cambridge. He behaved bravely at Dorchester Heights, White Plains, Trenton, and Princeton, and after the battle at the latter place he was promoted to major. Through all the most conspicuous battles in the North, Hull was active and courageous, and a participant in the capture of Cornwallis. He served as inspector under the Baron de Steuben, was promoted to lieutenant-colonel in 1779, and soon afterwards to colonel. Hull practised law with reputation at Newton after the war, was a leading member of the Massachusetts Legislature in both houses, and was a noted man in wealth and reputation in that state when he became major-general of militia. He commanded a portion of the troops which suppressed Shay's Rebellion (which see). In 1793 he was a commissioner to Canada to treat with the Indians; and on his return from Europe, in 1798, he was made a judge of the Court of Common Pleas. From 1805 to 1812 he was governor of Michigan Territory, where, after a fruitless and brief campaign for the invasion of Canada, as commander of the Army of the Northwest, he was compelled to surrender Detroit and the territory into the possession of the British. (See *Canada, Invasion of.*) For this act he was tried by a court-martial, sentenced to death, pardoned by the President, and afterwards published such a thorough vindication of his conduct that his name and fame now appear in history untarnished.

WILLIAM HULL.

Hull's Evacuation of Canada. Hull's army, which had crossed the Detroit River into Canada, lay almost inactive between Sandwich and Fort Malden. The young officers of the army became exceedingly impatient, and almost mutinous, because Hull continually restrained them, and was unwilling to send out detachments on offensive expeditions. He had given Van Horne so few men wherewith to escort Captain Brush, with his cattle and provisions (see *Van Horne's Defeat*), that when the army heard of the disaster to the troops there was plain and loud talk at headquarters that startled the general. "Send five hundred men at once," said McArthur and Cass, "to escort Brush to headquarters." "I cannot spare more than one hundred," replied Hull. The mutinous spirit was then so threatening that Hull called a council of officers, when it was agreed to march immediately upon Fort Malden. The troops were delighted. Preparations went on vigorously, and an order to march for Amherstburg was momentarily expected, when, near the close of the day, an order was promulgated for the army to *recross the river to Detroit!*—an order to abandon Canada. This order was in consequence of intelligence just received that a large force of British regulars, Canadian militia, and Indians were approaching from the east, under Governor Sir Isaac Brock. Sullenly the humiliated army obeyed their cautious commander, and on the night of Aug. 7 and the morning of the 8th they crossed the Detroit River, and encamped upon the rolling plain in the rear of Fort Detroit. Major Denny was left on the Canada side with one hundred and thirty convalescents and a corps of artillerists, to occupy Sandwich and afford "all possible protection to the well-disposed inhabitants." The chief object of the evacuation was to secure a permanent communication between his army and the sources of his supplies in the Ohio settlements.

Hull's Invasion of Canada. When General Hull arrived near Detroit with his army (July 6, 1812), he encamped at Spring Wells, opposite Sandwich, where the British were casting up intrenchments. His troops were anxious to cross the Detroit River immediately and invade Canada, but Hull had orders to await advices from Washington. The troops became almost mutinous. The general was perplexed, but was relieved by receiving a despatch from the Secretary of War telling him to "commence operations immediately." He could not procure boats enough to carry over a sufficient force to land in the face of the enemy at Sandwich, so he resorted to strategy. Towards the evening of July 11 all the boats were sent down to Spring Wells, in full view of the British, and Colonel McArthur, with his regiment, marched to the same place. After dark troops and boats moved up the river unobserved to Bloody Run, above Detroit. The British, finding all silent at Spring Wells, believed the Americans had gone down to attack Malden, eighteen miles below, so they left Sandwich and hurried to its defence. At dawn there were no troops to oppose the passage of the Americans, and Hull's troops passed the river unmolested. Colonel Cass hoisted the American flag at Sandwich, and the American troops encamped near. On the same day Hull issued a stirring proclamation, in which he set forth the reasons for the invasion, and assured the inhabitants that all who remained at home should be secure in person and property. He did not ask them to join him, but to remain quiet. This proclamation, and the presence of a considerable army, caused many Canadian militia to desert their standard. To the Americans the conquest of Canada appeared like an easy task. (See *Canada, Attempted Conquest of.*)

Hull's Surrender. (See *Detroit, Surrender of.*)

Hull's Trial. General William Hull, on his release at Montreal, on parole (see *Detroit, Surrender of*), returned to his farm at Newton, Mass., from which he was summoned to appear before a court-martial at Philadelphia on the 25th of February, 1813, of which General Wade Hampton was appointed president. The members of the court were three brigadier-generals, nine colonels, and three lieutenant-colonels. A. J. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, was judge-advocate. This court was suddenly dissolved by the President, without giving any reason for the act; and, almost a year afterwards, Hull was summoned before another, convened at Albany, N. Y., June 3, 1814, composed of three brigadiers, four colonels, and five lieutenant-colonels, with Dallas as judge-advocate. General Dearborn was appointed president of the court. To his neglect of duty to inform Hull of an armistice he had entered into with the British (and so allowed Brock to go unopposed to Fort Malden with troops) was charged by the accused and his friends as the chief cause of the disaster at Detroit. The defendant might justly have objected to that officer as his chief judge, for the acquittal of Hull would have been a condemnation of Dearborn. But Hull was anxious for trial, and he waived all feeling. He was charged with treason, cowardice, neglect of duty, and unofficerlike conduct from April 9 until Aug. 16, 1812. He was tried on the last two charges only. Colonel Cass was his chief accuser. The specifications under the charge of "Cowardice" were: "1. Not attacking Malden, and retreating to Detroit. 2. Appearance of alarm during the cannonade. 3. Appearance of alarm on the day of the surrender. 4. Surrendering of Detroit." The specifications under the last charge were similar to those under the first. After a session of eighty days, the court decided (March 26, 1814) that he was not guilty of treason, but found him guilty of cowardice and neglect of duty, and sentenced him to be shot dead, and his name stricken from the rolls of the army. The court strongly recommended him to the mercy of the President, on account of his age and his Revolutionary services. On the 25th of April, 1814, the President approved the sentence of the court-martial, and on the same day the following order, bearing the signature of Adjutant-general Walbach, was issued: "The rolls of the army are to be no longer disgraced by having upon them the name of Brigadier-general William Hull. The General Court-martial, of which General Dearborn is president, is hereby dissolved." For about twelve years Hull lived under a cloud. His applications to the War Department at Washington for copies of papers which would vindicate him were denied, until John C. Calhoun became Secretary of War, when he promptly furnished them. With these General Hull set about writing his vindication, which was contained in a pamphlet of a little more than three hundred pages, entitled *Memoirs of the Campaign of the Northwestern Army of the United States.* It wrought a great change in the public mind. It was seen that he had been misjudged by his impetuous young officers; that his motives in making the surrender were humane and just, and that his assuming the whole responsibility of the act was heroic in the extreme. To Mr. Wallace, one of his aids, he said, when they parted at Detroit: "God bless you, my young friend! You return to your family without a stain; as for myself, I have sacrificed a reputation dearer to me than life; but I have saved the inhabitants of Detroit, and my heart approves the act." Colonel Cass, later in life, declared it to be his conviction that the main defect of General Hull was "the imbecility of age." To-day, the character of General William Hull, purified of unwarranted stains, appears in history without a blemish in the eye of just appreciation.

Humphreys, Andrew Atkinson, LL.D., was born in Pennsylvania in 1812, and graduated at West Point in 1831. He distinguished himself in Florida (see *Seminole War*) in 1832, and resigned in 1836. He re-entered the army as lieutenant of topographical engineers in 1838. From

1845 to 1849 he assisted in the coast survey, and in 1853 took charge of the office of Explorations and Surveys, in the War Department. He became a member of General McClellan's staff in March, 1862, and soon afterwards was made brigadier-general of volunteers. He fought at Fredericksburg and Chancellorsville; became General Meade's chief-of-staff from July, 1863, to November, 1864, and commanded the Second Corps from November, 1864, to June, 1865. He was breveted major-general for meritorious services in the siege of Petersburg and the pursuit and capture of General Lee.

Humphreys, David, LL.D., was born at Derby, Conn., July, 1752; died at New Haven, Conn., Feb. 21, 1818. He graduated at Yale College in 1771, and was for a short time tutor in the family of Colonel Phillipse, of Phillipse Manor, N. Y. He entered the army as captain early in the war for independence, and in October, 1777, was major of a brigade. He was aid to General Putnam in 1778, and early in 1780 was made aid to Washington. Having distinguished himself at Yorktown, he was made the bearer of the captured British standards to Congress, when that body voted him an elegant sword. At the close of the war he accompanied Washington to Mount Vernon, and in July, 1784, went to France as secretary of legation to Jefferson, accompanied by Kosciuszko. In 1787 he was appointed colonel of a regiment for the Western service, but when it was reduced, in 1788, he again went to Mount Vernon, where he remained with Washington until sent as minister to Portugal in 1790. He was master of ceremonies in regulating the etiquette of the republican court of the first President. Appointed Minister to Spain (1797), he continued there until 1802, and concluded treaties with Algiers and Tripoli. Colonel Humphreys was extensively engaged in agriculture and manufactures after his return to America, and in 1812 he took command of the militia of Connecticut. Colonel Humphreys was a poet of considerable genius; also a dramatic writer. He wrote a life of General Putnam in 1798.

DAVID HUMPHREYS.

Hundred, A, was a territorial division, having for its chief object the more convenient and efficient administration of justice. The name was originally derived from the fact that each of these divisions was to contain one hundred free families. In England, to each hundred belonged a court baron, similar in its nature and extent of jurisdiction to a county court. Our towns are the equivalents of the ancient hundreds.

Hundred Associates—New France. Cardinal Richelieu, in 1627, annulled a charter of the "Trading Company of New France," then held by the Sieurs De Caen, who were Huguenots, and in pursuance of his plans for the suppression of these Protestants and the aggrandizement of his monarch, organized a company under the name of the Hundred Associates, to whom he gave the absolute sovereignty of the whole of New France, then claimed to include the American territory from Florida to Hudson's Bay. They were given complete monopoly of the trade in that region, excepting in the whale and cod fisheries. The charter required the company to settle four thousand Roman Catholics there within fifteen years, to maintain and permanently endow the Roman Catholic Church in New France, and to banish all Huguenots or Protestants from the colony. Circumstances frustrated this magnificent scheme of temporal and spiritual dominion in America. Canada was conquered by the British in 1629, but was restored by the treaty of St. Germain-en-Laye (March 27, 1632), the whole of Canada, Cape Breton, and Acadia being restored to the French. The scheme of the Hundred Associates was not revived.

Hunker, a name given to a conservative in politics in the United States; one opposed to progress; an "old fogy." It was one of the names applied to opposing sections of the Democratic party. The other name, at the time, was "Barnburner" (which see).

Hunt, Henry Jackson, was born in Ohio about 1821, and graduated at West Point in 1839. He served in the war with Mexico, and in May, 1861, was made major of artillery. In September he became aid to General McClellan, with the rank of colonel, and in September, 1862, was made brigadier-general of volunteers. In the battle of Bull's Run he was engaged in command of the artillery on the extreme left. He was chief of staff of the Army of the Potomac in the campaign on the Peninsula, and continued with that army as one of its most efficient and useful officers until the close of the war. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general of the United States Army.

Hunt, Rev. Robert, the first pastor of the Virginia Colony. He went out with Newport and the first settlers as chaplain, having been recommended by Richard Hakluyt. (See *Hakluyt, Richard.*) He is supposed to have been a rector in Kent. He was a peace-maker amid the dissenters of the first colonists. Mr. Hunt held the first public service at Jamestown, under an awning, but soon afterwards a barn-like structure was erected for worship. In the winter of 1608 a fire burned Mr. Hunt's little library, and the next year he died. He was succeeded for a brief season by Rev. Mr. Glover, who soon died. He had accompanied Sir Thomas Gates to Virginia.

Hunter, DAVID, was born in Washington, D. C., July 21, 1802, and graduated at West Point in 1822. He was appointed colonel of cavalry in May, 1861, and commanded the main column of the Union troops, as brigadier, in the battle of Bull's Run, and was severely wounded. In August he was made major-general of volunteers; served under Frémont in Missouri, and superseded him in November. In the spring of 1862 he was in command of the Department of the South. He commanded the Department of West Virginia in the summer of 1864, where he was active for a while. For his various services he was breveted major-general in the United States Army in March, 1865, and retired in June, 1866.

Hunter, ROBERT MERCER TALIAFERRO, was born in Essex County, Va., April 21, 1809, and was educated at the University of Virginia. He became a member of the House of Delegates when twenty-four years of age, and was a member of Congress from 1837 to 1841, and from 1845 to 1847. From 1839 to 1841 he was speaker. Mr. Hunter was always one of the most persistent supporters of the doctrine of state supremacy and of the slave-labor system, advocating with vehemence all measures calculated to enforce the practical operations of the former and to nationalize the latter. In 1847 he became a United States Senator, and remained such by re-election until July, 1861, when he was expelled from that body for treason against the government. He became the Confederate "Secretary of State," and afterwards a member of the Confederate Congress. After the war he was arrested and held for a while as a prisoner of state, but was released on his parole and pardoned by President Johnson in 1867.

Hunter's Emancipation Proclamation. In the spring of 1862 General David Hunter was in command of the "Department of the South." He declared martial law in his department. Giving a free interpretation to his instructions from the War Department, he took measures for organizing regiments of negro troops; and to facilitate the business of recruiting he issued a general order (April 25, 1862) which proclaimed the absolute freedom of all the slaves within his department, declaring that "slavery and martial law, in a free country, are incompatible." This was a step too far in advance of public sentiment, then, and of the government policy of that period; so President Lincoln annulled the order, and President Davis outlawed Generals Hunter and Phelps. General Mitchell took Hunter's place.

Hunters' Lodges. When the insurrection broke out in Canada in 1837, the Americans strongly sympathized with the insurgents, regarding them as patriots seeking for political freedom. This sympathy was most vehement along the frontier between the United States and Canada. Men banded in secret organizations with a view to give material aid to the insurgents, and this was given pretty freely by bodies of excitable citizens, led by such men as Van Rensselaer, who took possession of Navy Island in the Niagara River, belonging to Canada, or William Johnson, who was called the "Pirate of the Thousand Islands," and was outlawed by the governments of the United States and Great Britain. These secret organizations were called "Hunters' Lodges." Among their members were many Canadian refugees, and William Lyon Mackenzie, the chief agitator in Upper Canada, who had been driven from the province, organized an "Executive Committee" at Buffalo, N. Y., for the purpose of directing the invasion of Canada. These "Hunters' Lodges" organized invading parties at Detroit, Sandusky, Oswego, and Watertown, in northern New York, and in Vermont. At one time, Van Rensselaer and Johnson had under them about 2000 men, at an island a little below Kingston, U. C. It is said that these "Hunters' Lodges" within the American lines numbered, at one time, nearly 1200, with a membership of 80,000 souls. They were kept up after the insurrection was crushed and its leaders were hanged, imprisoned, or exiled. The "Hunters' Lodges" were suppressed by order of President Tyler in 1842.

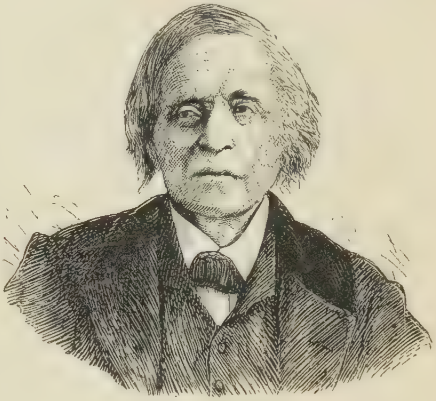
Huntington, EBENEZER, was born at Norwich, Conn., Dec. 26, 1754; died there, June 17, 1834. He graduated at Yale College in 1775, and joined the patriot army as lieutenant in Wyllys's regiment. He served under Heath, Parsons, and Watts, and commanded the regiment of the latter in Rhode Island in 1778 as lieutenant-colonel. At Yorktown he commanded a battalion of infantry, and served on General Lincoln's staff until the end of the war, when he was made a general of the Connecticut militia. Huntington was named by Washington for brigadier-general in 1798. In 1810–11 and 1817–19 he was a member of Congress. His father, Jabez, was an earnest patriot, devoting his five sons as soldiers in the cause of freedom, and was active himself, serving on the Committee of Safety during the war.

Huntington, JEDEDIAH, was born at Norwich, Conn., Aug. 4, 1743; died at New London, Sept. 25, 1813. He graduated at Harvard College in 1763. He was an active Son of Liberty, and joined the army at Cambridge, April 26, 1775; was made brigadier-general in May, 1777; joined the Continental army near Philadelphia in the fall of 1777; and in 1778 was on the court-martial that tried General Lee. After the war he held several civil offices, among them collector of customs at New London, which he filled during four administrations. General Huntington was a member of the first Board of Foreign Missions.

Hurlbut, STEPHEN AUGUSTUS, was born at Charleston, S. C., March 24, 1815; became a lawyer; served in the Florida War; and in 1845 settled in Illinois. He was appointed brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1861; commanded at Fort Donelson after its capture; also a division at the battle of Shiloh (which see); and was made major-general in September, 1862. He served under Sherman in Mississippi; succeeded Banks in command of the Department of the Gulf; and in 1869 was sent as minister to Colombia, South America.

Huron-Iroquois. The name Iroquois was given by the French to the most interesting of all the dusky nations in North America. They prefixed the name Huron, because their language indicated the Hurons—who were seated near the shores of Georgian Bay—to be a part of the Iroquois family, and, like them, were isolated in the midst of the Algonquins when discovered by the French. (See *Hurons.*) The Huron-Iroquois have been considered in the article on the "Iroquois Confederacy" (which see). The "Six Nations," as they were called at the period of the Revolution, now number about 13,600, distributed as follows: 7000 in Canada, at the following places: Bay of Quinté, on the Grand River, on the Thames, at Sault St. Louis, at St. Regis, and at the Lake of the Two Mountains. The 6600 in the United States are mostly in the State of New York, where there are over 5000. The remainder are at Green Bay and the Quapaw agency.

Husband, HERMANN, a leader of the North Carolina "Regulators," was born in Pennsylvania, and died near Philadelphia in 1795. He was a member of the Society of Friends by birth and profession. Removing to Orange County, N. C., he became a member of the Legislature of that colony, and a leader among the opponents of the royal government called Regulators (which see) in 1768, organized for the forcible redress of public grievances. When, on May 14, 1771, a battle began on the Allemance Creek between one thousand men under Governor Tryon and two thousand Regulators (in which the latter were defeated), Husband declared that the peace principles of his sect would not allow him to fight. He had not objected to the arming of the people, but when they were about to use their arms he rode away, and was never afterwards seen in that region until the struggle for independence was over. He had made his way to Pennsylvania, where, in 1771, he published an account of the Regulator movement. Husband was a member of the Pennsylvania Legislature in 1778, and was concerned in the Whiskey Insurrection (which see) in 1794, with Gallatin, Breckenridge, and others, as a committee of safety. For this offence he suffered a short imprisonment at Philadelphia. He died on his way home.


WILLIAM HUTCHINGS.

REMAINS OF FORT GEORGE, IN 1860.

Hutchings, WILLIAM, one of the latest survivors of the Continental soldiers (which see), was born at York, Me., Oct. 6, 1764; died May 2, 1866. He and Lemuel Cook (which see), another of the later survivors, were born the same year, and died the same month. They were the last survivors of the soldiers in the old war for independence. His father lived until he was ninety-one years old. When William was four years old the family removed to "Plantation Number Three," at the mouth of the Penobscot (now Castine). There, on a farm, which his descendants occupied, he continued to live until his death, excepting a short interval of time. He was a witness to the stirring scenes of the Massachusetts expedition to Penobscot (which see) in 1779, and aided (by compulsion) the British in the construction of Fort George, on the peninsula. After the destruction of the British fleet, his father, who refused to take the oath of allegiance to the crown, retired to New Castle, where he remained until the close of the war. At the age of fifteen, having acquired a man's stature, William Hutchings entered the Continental army. He enlisted in a regiment of Massachusetts militia commanded by Colonel Samuel McCobb, Captain Benjamin Lemont's company, as a volunteer for six months. That was in the spring of 1780 or 1781; and he was honorably discharged about Christmas, the same year, at Cox's Head, at the mouth of the Kennebec River. He received an annual pension of $21.60 until 1865, when an annual gratuity of $300 was granted by Congress to each of the five Revolutionary soldiers then supposed to be living. Only four of the number lived to receive this gratuity. William Hutchings and Lemuel Cook were the last. Mr. Hutchings was a devout member of the Methodist Church for nearly seventy years, and for many of his latter years he was an advocate and professor of total abstinence from intoxicating drinks. In 1865, when over one hundred years of age, he received an invitation from the city authorities of Bangor to join in the celebration of the Fourth of July there. He accepted it. A revenue cutter conveyed him from Castine to Bangor. The guns of Fort Knox, on the Penobscot, gave him a salute of welcome as he passed. At Bangor multitudes rushed to get a glimpse of the veteran as he was escorted through the streets. Senator Hamlin delivered an oration on that occasion, and at the close Mr. Hutchings responded at some length to a toast. "My friends told me," he said, "that the effort to be here might cause my death; but I thought I could never die any better than by celebrating the glorious Fourth."

Hutchinson and the King. So eager was the king to see Governor Hutchinson, of Massachusetts, on his arrival in England in July, 1774, that he was hurried by Lord Dartmouth to the presence of his majesty without time to change his clothes. He gave the king much comfort. He assured him that the Port Bill was a wise and effective method for bringing the Boston people into submission; that it had occasioned extreme alarm; that no colony would comply with their request for a general suspension of commerce; and that Rhode Island had accompanied its refusal with a sneer at the selfishness of the Bostonians. The king had heard and believed that the Boston clergy preached toleration for all kinds of immoralities for the sake of liberty, and scores of other tales, which Hutchinson did not deny; and for two hours the conversation went on, until the king was satisfied that Boston would be unsupported in its rebellious attitude by the other colonies. "The author of this intelligence," says Bancroft, "became at once a favorite, was offered the rank of a baronet, and was consulted as an oracle by Gibbon, the historian, and other politicians at court."

Hutchinson and the Massachusetts Assembly (1770). Thomas Hutchinson, a native of Boston, a colonial councillor, and lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, was, on the recall of Governor Bernard in 1769, made governor of the province. He was already unpopular because of his opposition to all movements tending towards popular freedom. When, in May, 1770, he called a meeting of the Assembly at Cambridge, that body insisted that, by the terms of the charter, the General Court could only be held at Boston. A dispute arose that consumed much of the time of two sessions, and it was October before the Assembly would agree to proceed with needed business, and then under protest, after a day spent in solemn humiliation and prayer. Then they made a bitter complaint against the governor because he had withdrawn from the castle in Boston harbor the company in the pay of the province and given the fortress up to the regulars. They also complained of the unusual number of ships of war in Boston harbor; all of which they charged to misrepresentations at court by Governor Bernard, as well as the incumbent. They appointed Dr. Franklin as agent of the province in England. And then began that series of contests between Hutchinson and the people which speedily caused his exile from his native land.

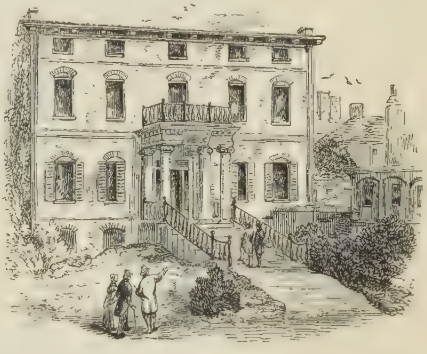
Hutchinson, Anne, was born at Alford, Lincolnshire, England, in 1591; died in Westchester County, N. Y., August, 1643. She was a daughter of Rev. Francis Marbury, Rector of St. Martin, Vintry, and other London parishes. The preaching of John Cotton and her brother-in-law, John Wheelwright, greatly interested her, and she, with her husband, followed them to Boston in the autumn of 1634, where she was admitted to membership in the church. Being a woman of strong mind, fluent in speech, bold in defence of her convictions, she soon acquired great influence in the church. She called meetings of the women of the church to discuss doctrines and sermons, and she expressed views on religious matters which had offended some of her fellow-passengers on the voyage. She was tolerated for a while, but finally the controversy between her supporters and opponents became a public controversy (1636). Governor Vane, Cotton, Wheelwright, and the whole Boston church excepting five members were her supporters, while the country clergy and churches were united against her. The dispute permeated every department of the colony and influenced public action in civil, military, and ecclesiastical affairs. On Aug. 30, 1637, an ecclesiastical synod at Newtown condemned her opinions, and she was summoned before the General Court to answer. After a trial of two days' duration, she and some of her adherents were sentenced to banishment from the territory of Massachusetts. She went to Rhode Island, where a deputation sent by the church at Boston vainly tried to reclaim her. Her husband died in 1642, when she removed, with her surviving family, into the territory of New Netherland to avoid persecution. The Indians and Dutch were then at war. The former invaded her retreat and murdered her, her son, and son-in-law, and carried off her little granddaughter, Anna Collins. Some of her neighbors also suffered, eighteen of them being killed, and their cattle, put into barns, were burned. The place of the tragedy was on Pelham Neck. The region was called Anne's Hoeck, or Point. Several women and children were saved in a boat. When Mrs. Hutchinson's little granddaughter was delivered to the Dutch at New Amsterdam, four years afterwards, according to the terms of a treaty, to be sent to her friends in Boston, she had forgotten her own language, and did not wish to leave her Indian friends.

Hutchinson in the Massachusetts Council. Thomas Hutchinson, appointed lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, having received compensation for his losses (see *Riot in Boston*), took a seat in Governor Bernard's Council (January, 1767), where he had no right. The Massachusetts Assembly resented this usurpation, this "lust of power," in intruding into an elective body to which he had not been chosen. The Council, by unanimous vote, denied the pretensions of the intruder, for the language of the charter was too clear to admit of a doubt; yet Bernard urged the interposition of the British government to keep him there. This conduct of the crown officers greatly irritated the people.

Hutchinson Letters, The. Early in 1773, letters written by Governor Hutchinson and others of the crown officers in Massachusetts to Mr. Whately, one of the under secretaries of the government, were put into the hands of Dr. Franklin, agent for Massachusetts, by Dr. Hugh Williamson, of Philadelphia. In these letters the popular leaders were vilified, the liberal clauses of the colonial charter were condemned, the punishment of Bostonians by restraints upon their commercial privileges was recommended, and "an abridgment of what are called English privileges" in America, by coercive measures, was strongly urged. Franklin saw in these letters evidences of a conspiracy against his country by enemies in its bosom, and he sent them to Thomas Cushing, Speaker of the Massachusetts Assembly. They were finally published, and created intense excitement throughout the colonies. The tempest of indignation which they raised was fearful to Hutchinson and his friends. When a committee waited upon him for an explicit answer as to the authenticity of his own letters, he replied, "They are mine, but were quite confidential." This was not satisfactory, and the Assembly adopted a petition to the king for his removal. The writers of the letters were Thomas Hutchinson, Andrew Oliver (Lieutenant-governor), Charles Paxton, Thomas Moffatt, Robert Auchmuty, Nathaniel Rogers, and George Rome.

Hutchinson, Thomas, Governor of Massachusetts, was born in Boston, Sept. 9, 1711; died at Brompton, near London, June 3, 1780. He was a graduate of Harvard University (1727), and, after engaging unsuccessfully in commerce, studied law, and began its practice in Boston. That city sent him to London as its agent in important business; and he represented that city in the General Court for ten years. In 1752 he was chosen judge of probate; was a councillor from 1749 to 1766; was lieutenant-governor from 1758 to 1771; and was made chief-justice of the province in 1768. At that time he held four high offices under the king's appointment, and he naturally sided with the crown in the rising disputes, and became very obnoxious to the republicans. When, in 1769, Governor Bernard was recalled, Hutchinson became acting-governor of Massachusetts, and was commissioned governor in 1771. He was continually engaged in controversies with the popular Assembly, and often with his Council. The publication of some of his letters (1773), which proved that he had been for years urging upon Parliament the necessity for the strict enforcement of power over the colonies, raised a storm of indignation, and his recall was demanded. This indignation was increased by his action concerning the landing of cargoes of tea in Boston (see *Boston Tea-party*), and he sailed for England, June 1, 1774, where he was rewarded with a pension. He never returned to his native country. He wrote and published a history of Massachusetts from the first settlement until 1750. The official residence of the governor of Massachusetts was called the "Province House." It was standing a few years ago, in the rear of stores on Washington Street, in front of Milk Street. It was a large brick building, three stories in height, and was formerly decorated with the king's arms, richly gilded. A cupola surmounted the roof. In front of the house was a lawn, with an iron fence, and on each side of the gate was a large oak-tree. The ground sloped, and in front were about twenty stone steps. The king's arms are in possession of the Massachusetts Historical Society.

THOMAS HUTCHINSON.



THE PROVINCE HOUSE.

Hutchinsonian Controversy, The. The Massachusetts theocracy, actuated by the spirit of the English persecuting bishops and of the Court of High Commission, persecuted relentlessly, as heretics and schismatics, the persons who occupied towards them the position which they had held towards their own persecutors. With the influx of new-comers from England, new opinions flowed into Massachusetts from the seething caldron of disputations in the mother-country. Among the new-comers was Anne Hutchinson, who was independent in thought and bold in the expression of opinion—a religious enthusiast, whose care of a numerous family did not prevent her taking a prominent part in the Church, and, at meetings of the women, which she instituted, freely discussing religious doctrines and criticising sermons. She maintained the leading tenet of the Reformation (justification by faith alone), involuntary faith, and the free grace of God. She declared that it was this faith, and not in the repetition of acts of devotion or in acts of morality, that made the true religious person. This doctrine of justification by faith was accepted by the theocracy as sound orthodoxy, but, as Mrs. Hutchinson put it, it struck a vital blow at the constitution of the Church in Massachusetts, for it mercilessly smote the self-esteem and influence of the leaders. Their "sanctification," this smart woman alleged, in which they prided themselves—their sanctimonious carriage and austere lives—furnished no evidence whatever of their "justification"—their change of heart and acceptance with God. The only evidence of justification, she said, was an internal evidence and consciousness on the part of believers that the Holy Ghost dwelt within them. The clergy were embarrassed, for they preached justification by faith and the internal and supernatural assurance of election to salvation, but they also held that such assurances were false and deceptive, unless accompanied by outward evidence of sanctity in life and conversation. Hence their austerity. While the Boston churches, under the influence of Mrs. Hutchinson, inclined to embrace her doctrines, ex-Governor Winthrop and most of the clergy throughout the colony denounced her as an antinomian, and the pretended personal union with the Holy Ghost as no better than blasphemy. The governor and Cotton and Wheelwright (see *Hutchinson, Anne*) supported her views, while most of the magistrates, ex-Governor Winthrop, and the clergy of the colony were her stern and active opponents. They were cautious, however, how they condemned their favorite doctrine of faith and free grace; but they zealously upheld the necessity of a system of worship and austere self-denial which they had crossed the Atlantic to establish. Mrs. Hutchinson irritated them by classifying the two parties—her friends as "under the covenant of grace," and her opponents "under the covenant of works;" and because Mr. Wheelwright made the distinction in a sermon, he was arraigned for sedition, and found guilty. The governor and a few others offered a protest, but the General Court refused to receive it. Disputes ran high, and the whole colony was ablaze with excitement. Men of opposite opinions sometimes came to blows; families were divided, and society was fearfully rent. In the midst of the turmoil, Winthrop was elected (1637) governor, and the orthodox party claimed a triumph. The Hutchinsonians were beaten, but not subdued. The theological questions raised by Mrs. Hutchinson were referred to a synod—a conference of delegates from all the churches. That body pronounced the women's meeting in Boston "disorderly;" for the feminine church members, though "heirs of salvation," had no power in the earthly theocracy. They condemned the Hutchinsonians as schismatics, and the General Court proceeded to end the controversy by the wretched argument of force. Mrs. Hutchinson and Wheelwright, and several others, were sentenced to banishment. It being winter, the former was allowed to remain at Roxbury, vigilantly watched, until spring; and about sixty of her most active adherents were disfranchised and deprived of their fire-arms.

I.

Iberville, Pierre le Moyne, born at Montreal, July 16, 1661; died in Havana, W. I., July 9, 1706. He was one of eleven brothers who figure in some degree in French colonial history. Entering the French navy at fourteen, he became distinguished in the annals of Canada for his operations against the English in the north and east of that province. In 1698 he was sent from France to the Gulf of Mexico with two frigates (Oct. 22), to occupy the mouth of the Mississippi and the region neglected after the death of La Salle. On finding that stream, he received from the Indians a letter left by De Tonty, in 1686, for La Salle. There he built Fort Biloxi, garrisoned it, and made his brother Bienville the king's lieutenant. In May, 1699, he returned to France, but reappeared at Fort Biloxi in January, 1700. On visiting France and returning in 1701, he found the colony reduced by disease, and transferred the settlement to Mobile, and began the colonization of Alabama. Disease had impaired his health, and the government called him away from his work as the founder of Louisiana. (See *Louisiana.*) He was engaged in the naval service in the West Indies, where he was destroyed by yellow fever at Havana.

Idaho (Id-ah-o) was created a territory by act of Congress approved March 3, 1863, from portions of Dakota, Nebraska, and Washington territories (which see), and embracing the present territory of Montana and nearly all of Wyoming. Within its domain the Cœur d'Aléne mission was established, in 1842. The permanent settlement of the territory did not begin until the discovery of gold, in 1860. This metal is found at the head-waters of all the rivers, and the territory is very rich in developed and undeveloped beds of the precious metals. These drew large numbers of settlers from California, Oregon, and settlements eastward. Its capital is Boisé City.

Idiots. Institutions for idiots are of recent origin in our country. In 1818, Mr. Gallaudet admitted an idiot boy into the Deaf and Dumb Asylum at Hartford, and his mind was strengthened. The first asylum for idiots was opened in a wing of the Perkins Institute, in Boston, late in 1848. In New York, in 1851, the "New York Asylum for Idiots" was created, and was permanently located at Syracuse, N. Y., in 1855. The number of idiots in the United States in 1870 was 24,527. All but 1645 were born in the United States.

Illinois Indians. This family of the Algonquin nation comprised several clans—Peorias, Moingwenas, Kaskaskias, Tamaroas, and Cahokias. At a very early period they drove a Dakota tribe, whom they called the Arkansas, to the country on the Southern Mississippi. These were the Quapaws. In 1640 they almost exterminated the Winnebagoes; and soon afterwards they waged war with the Iroquois and Sioux. Their domain was between Lakes Michigan and Superior and the Mississippi River. Marquette found some of them (the Peorias and Moingwenas) near Des Moines, west of the Mississippi, in 1672; also the Peorias and Kaskaskias on the Illinois River. The Tamaroas and Cahokias were on the Mississippi. The Jesuits found the chief Illinois town consisting of eight thousand people, in nearly four hundred large cabins, covered with water-proof mats, with, generally, four fires to a cabin. In 1679 they were badly defeated by the Iroquois, losing about thirteen hundred, of whom nine hundred were prisoners; and they retaliated by assisting the French, under De la Barre and De Nonville, against the Five Nations. The Illinois were converted to Christianity by Father Marquette and other missionaries, and in the year 1700 Chicago, their great chief, visited France, where he was much caressed. His son, of the same name, maintained great influence in the tribe until his death, in 1754. When Detroit was besieged by the Foxes, in 1712, the Illinois went to its relief, and in the war that followed they suffered severely. Some of them were with the French at Fort Duquesne; but they refused to join Pontiac in his conspiracy. (See *Pontiac.*) With the Miamis, they favored the English in the war of the Revolution, and joined in the treaty at Greenville in 1795. (See *Greenville.*) By the provision of treaties, they ceded their lands, and a greater portion of them went to a country west of the Mississippi, within the present limits of Kansas, where they remained until 1867, when they were removed to a reservation of seventy-two thousand acres southwest of the Quapaws. In 1872 the whole Illinois nation had dwindled to forty souls. This tribe, combined with the Weas and Piankeshaws, numbered only one hundred and sixty in all.

Illinois, Position of (1861). This young state, with a population of 1,700,000, had a loyal governor (Richard Yates) at the beginning of 1861. The Legislature assembled at Springfield, the home of the Republican President elect, on January 7. The governor's message was temperate, but firm. He summed up what he believed to be the sentiment of the people of Illinois in the words of General Jackson's toast thirty years before—"Our Federal Union: it must be preserved!" Delegates to the Congress were appointed, and throughout the war that ensued the men of Illinois were seen almost everywhere battling in defence of the life of the Republic.

Illinois, State of, was first explored by Marquette and Joliet (which see), French missionaries from Canada, in 1763, who were followed by La Salle and Hennepin (which see). Twenty years later mission stations were established at Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and Peoria; and early in the 18th century a French monastery was established at Kaskaskia. By the treaty of 1763, the "Illinois country," as it was called, passed under the jurisdiction of the English. By the treaty of 1783 it was ceded to the United States, and it formed a part of the Northwest Territory (which see). The country conquered by General Clarke, in 1778–79 (see *Clarke's Expedition*), the Virginia Assembly erected into a county, which they called Illinois. It embraced all territory north of the Ohio claimed as within the limits of Virginia, and ordered 500 men to be raised for its defence. In 1809, when the present boundaries of Indiana were defined, Illinois included Wisconsin and a part of Minnesota, and in 1810 contained more than 12,000 inhabitants. Among the prominent events of the War of 1812–15 in that region was the massacre at Chicago (which see). After that war the population rapidly increased, and on Dec. 3, 1818, Illinois, within its present limits, was admitted into the Union as a state. The census of 1820 showed a population in that state of more than 55,000 souls. The Black Hawk War (which see) occurred in Illinois in 1832. There the Mormons established themselves in 1840, at Nauvoo (see *Mormons*); their founder was slain by a mob at Carthage, in 1844, and soon afterwards a general exodus of this people occurred. A new state constitution was framed in 1847, and in July, 1870, the present constitution was adopted. The Illinois Central Railroad, completed in 1856, has been a source of great material prosperity for the state. During the late Civil War, Illinois furnished to the national government (to Dec. 1, 1864) 197,364 troops.

STATE SEAL OF ILLINOIS.

Illinois, Territory of. During the last session of the Tenth Congress, 1809, the Territory of Illinois was erected, and Ninian Edwards was appointed its governor. The inhabited portions of this territory, including the (present) states of Illinois and Wisconsin, were chiefly near the Mississippi River, opposite the mouth of the Missouri. The old village of Kaskaskia was made the seat of government. The population then was about ten thousand.

Impeachment of President Johnson. On Jan. 7, 1867, Mr. Ashley, representative in Congress from Ohio, rose in his place and charged the "Acting President of the United States" with the commission of "high crimes and misdemeanors, for which he ought to be impeached." He charged him with usurpations and violations of law: 1. "In that he has corruptly used the appointing power; 2. In that he has corruptly used the pardoning power; 3. In that he has corruptly used the veto power; 4. In that he has corruptly disposed of public property of the United States; and, 5. In that he has corruptly interfered in elections, and committed acts which, in contemplation of the Constitution, are high crimes and misdemeanors." For more than a year afterwards Congress bore with the opposition and unseemly acts of the President. Their patience became exhausted. On Feb. 22, 1868, the House of Representatives, by a vote of 126 to 47, "*Resolved,* That Andrew Johnson, President of the United States, be impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors." A committee presented nine articles of impeachment: 1. Unlawfully ordering the removal of Secretary Stanton, in violation of the Tenure-of-Office Act (which see); 2. Unlawfully appointing Lorenzo B. Thomas as Secretary of War *ad interim*; 3. Substantially the same as the 2d; 4. Conspiring with Thomas and other persons to prevent, by threats, Mr. Stanton from holding office; 5. Conspiring to hinder the execution of the Tenure-of-Office Act; 6. Conspiring to take forcible possession of the War Department; 7 and 8 substantially the same as 5 and 6; 9. Charged that he had tried to induce, by false representations, the commander of the Department of Washington to violate the laws and to obey the orders of the President only. Managers were appointed, and on March 3 they presented two other charges: 1. Seditious speech while on a political tour (see *President Johnson's Tour*), trying to excite the hostility of the people against Congress; and, 2. That at Washington he had declared that Congress was not a legal body, authorized to exercise legislative powers. The trial was begun on March 30, before the Senate, sitting as a High Court of Impeachment, Chief-justice Chase presiding. The examination of witnesses ended April 22. The arguments of counsel were concluded May 5, and twenty days were consumed in debates in the Senate. The votes of fifty-four senators present were taken on the verdict, of whom 35 were for conviction, and 19 for acquittal. As two thirds of the votes were necessary for conviction, the President was acquitted by one vote.

Impediments to Burgoyne's March. From Skenesborough (now Whitehall), at the head of Lake Champlain, to the Hudson River, the conquering Burgoyne marched through a very rough and thickly wooded country, intersected by numerous streams and dotted with morasses. There was a single military road, over which, between Fort Anne (on the route) and Fort Edward, there were full fifty bridges and causeways. These Schuyler destroyed as he fell back towards the Hudson, and felled great trees across the road, with their branches intertwining, at places where it was difficult to turn aside. All the stock was drawn off, and the New England militia were summoned to the rescue.

Impending Crisis. The state elections in 1858 and 1859 satisfied the opponents of the rapidly growing Republican party that there was impending a great change in national politics. The political leaders in the slave-labor states, who had been interested in a scheme for forming an empire whose corner-stone should be negro slavery and its bounds the Golden Circle (which see), perceived the peril. They believed they would not be able to elect another President of their choice. They were in full alliance with the Democratic party of the North, then in power, but they saw signs of disintegration going on in that party, caused by disgust with the workings of the Fugitive Slave Law and the attempt to nationalize slavery. A large portion of that party, led by Senator Stephen A. Douglas, showed a proclivity towards independent action, and even of affiliation with the Republican party, on the subject of slavery. The hopes of the friends of the slave system of the further undivided support of the Northern Democracy vanished. In view of this impending crisis, the Southern politicians, who wished to dissolve the Union, deemed it expedient, it is averred, to absolutely destroy all unity in the Democratic party, and make it powerless, when the Republicans might elect their candidate for President in the fall of 1860. Then would appear a sufficient pretext for a revolution—the election of a sectional President. This danger to the slaveholders' interest might be magnified by a sectional war-cry that would "fire the Southern heart," and produce a "solid South" in favor of secession, a dissolution of the Union, and the construction of a new republic or kingdom within the Golden Circle. It is asserted that with this view politicians who were afterwards Confederate leaders in the late Civil War entered the Democratic nominating convention held at Charleston, S. C., late in April, 1860. (See *Democratic Convention at Charleston.*)

Impress, THE—TREATY OF 1806. Proofs of the sufferings of American seamen from the operations of the British impress system were continually received, and so frequent and flagrant were these outrages, towards the close of 1805, that Congress took action on the subject. It was felt that a crisis was reached, when the independence of the United States must be vindicated, or the national honor would be imperilled. There was ample cause not only for retaliatory measures against Great Britain, but even for war. A Non-importation Act (which see) was passed. It was resolved to try negotiations once more. William Pinkney, of Maryland, was appointed (May, 1806) minister extraordinary to England, to become associated with Monroe, the resident minister, in negotiating a treaty that should settle all disputes between the two governments. He sailed for England, and negotiations were commenced Aug. 7. As the American commissioners were instructed to make no treaty which did not secure the vessels of their countrymen on the high seas against press-gangs, that topic received the earliest attention. The Americans contended that the right of impressment, existing by municipal law, could not be exercised out of the jurisdiction of Great Britain, and, consequently, upon the high seas. The British replied that no subject of the king could expatriate himself—"once an Englishman, always an Englishman"—and argued that to give up that right would make every American vessel an asylum for British seamen wishing to evade their country's service. Finally, the British commissioners stated in writing that it was not intended by their government to exercise this claimed right on board any American vessel, unless it was known it contained British deserters. In that shape this portion of a treaty then concluded remained, and was unsatisfactory because it was based upon contingencies and provisions, and not upon positive treaty stipulations. The American commissioners, then, on their own responsibility, proceeded to treat upon other points in dispute, and an agreement was made, based principally upon Jay's treaty of 1794. The British made some concessions as to the rights of neutrals. The treaty was more favorable to the Americans, on the whole, than Jay's, and, for the reasons which induced him, the American commissioners signed it. It was satisfactory to the merchants and most of the people; yet the President, consulting only his Secretary of State, and without referring it to the Senate, rejected it.

Impressment. The British government claimed the right for commanders of British ships of war to make up any deficiency in their crews by pressing into their service British-born seamen found anywhere not within the immediate jurisdiction of some foreign state. As many British seamen were employed on board of American merchant-vessels, the exercise of this claimed right might (and often did) seriously cripple American vessels at sea. To distinguish between British and American seamen was not an easy matter, and many British captains, eager to fill up their crews, frequently impressed native-born Americans. These were sometimes dragged by violence from on board their own vessels and condemned to a life of slavery as seamen in British ships of war. These acts were among the causes of the War of 1812–15, or second war for independence. When Jonathan Russell, minister at the British court, attempted to negotiate with that government (August, 1812) for a settlement of disputes between the Americans and British, and proposed the withdrawal of the claims of the latter to the right of impressment and the release of impressed seamen, Lord Castlereagh, the British Minister for Foreign Affairs, refused to listen to such a proposition. He even expressed surprise that, "as a condition preliminary even to a suspension of hostilities, the government of the United States should have thought fit to demand that the British government should desist from its ancient and accustomed practice of impressing British seamen from the merchant-ships of a foreign state, simply on the assurance that a law was hereafter to be passed to prohibit the employment of British seamen in the public or commercial service of that state." The United States had proposed to pass a law making such a prohibition in case the British government should relinquish the practice of impressment and release all impressed seamen. Castlereagh acknowledged that there might have been, at the beginning of the year 1811, sixteen hundred *bona fide* American citizens serving by compulsion in the British navy. Several hundreds of them had been discharged, and all would be, Castlereagh said, upon proof made of their American birth; but the British government, he continued, could not consent "to suspend the exercise of a right upon which the naval strength of the empire mainly depended, unless assured that the object might be attained in some other way." There were then upwards of six thousand cases of alleged impressment of American seamen recorded in the Department of State, and it was estimated that at least as many more might have occurred, of which no information had been received. Castlereagh had admitted on the floor of the House of Commons that an official inquiry had revealed the fact that there were, in 1811, thirty-five hundred men claiming to be American citizens. Whatever may have been the various causes combined which produced the war between the United States and Great Britain in 1812–15, when it was declared, the capital question, and that around which gathered in agreement a larger portion of the people of the Republic, was that of impressment. The contest was, by this consideration, resolved into a noble struggle of a free people against insolence and oppression, undertaken on behalf of the poor, the helpless, and the stranger. It was this conception of the essential nature of the conflict that gave vigor to every blow of the American soldier and seaman, and the watch-words "Free Trade and Sailors' Rights" prevailed on land as well as on the sea.

Impressment in American Ports. In 1707 Parliament, by act, forbade the impressment of seamen in American ports and waters for privateering service, unless of such sailors as had previously deserted from ships of war.

Impressment in Boston (1747). Commodore Knowles, while in Boston harbor, in November, 1747, finding himself short of men, sent a press-gang into the town one morning which seized and carried to the vessels several of the citizens. This violence aroused the populace. Several of the naval officers on shore were seized by a mob and held as hostages for their kidnapped countrymen. They also surrounded the Town House, where the Legislature was in session, and demanded the release of the impressed men. The governor called out the militia, who reluctantly obeyed. Then, alarmed, he withdrew to the castle. Knowles offered a company of marines to sustain his authority, and threatened to bombard the town if his officers were not released. The populace declared that the governor's flight was abdication. Matters became so serious that the influential citizens, who had favored the populace, tried to suppress the tumult. The Assembly ordered the release of the officers, and Knowles sent back most of the impressed men. The authorities attributed the outbreak to "negroes and persons of vile condition." This was the first of a series of impressments of American citizens by British officers which finally led to war. (See *Second War for Independence.*)

Inauguration Ball. On the evening of the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln, a grand ball was given in honor of the occasion, in a large temporary building near the City Hall, in Washington. Several foreign ministers, and heads of departments, with their families, were present. The dancing began at eleven o'clock. Mr. and Mrs. Lincoln, in whose honor the ball was given, appeared soon afterwards. The President entered the room with Mayor Berret, of Washington, and Mrs. Lincoln entered leaning on the arm of Senator Douglas. The incident was accepted as a proclamation of peace and friendship between the two late rivals for the Presidency. Joy and gayety prevailed. Of all the company present, the most honored and the most burdened was Abraham Lincoln. With that brilliant pageant ended the poetry of Abraham Lincoln's life; after that, it was spent in the sober prose of dutiful endeavor to save and redeem the nation.

Inauguration of Jefferson Davis. Mr. Davis was at his home, not far from Vicksburg, when apprised of his election as President of the Confederacy formed at Montgomery, February, 1861. He hastened to that city, and his journey was a continuous ovation. He made twenty-five speeches on the way. Members of the convention, and the authorities of Montgomery met him eight miles from the city. He arrived at the Alabama capital at eight o'clock at night. Cannons thundered a welcome, and the shouts of a multitude greeted him. Formally received at the railway-station, he made a speech, in which he briefly reviewed the then position of the South, and said the time for compromises had passed. "We are now determined," he said, "to maintain our position, and *make all who oppose us smell Southern powder and feel Southern steel.* . . . We will maintain our rights and our government at all hazards. We ask nothing—we want nothing—and we will have no complications. If the other states join our Confederacy, they can freely come in on our terms. Our separation from the old Union is complete, and no compromise, no reconstruction, can now be entertained." The inaugural ceremonies took place at noon, Feb. 18, on a platform erected in front of the portico of the State House. Davis and Stephens, with Rev. Dr. Marly, rode in an open barouche from the Exchange Hotel to the Capitol, followed by a multitude of state officials and citizens. The oath of office was administered to Davis by Howell Cobb, President of the "Congress," at the close of his inaugural address. In the evening, in imitation of the custom, President Davis held a "levee" at Estelle Hall, and the city was brilliantly lighted up by bonfires and illuminations.

Inauguration of President Buchanan. James Buchanan, fifteenth President of the United States, was inaugurated on March 4, 1857. The day was clear and pleasant. The number of spectators of the scene from abroad was immense, there being, it was said, representatives from every state in the Union. The President elect moved in a barouche from Willard's Hotel, escorted by military under General Quitman. Mr. Buchanan was accompanied in his carriage by President Pierce, and Senators Bigler and Foote, of the Committee of Arrangements. Democratic clubs, fire companies from New York and Philadelphia, and a great concourse of citizens, with various volunteer military companies, formed the procession. Chief-justice Taney administered the oath of office.

Inauguration of President Fillmore. (See *Fillmore, Millard.*)

Inauguration of President Grant. The turbulent administration of President Johnson closed on March 4, 1869, and Ulysses S. Grant was inaugurated the eighteenth President of the United States. On the same day, the retiring President issued a long address to his countrymen in vindication of his course as chief magistrate of the Republic. He recited the most prominent acts of his administration, declaring the necessity for them; and, having done this, he assailed the majority of the Congress with his usual vehemence of tone, accusing them of acting in "utter disregard of the Constitution," accusing them of "preventing the return of peace," and "making the liberties of the people and the rights and power of the President objects of constant attack." He charged them with the commission of nearly every act of oppression enumerated in the indictment against George III., of England, contained in the Declaration of Independence, and added, "This catalogue of crimes, long as it is, is not yet complete." General Grant was honored at his inauguration with a large civic and military display, and an immense gathering of citizens from all parts of the Union. The ceremonies took place at the eastern front of the Capitol, as usual, at a little past noon, when Chief-justice Chase administered the oath of office. His inaugural address foreshadowed the course of his administration. He declared his intention to have on all subjects a policy to recommend, but none to enforce; to always express his views clearly to Congress, and to exercise the constitutional power of the veto whenever his judgment bade him interfere; to treat the momentous subjects growing out of the recent civil war with calmness, and "without prejudice, hate, or sectional pride." He declared that, to protect the national honor, every dollar of the public debt should be paid in gold, unless otherwise stipulated in the contract. He recommended the adoption of some plan for the payment of the debt, and for the resumption of specie payments. In foreign policy he proposed to deal with nations with equal justice as with individuals. He called attention to the Indians, and said he would favor any course that would tend to their civilization, Christianization, and ultimate citizenship. He expressed a hope that the question of suffrage might be speedily settled by the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution (which see).

Inauguration of President Harrison. The city of Washington was thronged with people from every part of the Union to witness the inauguration of President Harrison, on March 4, 1841. He was then a month beyond the age of sixty-eight years, yet there was remarkable vigor in his movements for one who had experienced so much of the rougher circumstances of life's career. He was accompanied to the Capitol by ex-President Van Buren, in a carriage, and on a platform at the eastern entrance to the building he delivered his inaugural address, in a clear voice, frequently interrupted by cheers. When it was concluded, Chief-justice Taney administered the oath of office, and then successive cannon-peals announced to the multitude that the ninth President of the United States was duly installed into office. His inaugural speech was well received by all parties, and another "era of good feeling" seemed about to dawn.

Inauguration of President Hayes. The 4th of March, 1877, fell on Sunday. President-elect Rutherford B. Hayes was in Washington, the guest of Senator John Sherman. There had been threats made by the Opposition of taking forcible possession of the Presidential office and inaugurating Samuel J. Tilden, the rival candidate for President. It was thought best by the friends of the President-elect not to postpone the administering of the oath of office to him until Monday, as had been done in other cases when the time for inaugurating a new President fell on Sunday. Mr. Hayes therefore took the oath of office privately, in Senator Sherman's house on Sunday, and on the following day the public inauguration ceremonies were performed at the usual place on the east front of the Capitol, in the presence of an immense multitude of people. The oath of office was administered by Chief-justice Wait.

Inauguration of President Jackson. There were incidents of peculiar interest connected with the inauguration of Andrew Jackson, the seventh President of the United States. President Adams had convened the Senate on the morning of March 4, 1829, and at twelve M. that body adjourned for one hour. During that time the President-elect entered the Senate-chamber, having been escorted from Gadsby's Hotel by a few surviving officers and soldiers of the old war for independence. These having addressed him at the hotel, and in the Senate-chamber, in the presence of the chief officers of government, foreign ministers, and many ladies, he made a feeling reply, as follows: "Respected Friends: Your affectionate address awakens sentiments and recollections which I feel with sincerity and cherish with pride. To have around my person, at the moment of undertaking the most solemn of all duties to my country, the companions of the immortal Washington, will afford me satisfaction and encouragement. That by my best endeavors I shall be able to exhibit more than an imitation of his labors, a sense of my own imperfections and the reverence I entertain for his virtues forbid me to hope. To you, respected friends, the survivors of that heroic band that followed him so long and so valiantly on the path to glory, I offer my sincere thanks, and to Heaven my prayers, that your remaining years may be as happy as your toil and your lives have been illustrious." The whole company then proceeded to the eastern portico of the Capitol, where, in the presence of a vast assembly of citizens, the President-elect delivered his inaugural address and took the oath of office, administered by Chief-justice Marshall.

Inauguration of President Jefferson. On the morning of March 4, 1801, Jefferson was escorted by a body of militia and a procession of citizens to the Capitol, where the Senate had met in special session, called some months before by the President. Aaron Burr, already sworn in as Vice-President, gave up the chair to Jefferson, taking a seat at his right hand. On his left sat John Marshall, then chief-justice, ready to administer the oath of office. The late speaker and ex-President Adams were not present, the latter having left for home that morning on account of sickness in his family. Jefferson delivered a carefully written inaugural address, in which he pleaded for harmony. "Every difference of opinion," he said, "is not a difference of principle. Brethren of the same principle, we are called by different names. We are all Republicans; we are all Federalists."

Inauguration of President John Adams (1797). The Senate adjourned to the chamber of the House of Representatives, with Jefferson at their head, where a brilliant assemblage of ladies had gathered to witness the inauguration of the second President of the Republic, in the old State House, Philadelphia. In front of the speaker's chair sat the chief-justice (Jay), with three other judges of the Supreme Court. The new Vice-President and the secretary of the Senate took seats on their right; on the left sat the speaker and clerk of the House. The doors being opened, a crowd instantly filled the galleries. When Washington entered he was greeted with shouts of applause from all sides. Being now a private citizen, he took a seat in front of the judges. The President-elect entered, attended by the heads of departments and the marshal of the district, and was received with shouts as he ascended to the chair. In a few minutes he arose and read an elaborate inaugural address, when the oath was administered by the chief-justice. Then he took his seat for a few minutes, arose, bowed to all around, and retired. The Vice-President followed, and he, in turn, was followed by the ex-President. It was the last time Washington and Jefferson met. Washington was greeted with prolonged shouts in and out of the House, and that evening (March 4, 1797) he was sumptuously entertained by the merchants and others of Philadelphia. He departed for Mount Vernon a few days afterwards.

Inauguration of President John Q. Adams. At about half-past twelve o'clock on the 4th of March, 1825, Mr. Adams entered the Capitol, accompanied by ex-President Monroe and his family, by the judges of the Supreme Court, in their robes of office, and the members of the Senate, preceded by the Vice-President, with a number of the members of the House of Representatives. Mr. Adams, dressed in a plain suit of black, ascended to the speaker's chair. The doors of the hall of Representatives, in which the people had assembled, being closed, Mr. Adams read his inaugural address and immediately afterwards took the oath of office, administered by Chief-justice Marshall.

Inauguration of President Johnson. On the death of President Lincoln, Andrew Johnson, the Vice-President, succeeded him in office, in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution. At that time he occupied rooms at the Kirkwood House, in Washington. On the morning of the death of Mr. Lincoln (April 15, 1865), the cabinet ministers, excepting Mr. Seward, who was very ill, addressed a note to the Vice-President, officially notifying him of the decease of the President, and that the emergency of the government demanded that he should immediately enter upon the duties of the Presidency. Mr. Johnson appointed ten o'clock that morning, when he would be ready to take the oath of office at his rooms. That oath was duly administered at the appointed time by Chief-justice Chase, in the presence of the cabinet ministers and several members of Congress. Then the President delivered a brief speech to the gentlemen present. There, in the midst of universal and unparalleled excitement, the authority of the nation was quietly transferred to other hands a few hours after the death of President Lincoln. Mr. Johnson requested Mr. Lincoln's cabinet (which see) to remain, and the government went on, without a shock to its steady movement.

Inauguration of President Lincoln. Mr. Lincoln arrived in Washington in the early morning of Feb. 23, 1861, schemes to prevent his reaching there having been frustrated. (See *Lincoln, Plot to Assassinate.*) On March 4, 1861, Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated, under circumstances of peculiar interest. In expectation of open violence on the part of conspirators against the life of the Republic and its adherents, General Scott had made ample provision for the preservation of order by the strong arm of military power. This fact was known, and no disorder occurred. Chief-justice Taney administered the oath of office as quietly as on any former occasion. It was done at the eastern front of the Capitol, and from the platform there erected, Mr. Lincoln, in a clear, firm voice, delivered his inaugural address. In it he expressed the most kindly feelings towards the people of all parts of the Union, and his determination to administer the government impartially for the protection of every citizen and of every interest. "I have no purpose," he said, "directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery in the states where it exists. I believe I have no lawful right to do so, and I have no inclination to do so." He then discussed the political structure of our government, showing that union was older than the Constitution; that it was necessarily perpetual; that there is no inherent power in the whole or in part to terminate it, and that the secession of a state was an impossibility. He declared that he should use the powers intrusted to him for the protection of the Union. "In this," he said, "there need be no bloodshed or violence; and there shall be none, unless it be forced upon the national authority." He expressed a firm determination "to hold, occupy, and possess the property and places belonging to the government, and to collect the duties and imposts."

Inauguration of President Madison. On the 4th of March, 1809, James Madison, the fourth President of the United States, was inaugurated at Washington city. He was then fifty-eight years of age. The ceremony was performed in the hall of the House of Representatives, in the presence of the Senate, the members of the late House, the heads of departments, foreign ministers, and an assemblage of citizens. The President was dressed in a full suit of clothes of American manufacture, from the wool of merino sheep, raised in this country from a flock brought from Spain by Colonel Humphreys. His coat was from the manufactory of Colonel Humphreys, and his waistcoat and breeches from that of Chancellor Livingston, presents, respectively, of those gentlemen. George Clinton was inaugurated Vice-President at the same time. The oath of office was administered to Madison by Chief-justice John Marshall. In the evening the citizens of Washington and the members of Congress indulged in a ball or dancing assembly in honor of the occasion.

Inauguration of President Monroe (1817). The President-elect, accompanied by the Vice-President, D. D. Tompkins, left the residence of the former, attended by a vast concourse of citizens, on horseback, under the guidance of a marshal appointed for the occasion, and proceeded to the Senate-chamber in the Capitol, where the oath of office was administered to the Vice-President before the Senate, then in session. This done, the Senate adjourned, and the President, Vice-President, judges of the Supreme Court, and the senators present, accompanied by ex-President Madison, proceeded to an elevated portico temporarily erected for the purpose, where, in the presence of a vast assemblage of citizens and strangers, including government officers and foreign ministers, he delivered his inaugural address. Then the oath of office was administered by Chief-justice Marshall (March 4, 1817), and the new President entered upon his important duties. The tone of his inaugural address was so patriotic and conciliatory that it was received with almost universal satisfaction.

Inauguration of President Pierce. A disagreeable storm of sleet and rain prevailed at Washington city on the day of the inauguration of Franklin Pierce as President of the United States, March 4, 1853. It was estimated that the population of Washington and Georgetown had been increased full twenty thousand within a week of that event. The military array on that occasion was on a scale grander than any that had preceded it. General Pierce rode to the Capitol in a barouche, with President Fillmore and Senators Bright and Hamlin. The Vice-President-elect was too ill to be present, and died a little more than a month later (April 17, 1853). The usual proceedings of inaugurating a Vice-President were dispensed with, and the President's party, diplomatic corps, and government officers proceeded directly to a platform at the eastern entrance to the Capitol, where General Pierce took the oath of office, administered by Chief-justice Taney, and then delivered his inaugural address. Salvos of artillery announced the conclusion of the ceremonies, and the new President repaired to the White House, or presidential mansion. The oath of office was afterwards administered to Mr. King at Matanzas by the United States consul. Then he retired to his residence, near Selma, Ala., where he died.

Inauguration of President Polk. The weather, on the 4th of March, 1845, when James Knox Polk was inaugurated President of the United States, was inclement; yet an immense multitude of his fellow-citizens were in Washington to witness the ceremony. It was lowery in the morning, and towards noon, before the procession reached the Capitol, rain began to fall, which diminished the intended exhibition and display on the occasion. The inaugural procession moved about eleven A.M., from the quarters of the President-elect at Coleman's Hotel, under the direction of General McCall and his aids. It was composed of military corps and civilians. The President-elect and Mr. Tyler rode together in an open barouche. They proceeded to the Senate-chamber, where the Vice-President, George M. Dallas, had taken the oath of office. Thence all proceeded to a platform at the eastern entrance to the Capitol, where Mr. Polk delivered his inaugural address. Chief-justice Taney then administered the oath of office, and during the afternoon the new President received the congratulations of his fellow-citizens. In the evening he and his wife attended the two inauguration balls given in the city.

Inauguration of President Taylor. The 4th of March, 1849, falling on Sunday, Zachary Taylor, the twelfth President of the United States, was inaugurated on Monday, the 5th. There was a greater number of people present at that ceremony, from all parts of the Union, than there had ever been before on a like occasion. The bells of the city of Washington rang out merry peals on that morning, and the streets resounded with martial music. At nine o'clock one hundred citizens, who officiated as marshals, proceeded in a body to Willard's Hotel, for the purpose of paying their respects to General Taylor. The President-elect, dressed in a plain black suit, was borne in a carriage to the Capitol, accompanied by ex-President Polk, R. C. Winthrop, Speaker of the House of Representatives, and Mayor Seaton, of Washington. The carriage was drawn by four horses. The Senate was convened at eleven o'clock, when Mr. Fillmore took the oath of office as Vice-President, in the presence of the judges of the Supreme Court and foreign representatives. At a little past twelve o'clock President-elect Taylor appeared and took a seat, and, after a pause of a few minutes, the whole company proceeded to a platform at the eastern entrance to the Capitol, where, at one o'clock, the new chief magistrate delivered his inaugural address, in the presence of an immense multitude of his fellow-citizens. Then Chief-justice Taney administered the oath of office. These ceremonies were ended by salvos of artillery, and the President proceeded immediately to the White House (the presidential mansion), where he received the friendly salutes of thousands of citizens.

Inauguration of President Tyler. In accordance with the provisions of the Constitution, the Vice-President, John Tyler, succeeded to the office of the deceased President Harrison. Mr. Tyler was at Williamsburg, Va., at the time. The cabinet jointly sent a letter to him, by the hand of Fletcher Webster, acquainting him of the death of the President. By great despatch both ways the Vice-President arrived at the capital at four o'clock on April 6 (1845), and at twelve M. he was waited upon by the cabinet, when he took the oath of office as President, administered by Judge Cranch, of the Circuit Court of the District of Columbia. After the funeral of the dead President, Mr. Tyler issued an inaugural address to the people, through the press, which gave general satisfaction. He retained the cabinet of President Harrison (which see).

Inauguration of President Van Buren took place at the national Capitol, March 4, 1837. It was a beautiful day at Washington, and the President-elect took his seat, with his venerable predecessor, in a phaeton made of wood from the frigate *Constitution*, and presented to Jackson by the democracy of New York. They were escorted from the President's house to the Capitol, through Pennsylvania Avenue, by a body of cavalry and infantry, and accompanied by an immense concourse of citizens. After reaching the Senate-chamber, Mr. Van Buren, attended by the ex-President, the members of the Senate, of the cabinet, and the diplomatic corps, led the way to the rostrum erected at the ascent to the eastern portico of the Capitol, where he delivered his inaugural address in clear and impressive tones, and in an easy and eloquent manner. At the close of the address the oath of office was administered by Chief-justice Taney. The tone of his inaugural address satisfied the people that in the administration of Van Buren there would be no change in policy from that of President Jackson.

Inauguration of President Washington, who was elected the first chief-magistrate of the United States under the national Constitution, with John Adams as Vice-President. Presidential electors were chosen by the people in the autumn of 1788, who met in electoral college on the first Wednesday in February, 1789, and chose the President and Vice-President. His election was announced to him by Charles Thomson, who had been sent to Mount Vernon for the purpose, with a letter from John Langdon, *pro tempore* President of the Senate. Thomson arrived on April 14, 1789. Washington accepted the office, and towards evening the same day rode rapidly to Fredericksburg to bid farewell to his aged mother. On the morning of the 16th, accompanied by Thomson, Colonel Humphreys, and his favorite body-servant, he began his journey towards New York, everywhere on the way greeted with demonstrations of reverence and affection. He was received at New York with great honors, and on the 30th of April he took the oath of office as President of the United States, administered by Robert R. Livingston, Chancellor of the State of New York. The ceremony took place in the open outside gallery of the old City Hall, on the corner of Wall and Nassau Streets, in the presence of both Houses of Congress and a vast multitude of citizens. He was dressed in a plain suit of dark-brown cloth and white silk stockings, all of American manufacture. He never wore a wig. His ample hair was powdered and dressed in the fashion of the day, clubbed and ribboned. After taking the oath and kissing the sacred volume on which he had laid his hands, he reverently closed his eyes, and in an attitude of devotion said, "So help me, God!" The chancellor said, "It is done!" And then, turning to the people, he shouted, "Long live George Washington, the first President of the United States." The shout was echoed and re-echoed by the populace, when Washington and the members of Congress retired to the Senate-chamber, where the President delivered a most impressive inaugural address. Then he and the members went in procession to St. Paul's Chapel, and there invoked the blessings of Almighty God upon the new government.

Incas. These ancient rulers of Peru first became known to Europeans by rumor, and then by conquest, early in the sixteenth century. Their empire extended from Quito, in Ecuador, on the north, to Tucuman, in the Argentine Republic, on the south, and eastward to the summit of the Andes and beyond. The first Inca, tradition says, was Manco Capac, who appeared on an island in Lake Titicaca. He founded Cuzco, and that was the seat of the Inca empire. Capac introduced a knowledge of the arts and promoted civilization. His advent is supposed to be at about the time when the Northmen discovered America (see *Northmen*), at the beginning of the eleventh century. The empire, extended by conquest and annexation, included many nations. Of these, the Quichnas were dominant, for from that tribe the Incas sprung. Their last conquest was the annexation of Quito, which produced a civil war that made the Spanish conquest of the whole empire in 1532 an easy matter. It was done by a few Spaniards led by an illiterate and cruel adventurer named Pizarro. (See *Pizarro.*) The kingdom was destroyed and the dynasty of the Incas was blotted out. The Incas claimed to have descended from the sun, and worshipped that luminary. They cultivated the arts, indulged in poetry, kept records by means of knotted cords, were diligent agriculturists, and ruled despotically, yet wisely. The supreme Inca had wives and concubines, and his eldest son by his sister or other nearest of kin was his successor. The inhabitants were divided into groups of ten thousand, over whom a governor Inca ruled, and all industry was regulated by the state with as much liberty as possible. Every individual had a right to as much land as would support life. They had just laws, the arts flourished, and the Incas left monuments of skill and industry in aqueducts and a great highway upon the Andes that excite the wonder of the traveller to this day.

Incas of Peru, EMPIRE OF THE, OVERTHROWN. Among the conquerors of the West India islands and Central America were Francisco Pizarro and Diego de Almagro. The success of Cortez inspired these men to attempt greater conquests. Pizarro was with Vasco Nuñez de Balboa (see *Nuñez*) when the latter discovered the Pacific Ocean, and there received hints of the opulent countries farther south on the coast of that ocean. He and Almagro associated themselves with a wealthy priest at Panama (Hernando de Luque), and took a joint oath that they would never forsake each other until they had fully conquered that country. Pizarro first, and Almagro afterwards, sailed for Peru; and both were repulsed and compelled to leave the country. Pizarro then went to Spain, and received from the monarch a commission as governor and captain-general of all the country which he had discovered, and was vested with supreme authority. Pizarro returned, and, joining his associates at Panama, they fitted out three vessels, with one hundred and eighty soldiers, and sailed in February, 1531, to conquer the empire of the Incas. They marched steadily along the coast after landing, plundering the principal settlements, but were kept at bay six months on the Bay of Guayaquil by the valor of the inhabitants. They were reinforced by one hundred and thirty men soon afterwards. Near the mouth of the River Piuro Pizarro established the first Spanish colony in Peru. With a small train of followers (sixty-two horse and one hundred and six foot, telling them his object was "to propagate the Roman Catholic faith, and not to injure any one"), Pizarro pushed forward towards Caxamalca, one of the seats of the Inca power, near which Atahualpa, the reigning monarch of Peru, was encamped with a considerable body of soldiers. The Inca sent a deputation to welcome Pizarro. The latter, feigning warm friendship for Atahualpa, and assuming the character of an ambassador from a powerful monarch, entered the town, and invited the Inca to an audience the next day, that Pizarro might renew his assurances of friendship. Meanwhile the treacherous Spaniard disposed his troops so as to seize the Inca and carry him to camp a prisoner. Atahualpa appeared in great pomp and splendor, sitting on a throne overlaid with plates of gold and silver, garnished with precious stones and adorned with plumes. He was borne upon the shoulders of attendants, and was followed by several officers of his court and bands of singers and dancers. At the same time the plain became filled with about thirty thousand troops. As the Inca approached, Father Valverde, chaplain of the expedition, advanced with a crucifix in one hand and a breviary in the other, and expounded the doctrines of the Christian faith. He told the Inca of the Pope and his gift to the monarch of Spain of all lands in the West (see *Pope's Gift*); required him to become a Christian; to acknowledge the supreme jurisdiction of the Pope; and to acknowledge the King of Spain as his lawful sovereign. Atahualpa rejected all these proposals with scorn and indignation, and asked the priest where he had heard of the right of a foreigner to take possession of the country of the Incas. "In this book," said Valverde, handing Atahualpa the breviary. The Inca held it to his ear, and, casting it upon the ground in disdain, said, "This is silent; it tells me nothing." The enraged monk ran to his countrymen and cried out, "To arms, Christians! to arms! The word of God is insulted. Avenge this profanation on these impious dogs." Pizarro gave the word, and a furious assault began. The astonished Peruvians fled without making any resistance. Pizarro pressed forward on horseback through the crowd of nobles, and, dragging the Inca to the ground, carried him away a prisoner to the quarters of the Spaniards. The Peruvians were pursued and slaughtered with great barbarity until night fell upon the scene. About five thousand of them were killed. The Inca found that gold was the object of this pretended friendly embassy, and he offered, as a ransom, to fill the room in which he was confined with vessels of gold to a certain height. They were brought, and amounted in value, when melted down, to $17,500,000. After this immense sum was divided among the victors the Inca demanded his release. Pizarro had determined to have the kingdom. He made charges against Atahualpa—some true, some false; among others, that he had incited his subjects to take up arms against the Spaniards, and that he was an idolater. For these offences he was tried and condemned to be burned alive. Amazed, the Inca begged for his life, and to be sent to Spain. Pizarro silenced his entreaties by ordering an immediate execution of the sentence. At that critical moment Father Valverde, intent upon effecting the conversion of this heathen, promised him a mitigation of the horrid death if he would become a Christian. Atahualpa thereupon desired to be baptized. This done, instead of being burned, he was strangled at the stake (Aug. 29, 1533). "An evidence of God's mercy," said a Spanish historian. Pizarro now forced his way to Cuzco—the Holy City—(November, 1533), the ancient capital, which contained a magnificent Temple of the Sun and nearly two hundred thousand inhabitants. Pizarro took possession of it in the name of the King of Spain, and the amount of gold and silver which he found there nearly equalled that of the ransom of Atahualpa. The empire of the Incas was now overturned, and Pizarro founded Lima, nearer the sea, as the capital of Peru.

Independence, FIRST PROPOSITION IN CONGRESS FOR. In a debate in the Continental Congress (February, 1776) on the subject of opening the American ports to commerce, the power of a nationality became a topic. Roger Sherman wished first to procure a protective treaty with some foreign power. Benjamin Harrison said, indicating a desire for independence, "We have hobbled on under a fatal attachment to Great Britain. I feel that attachment as much as any man, but I feel a stronger one for my country." His colleague, George Wythe, said, "It is too true, our ships may be taken unless we provide a remedy; but we may authorize vessels to arm, and we may give *letters-of-marque* and reprisal. We may also invite foreign powers to make treaties of commerce with us; but before this measure is adopted it is to be considered in what character we shall treat—as subjects of Great Britain? as rebels? No; we must declare ourselves a free people." Then he moved a resolution "That the colonies have a right to contract alliances with foreign powers." A timid member said, "Why, this is independence." Seven colonies decided to consider the motion, but nothing more was done at that time. This was between three and four months before Lee offered his resolution for independence (which see).

Independence in the British Parliament. The Declaration of Independence had lost America many friends in England, for it aroused the national spirit against the attempt to dismember the British empire. But there were still warm friends to the American cause among members of the House of Commons. The king, having heard of Howe's success on Long Island, felt assured of soon suppressing the rebellion; and in his opening speech on the assembling of Parliament (October, 1776), expressed a desire to restore "to the Americans the blessings of law and liberty," of which their fanatical leaders had deprived them. A warm debate ensued, in which Charles James Fox boldly took ground in favor of the independence of the Americans. "The administration," he said, "deserve nothing but reproach for having brought the Americans into such a situation that it is impossible for them to pursue any other conduct than what they have pursued. In declaring independence, they have done no more than the English did against James II. . . . But if this happy time of 'law and liberty' is to be restored to Americans, why was it ever disturbed? It reigned there till the abominable doctrine of gaining money by taxes infatuated the heads of our statesmen. Why did you destroy the fair work of so many ages in order to re-establish it by the bayonets of disciplined Germans? If we are reduced to the dilemma of conquering or abandoning America, I am for abandoning America." The sagacity and fearlessness of Fox, then only twenty-seven years of age, made him the most important member of the House of Commons, and his speech above alluded to was highly lauded by Burke and Gibbon. Yet he was not a statesman—only a great speaker. He was licentious, dissipated, and without strong moral convictions, and loved to be talked about.

Independence, Longings for. During the long quarrel between Great Britain and her colonies, to 1776, the latter had honestly disclaimed any desire for political independence of Great Britain. They felt a pride in being a part of the British empire; but when the king and Parliament had declared the colonists rebels, the royal governor had abdicated, fleets and armies had come to compel them to submit to oppressive laws, and German mercenaries had been hired to fight and crush them, their respectful petitions treated with disdain, and submission had become a synonym of slavery, there was a spontaneous desire and bold expression for independence throughout the colonies. A few men like Samuel Adams had desired it from the beginning; now, early in 1776, Samuel Adams found the people with him. Washington and other military leaders did not hesitate to express their wishes for independence. "When I took command of the army (July, 1775)," Washington wrote, "I abhorred the idea of independence; but I am now fully convinced nothing else will save us." Thomas Paine's *Common Sense* (which see) gave powerful impetus to the idea. Legislative bodies soon began to move in the matter. The Continental Congress was firm at heart, but timorous in action. In January (1776) Dr. Franklin tried to get a day set for the consideration of his plan for a confederation, but the privilege was denied. Their constituents everywhere were ahead of the representatives; but in February, when it was proposed to Congress to send out an address disclaiming all ideas of independence, there was a general expression of disgust and resentment. It was presented by Wilson, of Pennsylvania, in a long, ill-written draught of an address to his constituents. Harrison and Wythe, of Virginia, both spoke warmly against it, and the latter offered a brief resolution (see *Independence, First Proposition in Congress for*), which made timid members start in alarm, for it meant independence; but the resolution was adopted. As the spring advanced other measures having the same tendency were adopted by Congress. The Committee of Secret Correspondence (which see) appointed Silas Deane a political and commercial agent to operate in France and elsewhere; and finally a resolution for independence was passed (June, 1776) by the Congress. Of the colonial authorities, those of North Carolina were the first to act officially in the matter. The Provincial Congress authorized (April 22, 1776) their delegates in the Continental Congress "to concur" with others in "declaring independence." On the next day the people of Massachusetts did the same. Those of Rhode Island and Virginia instructed their representatives to *propose* independence. The delegates from Connecticut were instructed to *assent* to it. The Provincial Congress of New Hampshire issued similar instructions. The delegates of New Jersey were left to act as they pleased. The New York Congress took no action. Neither did the authorities of Pennsylvania give any instructions in the matter. The Maryland convention, at the close of May, forbade their delegates voting for independence; but at the close of June they were in accord with Virginia. Delaware, South Carolina, and Georgia took no official action on the subject. By the first of June (1776) a great majority of the colonists were longing for independence.

Independence of the United States, Acknowledgment of, by European Powers. France, by treaty, acknowledged their independence in February, 1778; Holland in April, 1782; Sweden in February, 1783; Denmark in February, Spain in March, and Russia in July, 1782; and Great Britain in 1783. (See *Treaty of Peace.*)

Independence, Resolution of Congress on. Virginia had instructed her representatives in Congress to *propose* independence. On the 7th of June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee offered in that body the following resolution: "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states, and that all political connection between us and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." It was instantly seconded by John Adams. To shield him and Lee from

THE STATE HOUSE AS IT APPEARED IN 1774.
(From a vignette on an old map of Philadelphia.)

ministerial wrath as arch-rebels, the Secretary of Congress was directed to omit their names in the entry on the journal, and that record simply declared that "certain resolutions respecting independence being moved and seconded," it was resolved that the further consideration of them should be postponed until the next day. The postponement was extended to the 2d of July, on which day it was adopted by a vote of eleven colonies in the affirmative. The representatives of Pennsylvania were divided, four of the seven delegates voting in favor of it, and three against it. The two delegates from Delaware, present, were divided. At that time the meeting-place of the Continental Congress was in a large room on the lower floor of the State House in Philadelphia, which has since been known as "Independence Hall." (See *Declaration of Independence.*)

"Independent Reflector," THE, was established as a weekly magazine, in the city of New York, by James Parker. It was neatly printed on foolscap paper, and contained moral and political essays, but no current news. Its first number was issued on Thursday, Nov. 30, 1752, and it continued about two years. Its papers were contributed by a society of literary gentlemen in and near New York, the principal of whom were William Livingston, President Aaron Burr, John Morin Scott, William Alexander (Lord Stirling), and William Smith, who died chief-justice of Canada. It finally gave great offence to the crown officers in the colonies, and their threats so intimidated Parker that he refused to print it any longer, and it was discontinued. The writer had spared no party—social, political, or religious—and the editor-in-chief (the unknown William Livingston) was denounced in private circles as an infidel and libertine, and from the pulpit as the Gog and Magog of the Apocalypse. The mayor of the city, who had felt the scorching heat of the *Reflector*, recommended the grand jury to present it as a libel and nuisance, and the editor was publicly charged with profanity, irreligion, and sedition. In the spring of 1753, Livingston (still unknown) violently assailed the Episcopalians in the *Reflector*. The occasion was the effort (which was successful) of establishing King's (now Columbia) College under the control of the Episcopalians. Livingston was one of the small minority of the trustees, and it was his pen that furnished the papers under different signatures in the *Reflector*, in which (March, 1753) he opened his batteries upon the Anglican Church. Violent opposition immediately appeared, in which the pens of Johnson, Barclay, Auchmuty, and other churchmen were employed. The *Reflector* was discontinued Nov. 22, 1753, at its fifty-second number. For his services in opposing the pretensions of the Episcopalians, the Synod of Connecticut voted thanks to Livingston; and in Gaines's *New York Mercury* he was lampooned in a poem of two hundred lines, in which the anonymous writer thus alluded to the mysterious editor of the *Reflector:*

> "Some think him a *Tindall*, some think him a *Chubb*,
> Some think him a *Ranter*, that spouts from his *Tub;*
> Some think him a *Newton*, some think him a *Locke*,
> Some think him a *Stone*, some think him a *Stock*—
> But a *Stock*, he, at least, may thank nature for giving,
> And if he's a *Stone*, I pronounce it a *Living.*"

Indian Allies of the Americans (1814). In March, 1814, a council of the Northern Indian tribes was convened at Dayton, O., at which those present were required, as an earnest of their peaceful intentions, to take up arms against the British, with the pay of seventy-five cents a day to each warrior. Another council, more numerously attended, gathered at the old council-ground of Greenville (June and July, 1814), when the Indian boundary-lines, as they existed before the war, were confirmed. After that the Wyandots, Delawares, Senecas, Shawnoese, and most of the Miamis joined in the war-dance and took up arms as required. A large body of the barbarian allies soon assembled at Detroit; but after one or two inroads into Canada, they were dismissed as troublesome, expensive, and useless.

Indian Allies of the Confederates. West of Arkansas lie the Indian territories, where, in 1861, at the outbreak of the Civil War, dwelt the semicivilized nations of Cherokees, Choctaws, and Chickasaws, then numbering about forty thousand souls. There were also some Creeks and Senecas and Shawnoese on a visit there at the same time. A brother of Governor Rector, of Arkansas, was then the government agent among the Cherokees. The Confederate government formed at Montgomery directed Governor Rector to endeavor to attach these half-barbarians to the insurgent cause. To this work the governor's brother addressed himself. When, in June, 1861, Jefferson Davis ordered three regiments to be formed of these Indians, he commissioned Albert Pike, a poet of some pretensions and a native of New England, to make a treaty with them. Pike met them in council in their own country. He succeeded with the less civilized Choctaws and Chickasaws. By a treaty made they were allowed two delegates in the Congress at Montgomery. Pike was also commissioned a brigadier-general, and led two regiments in the Confederate army. A third regiment was raised before the close of 1861. With these half-savages Pike fought in the battle at Pea Ridge (which see), and there they were hopelessly dispersed.

Indian Bureau (1786). (See *Commissioners of Indian Affairs.*) In August, 1786, the Indian Bureau was reorganized by ordinance, and made subordinate to the Department of War. Two superintendents were appointed, one for the district north of the Ohio, the other for the region south of that river, whose functions were to see that the regulations of Congress were enforced; to keep the Indians quiet by doing them justice and to prevent their encroachments; also to prevent that misconduct on the part of the frontier settlers by which Indian hostilities were generally provoked.

Indian Cessions of Land (1803). Ohio having become a state of the Union (1802), propositions were made for four other states out of the northwestern territory (which see). At a treaty held with Governor Harrison, of the Indian Territory, Aug. 13, 1803, a large extinguishment was made of Indian titles north of the Ohio. In consideration of the protecting care of the United States, of $580 in cash, of an increase of their annuity to $1000, of $300 towards building a church, and of annual payment, for seven years, of $100 to a Roman Catholic priest, the remnant of the Kaskaskia tribe, reduced to a few hundred persons—the feeble representation of the once powerful confederacy of the Illinois—ceded to the United States (excepting a small reservation), all the vast tract lying within the lines beginning at the mouth of the Illinois River, descending the Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio, ascending the Ohio to the mouth of the Wabash, and from a point up that stream westward to the Mississippi, embracing all the southern portion of the State of Illinois. By two treaties made at Vincennes (Aug. 18 and 27) with the Delawares and Piankeshaws, and at St. Louis (Nov. 3), in 1804, with the Sacs and Foxes (which see), by Governor Harrison, of Indiana, the Indian title to large additional tracts in that region was extinguished. The Delawares and Piankeshaws, in consideration of small additional annuities, ceded all the country south of Vincennes to the falls of the Ohio, at Louisville. The Sacs and Foxes, in consideration of an annuity in goods to the value of $1000, ceded a great tract on both sides of the Mississippi of near 80,000 square miles, extending on the east bank from the mouth of the Illinois River and thence to the Wisconsin, and including on the west a considerable part of the (present) State of Missouri, from the mouth of the Gasconade northward. In the summer of 1805 large tracts of land in Ohio and Indiana were ceded to the United States by Western Indians. By a treaty made by Governor Harrison, of Indiana (July 4), at Fort Industry, on the Maumee, with the Wyandots, Ottawas, Chippewas, Munsees, Delawares, Shawnoese, and Potawatomies, they relinquished all claim to the tract of land in Ohio known as "The Connecticut Reserve," in consideration of a perpetual annuity of $1000, in addition to $16,000 already paid or secured to some of their tribes by the Connecticut Land Company, the purchasers for Connecticut of that tract. By another treaty (Aug. 21, 1805) with the Delawares, Potawatomies, Miamis, Eel River Indians, and Weas, the Indian title was extinguished to all that part of the (present) State of Indiana within fifty miles of the Ohio, except a narrow tract along the west bank of the Wabash; and thus, in connection with former cessions, was opened to settlement the whole northern banks of the Ohio, from its source to its mouth. In 1808 there were again cessions of large tracts of land by the Indians south of the Ohio River. The Choctaws (which see) ceded that wide tract intervening between the settlements about Natchez and those on the Tombigbee, including all the southern portion of the (present) State of Mississippi, for $50,000, to be appropriated to the discharge of debts due to certain traders, a gratuity of $500 each to three of the principal chiefs, besides an annuity of $50 during their chieftaincy, and goods of the value of $3000 to be annually furnished to the nation. The Ottawas, Chippewas, Wyandots, and Potawatomies ceded a great tract of territory north of the Maumee River, from the junction of the Auglaize eastward, extending up the Detroit River and Lake Huron so as to include a third part or more of the peninsula of Michigan, for $10,000, payable in goods, and an annuity of $2400.

Indian Cessions of Lands IN 1818. By a treaty negotiated in September, 1817, and again in 1818, the Wyandots, Delawares, Senecas, and Shawnoese, with some bands of the Potawatomies, Ottawas, and Chippewas, ceded all their remaining lands in Ohio — about four million acres, embracing the valley of the Maumee. For this cession $14,000 were paid to the several tribes, in various proportions, in the name of damages suffered from the British in the late war: $500 to the Delawares; $10,000 annually to the Wyandots, Senecas, Shawnoese, and Ottawas forever; and $3300 annually for fifteen years to the Potawatomies and united Chippewas and Ottawas. About three hundred thousand acres were reserved in various tracts, and assigned to different bands, families, and individuals, under the idea that the Indians might adopt the habits of civilization and become farmers. An annuity of $1000 had already been granted (in 1816) for twelve years to the united Chippewas, Ottawas, and Potawatomies of the Illinois and Milwaukee reservations, in consideration of a tract twenty miles wide, including the site of Chicago, and extending back from Lake Michigan southwesterly to the Kankakee and Fox rivers. Some considerable cessions were also obtained in Illinois and Indiana from the Potawatomies, Weas, Miamis, and Delawares. The states of Kentucky and Tennessee also received large accessions to their territories by a cession in 1818 by the Chickasaws of all the tract of land included between the Mississippi and the northern course of the Tennessee River. The Chickasaw villages were mostly lower down the Mississippi, this tract having been used as hunting-grounds. In consideration for this important cession, the United States agreed to pay to the Choctaw nation (besides reservations made to certain chiefs) $70,000 annually for fifteen years. This whole tract was already covered by old Virginia and North Carolina land-grants, which the government paid for, but individuals profited by.

Indian Commissioners. (See *Commissioners of Indian Affairs.*)

Indian Commissions. The importance of keeping on good terms with the Indians, and especially with the Six Nations, was felt at the beginning of the war for independence. Three boards for the management of Indian affairs were constituted: one for the Six Nations and other Northern tribes, a second for the Cherokees and Creeks, and a third for the intervening nations; and $500 was voted for the education of Indian youths at Wheelock's school at Hanover, N. H. Louis, a half-breed of negro and Indian blood, was given a commission as colonel, and faithfully adhered to the American cause.

Indian Commonwealth Proposed. In a message to Congress, Jan. 17, 1825, President Monroe suggested the propriety of removing all the scattered Indian tribes in the United States and concentrating them in one nation west of the Mississippi River. Measures were taken to carry this plan into effect. Treaties were made with the Osage and Kansas Indians extinguishing their titles to territory west of the Mississippi, and so a territory was provided for those Indians who might be induced to emigrate from the states on the east side of that river. But they were generally unwilling to remove, and such a scheme has never been carried out. The nearest approach to it was the establishment of the Indian Territory. (See *Indian Territory.*)

Indian Congress in Georgia. In 1774 Sir James Wright, royal governor of Georgia, called a congress of the principal heads of the Creek and Cherokee Indians, who were induced to cede to the British crown several million acres of valuable land in the most healthful and fertile portion of the province for the payment of debts which the barbarians owed to white traders.

Indian Corn. When the English settlers first went to Virginia, they found the Indians cultivating maize, and the Europeans called it "Indian corn." It proved to be a great blessing to the emigrants to our shores, from Maine to Florida. Indian corn appears among the earliest exports from America. So early as 1748 the two Carolinas exported about 100,000 bushels a year. For several years previous to the Revolution Virginia exported 600,000 bushels annually. The total amount of this grain exported annually from all the English-American colonies at the beginning of the Revolution was between 560,000 and 580,000 bushels. At the beginning of this century the annual export was 2,000,000 bushels. But its annual product was not included in the census reports of our country until 1840, when the aggregate yield was nearly 400,000,000 bushels. The largest production we have ever had was in 1855, when it was 1,000,000,000 bushels, valued at $400,000,000. While Captain Miles Standish and others of the Pilgrims (which see) were seeking a place to land, they found some maize in one of the deserted huts of the Indians. Afterwards Samoset, the friendly Indian, and others, taught the Pilgrims how to cultivate the grain, for it was unknown in Europe, and this supply, serving them for seed, saved the little colony from starvation the following year. The grain now first received the name of "Indian corn." Mr. Schoolcraft tells us that Indian corn entered into the mythology of the barbarians in the region of the upper lakes. In legend the Indians tell us that a youth, on the verge of manhood, went into the forest to fast, where he built himself a lodge and painted his face in sombre colors; and then he asked the Master of Life for some precious gift that should benefit his race. Being weak from fasting, he lay down in his lodge and gazed through its opening into the blue depths of the heavens, from which descended a visible spirit in the form of a beautiful young man dressed in green, and having green plumes on his head. This embodied spirit bade the young Indian to rise and wrestle with him as the only way to obtain the coveted blessing. Four days the wrestlings were repeated, the youth feeling each time an increasing moral and supernatural energy, while his bodily strength declined. This mysterious energy promised him the final victory. On the third day his celestial visitor said to him: "To-morrow will be the seventh day of your fast, and the last time I shall wrestle with you. You will triumph over me and gain your wishes. As soon as you have thrown me down, strip off my clothes and bury me on the spot in soft, fresh earth. When you have done this, leave me, but come occasionally to visit the place to keep the weeds from growing. Once or twice cover me with fresh earth." The spirit then departed, but returned the next day; and, as he had predicted, the youth threw him on the ground. The young man obeyed his visitor's instructions faithfully, and very soon was delighted to see the green plumes of the heavenly stranger shooting up through the mould. He carefully weeded the ground around them, and kept it fresh and soft, and in due time his eyes were charmed at beholding a full-grown plant bending with fruit that soon became golden just as the frost touched it. It gracefully waved its long leaves and its yellow tassels in the autumn wind. The young man called his parents to behold the new plant. "It is *Mendu-min,*" said his father; "it is the grain of the Great Spirit." They invited their friends to a feast on the excellent grain, and there were great rejoicings. Such is the legend of the origin of Indian corn, or maize.

Indian Hospitality. Everywhere Europeans landing on the shores of America were treated with great kindness by the natives, who saw them for the first time; and such might have been the pleasing intercourse with the barbarians until now but for the cruelty and injustice with which the hospitality of the aborigines was frequently requited. When Amidas and Barlow, sent out to America by Sir Walter Raleigh, visited Roanoke Island, they were hospitably entertained by the wife of a brother of the Hatteras king, in the absence of her husband, who had been on board their ships. When these navigators were alarmed by the appearance of some hunters, she caused several of her men to go out and take away and break their bows and arrows; and when, in alarm, the English were preparing to leave in their boat, she carried them supper half cooked in pots, at the same time ordering several men and thirty women to act as a guard to them through the night, sitting on the sandy beach. She also sent them some fine mats to screen them from the weather. This kindness was afterwards so requited by cruelties by men under Grenville, Lane, and other Englishmen, that destruction was brought upon a colony planted on Roanoke Island.

Indian Lands, CESSIONS OF, IN THE SOUTH. The people of Tennessee had regarded the tract of country on the southern course of the Tennessee River as yielded up by the late treaty with the Creeks; but the Cherokees claimed it towards the east, and the Choctaws and Chickasaws towards the west. A treaty signed at Washington (March 22, 1816), which recognized the Cherokee claim, offended the Tennesseeans. In consequence of loud complaints, a new treaty was made, by which the Cherokees relinquished their claim to lands on the south side of the Tennessee to the parallel of Huntsville. By two other treaties the Choctaws and Chickasaws relinquished all claim to territory east of the Tombigbee, excepting the valley of Bear Creek, a small tributary of the Tennessee. By these treaties a larger portion of Alabama and a large tract in southern Tennessee were laid open to settlement. The Chickasaws, besides gratuities to certain chiefs, received a consideration of $4500 down, and an annuity of $12,000 for ten years; the Choctaws, $10,000 down, and an annuity of $6000 for twenty years; the Cherokees, $5000 down, and an annuity of $6000 for ten years. The latter also received $5000 in consideration of their relinquishment of any claims of theirs to any part of South Carolina.

Indian Policy, A NEW. On the accession of General Grant to the Presidency, the "Indian Problem," so called, or that of the best policy to be pursued towards the wild Indian tribes of this continent, was pressed upon the attention of Congress. An "Indian war" seemed to be an ever-present evil. "The best way for the government is to make them poor by the destruction of their stock, and then settle them on lands allowed them," said a distinguished army officer. Another distinguished army officer said, "The only good Indian is a dead Indian." With such a spirit had much of the government policy towards the barbarians been pervaded. Injustice, dishonesty, and violence had been meted out to them, and the consequence was they became the implacable enemies of the white people. President Grant was disposed to try a policy of humanity and justice. He recommended the appointment of a number of members of the Society of Friends, or Quakers, as Indian agents. The members of that society have always been noted as friends of the Indians (see *Friendly Association*) and all suffering people, and for general uprightness and peaceful principles. Congress approved the proposition, and on April 11, 1869, on the nomination of the President, appointed sixteen of them such agents. The new system, or policy, promised the happiest results. There has been a rapid advancement in the arts of peace among many Indian nations. In 1875 the Indian Commissioner reported that, out of a barbarian population of two hundred and seventy-nine thousand, more than forty thousand men and boys supported themselves by the labor of their own hands. He also reported that ten thousand Indian children were attending schools. It seems evident that the true policy is to abolish the whole machinery of Indian reservations, superintendents, agents, etc., make every Indian a citizen of the state or territory in which he may reside, give him all the rights and duties of citizenship, and hold him individually responsible to the laws. Only in this way can our barbarian brethren be civilized.

Indian Reservations. Many years ago the United States government adopted the policy of placing Indian tribes on reservations of land, with a view to winning them from the hunting and nomadic state to that of permanent residents and cultivators of the soil. In 1876 there were about one hundred of these reservations, upon which about one hundred and eighty thousand of the barbarians were seated. The aggregate area of these reservations is about one hundred and sixty-eight thousand square miles. Of these, thirty-one are east of the Mississippi River, and nineteen on the Pacific slope. The remainder are between these. There are about forty thousand Indians who have no lands awarded by treaty, but they have reservations set apart for them upon the public lands of the United States, fifteen in number, aggregating about sixty thousand square miles.

Indian Slaves FIRST SENT TO EUROPE. Ferdinand and Isabella, on hearing of the murder of Spaniards by natives of the West India Islands, ordered that whoever should be found guilty of that crime should be sent to Spain as slaves. Bartholomew Columbus, with whom his brother Christopher left the command in Santo Domingo, gave much latitude in his interpretation of the order, and when he sent back some vessels that brought provisions from Spain, he sent three hundred natives of both sexes for slaves.

Indian Territory. By act of Congress, June 30, 1834, "all that part of the United States west of the Mississippi River, and not within the states of Missouri and Louisiana, or the Territory [now the state] of Arkansas, shall be considered the Indian country." It has been reduced in area by the successive formation of states and territories, until now it is bounded north by Colorado and Kansas, east by Missouri and Arkansas, south by Texas, and west by Texas and New Mexico, and contains an area of 69,000 square miles. A narrow strip of territory west of the one hundredth meridian was ceded to the United States by Texas, and is classed geographically with the Indian Territory. The population is estimated at 68,152, of whom 2407 are white people, 6378 colored, and 59,367 Indians. Of the latter, nearly 25,000 were on reservations or agencies in 1873, and 34,400 were rovers. The territory includes seventeen Indian reservations, besides considerable unassigned land. The tribes consist of the Cherokees, Choctaws, Chickasaws, Creeks, Seminoles, Sacs and Foxes; Potawatomies, Shawnoese, Osage, Kaws, Kiowas, Comanches, Apaches, Arapahoes, and Cheyennes; the Quapaws, the confederated Peorias, Kaskaskias, Piankeshaws, Weas, and Miamis; the Ottawas, Wyandots, and Senecas; the affiliated bands of Wichitas, Keechies, Wacoes, Tawacanies, Caddoes, Ioneis, Delawares, and Penetethka Comanches. In the latter part of 1873 the Modocs (a remnant of Captain Jack's band) and about 400 Kickapoos and Potawatomies, from the borders of Texas and Mexico, were removed to the Indian Territory. The territory is well watered and wooded, and has much fertile land suitable for raising cereals and cotton, while the climate is mild and salubrious, but dry. In 1873 the Indian population cultivated 217,790 acres of land, and raised 92,574 bushels of wheat, 1,599,924 bushels of corn, 60,750 bushels of oats, 198,470 bushels of potatoes, 138,745 tons of hay, with considerable quantities of barley, beans, pease, rice, sugar, turnips, and 7000 bales of cotton; they also produced 3,930,460 feet of sawed lumber. A portion of the territory is fine grass land, well fitted for raising live-stock. The several Indian tribes possessed in 1873, in the aggregate, the following live-stock: 212,155 horses, 322,854 horned cattle, 13,100 sheep, and 430,445 swine. The aggregate value of the live-stock was $9,408,178. The territory also produces iron, coal, marble, sandstone, and brick-clay. Buffaloes, wild horses, and wild turkeys are abundant. There are eleven agencies in the territory, viz., Cherokee, Choctaw (including also the Chickasaw), Creek, Kaw, Kiowa, Neosho (the Osages), Quapaw, Sac and Fox (including absentee Shawnoese), Seminole, upper Arkansas (Cheyennes and Arapahoes), and Wichita. The agents represent the United States, but each tribe has its own internal government. In certain instances, where white men are concerned, the jurisdiction of the United States courts extends over the territory. The subject of a territorial government for the Indian country has long been discussed, but, as there are two opposing parties who take cognizance of the matter, no decision has yet been reached. It is the policy of the United States to settle the various Indian tribes in this region upon separate reservations, as far as possible, where they may be free from the encroachment of the white people, and under the general superintendence and protection of the government; but already about two thousand five hundred "pale faces" have intruded and seated themselves in the territory. The Methodists, Presbyterians, and Baptists have each several missions in the territory, and one or more are maintained by the Friends, Moravians, and Roman Catholics; and in 1873 there were over seven thousand church members among the Indians.

Indian Trust Fund, ROBBERY OF THE. At the close of 1860 it was discovered that Indian Trust Funds, in bonds, in the custody of the Secretary of the Interior (Thompson) had been stolen. They were in the special custody of Goddard Bailey, a South Carolinian, and a relative of the Secretary of War, Floyd. The latter had been chiefly instrumental in getting up a military expedition to Utah, in which full $6,000,000 had been squandered, at a critical time in the affairs of the nation, and helped the Secretary of the Treasury to embarrass the nation by injuring the public credit. The troops in Utah were stationed at "Camp Floyd," and the secretary had contracted with the firm of Russell & Co. for the transportation of supplies to that post. For this service they were to receive $1,000,000 a year. Floyd accepted from them drafts on his department, before the service was performed, to the amount of over $2,000,000. These acceptances were so manifestly illegal that it was difficult to negotiate them. The contractors became embarrassed, and hit upon a scheme for raising money more rapidly. Russell induced Bailey to exchange Indian Trust Fund bonds for Floyd's illegal acceptances, it is believed, with the connivance of the secretary. They were hypothecated in New York and money raised on them. When the national treasury became embarrassed, late in 1860, under the manipulations of Cobb, these bonds depreciated, and the holders called on Russell for additional security. Bailey supplied him with more bonds, until the whole amounted to $870,000. As the time approached for his being called upon for the abstracted coupons on these bonds, payable Jan. 1, 1861, Bailey was driven to a confession. Thompson was then in North Carolina as commissioner of the "sovereign state of Mississippi," conspiring with the disunionists. Bailey confessed to him in a letter, which he antedated Dec. 1, pleading for himself that his motive had been to save the honor of Floyd, compromised by his illegal advances. Thompson returned, and, after a consultation, it is said, with Floyd, revealed the matter to the President, who was astonished. Thompson, who knew all about it, conducted the farce of discovering the thief. In due time Bailey made a public confession. The grand jury at Washington indicted Floyd on three counts, namely, malversation in office, complicity in the abstraction of the bonds, and conspiracy against the government. Floyd fled. Rumor magnified the amount of money thus stolen to millions, and the impression went abroad that plunder was the business of the cabinet. The blow to the public credit was staggering. A congressional committee of investigation mildly expressed the opinion that Floyd's conduct "could not be reconciled with purity of motives and faithfulness to public trusts." He was then the honored guest of the authorities at Richmond, Va.

Indian War in Minnesota (1862). At midsummer, Little Crow, a saintly-looking savage in civilized costume, leader of Sioux warriors, began war on the white people, and in August and September butchered inhabitants at three points in Minnesota, and at posts beyond the boundary of that state. For nine days the Sioux besieged Fort Ridgely. Fort Abercrombie was also besieged, and twice assaulted; and in that region the Indians murdered about five hundred white inhabitants, mostly defenceless women and children. General H. H. Sibley was sent with a body of militia to crush the Indians. He attacked a large force under Little Crow at Wood Lake, and drove them into Dakota, making five hundred of their number prisoners. Tried by court-martial, three hundred of them were sentenced to be hanged. The President interfered, and only thirty-seven of the worst offenders were executed, Feb. 28, 1863. The "Sioux War" was not ended until the summer of 1863, when General Pope took command of that department, picketed the line of settlements in the far Northwest with two thousand soldiers, and took vigorous measures to disperse the hostile bands. Generals Sibley and Sully moved against them in June, 1863, fought the savages at different places, and finally scattered them among the wilds of the eastern slopes of the spurs of the Rocky Mountains.

Indian War in North Carolina (1711). The Indians in northeastern North Carolina beheld with jealousy and discontent the spreading European settlements in their land along the regions of Albemarle and Pamlico sounds and up the streams. The remnants only of once powerful tribes remained, of whom the Tuscaroras were the most numerous. These had been driven into the forests, and there had nursed their revenge until it became too strong to be repressed, and, led by the dominant tribe, they struck a sudden blow for the extermination of the white people. German settlements under Count Graffenreidt were first smitten, at midnight (Oct. 2, 1711), and one hundred and thirty men, women, and children were slaughtered, and for scores of miles the country was lighted up with the flames of burning dwellings. For three days they scourged the settlers near the sounds with the hatchet and the torch, and left a terrible pathway of blood and cinders. Those who escaped the massacre called upon their brethren of the southern colony for aid, when Colonel Barnwell, with a party of South Carolinians and friendly Indians, marched to their relief. He drove the Tuscaroras to their fortified town in (the present) Craven County, and there made a treaty of peace with them. The white people soon violated it, and war began again. Again the South Carolinians were called upon for help. Back to the rescue of their brethren went the Carolinians, with a large body of Indians, all led by Colonel Moore. The barbarians were soon defeated, and at their fort in Greene County he made (March, 1713) eight hundred of the Tuscaroras captives, when the remainder fled, and joined their kindred in the North. (See *Tuscaroras.*) A treaty of peace was made with the Corees in 1755, and North Carolina never suffered from Indian hostilities afterwards.

Indian War in Oregon. Settlers in Oregon and in Washington Territory, in 1855, suffered much from parties of barbarians, who went in bands to murder and plunder the white people. The savages were so well organized at one time that it was thought the white settlers would be compelled to abandon the country. Major-general Wool, stationed at San Francisco, went to Portland, Or., and there organized a campaign against the Indians. The latter had formed a powerful combination, but Wool brought hostilities to a close during the summer of 1856. The bad conduct of Indian agents, and possibly encouragement given the Indians by employés of the Hudson's Bay Company, were the chief causes of the trouble.

Indian War in South Carolina (1703). Before the settlement of Georgia was begun, below the Savannah River, the South Carolinians were often annoyed by Indian depredations, incited by the Spaniards in Florida. In 1703, the Appalachian Indians (a tribe of the Mobilian family), in league with the Spaniards, were attacked by Governor Moore and a body of white men and Indians. Their chief village was desolated; nearly eight hundred of the Appalachians were made prisoners, and their whole territory was made tributary to the white people. A few years later a secret general Indian confederacy was formed to exterminate the white people by a single blow. Within forty days, in the spring of 1715, the Indian tribes from the Cape Fear to the St. Mary and back to the mountains had coalesced in the conspiracy, and before the people of Charleston had any intimation of danger, one hundred white victims had been slain in the remote settlements. The Creeks, Yamasees, and Appalachians in the South had confederated with the Cherokees, Catawbas, and Congarees in the West, in all about six thousand strong, while more than one thousand warriors issued from the Neuse region to avenge their misfortunes in the war of 1712–13. (See *Indian War in North Carolina.*) The people were filled with terror. Governor Craven acted with the utmost wisdom and energy. He declared the province to be under martial law, and at the head of twelve hundred men, black and white, he marched to meet the foe. The Indians were at first victorious, but after several bloody encounters the Southern warriors were driven across the Savannah River (May, 1715), and halted not until they found refuge under the Spanish guns at St. Augustine. The Cherokees and their northern neighbors had not yet engaged in the war, and they wearily returned to their hunting-grounds, deeply impressed with a sense of the greatness and strength of the white people.

Indian War in Virginia (1675). For trifling offences the white people in Virginia colony were in the habit of punishing the Indians cruelly. Retaliations followed, and in 1675 Maryland and Virginia joined in fitting out an expedition to confront various tribes who had joined for the purpose of avenging the death of many warriors, some of them through rank treachery. The expedition, composed of one thousand men, was led by Colonel John Washington (great-grandfather of the patriot), whose men murdered a number of Indian chiefs who came out for a parley. For this Washington was blamed, and was publicly reprimanded in the Virginia Assembly by Governor Berkeley, who said, "If they [the Indians] had killed my grandfather and my grandmother, my father, my mother, and all my friends, yet, if they had come to treat in peace, they should have gone in peace." Dreadful desolations by the Indians followed. In the following winter they penetrated Virginia almost to Jamestown, animated more by revenge than eagerness for plunder. Before spring sixty of the colonists had fallen victims. In this season of distress Berkeley seemed very inefficient, and this fact called forth the energies of Bacon to save the colony from further injuries by the barbarians. (See *Bacon's Rebellion.*)

Indian War with the Dutch in New Netherland. The oppressions of Kieft (which see) aroused the surrounding Indians to war. Eleven petty tribes—some on the main, some on Long Island—united to make war in the spring of 1643. They desolated the scattered farms which extended thirty miles from Manhattan. Massacre, plunder, and burning prevailed everywhere, and in all directions the terrified Europeans were seen flying to New Amsterdam for their lives. Satiated with revenge, the Indians made peace. An Indian war broke out again in September the same year. First a tribe above the Highlands attacked and plundered a Dutch canoe coming from Fort Orange (Albany). Some other tribes joined them in plundering farms on Long Island and a settlement in New Jersey, back of Newark Bay. It was in this war that Mrs. Hutchinson and her family perished. (See *Hutchinson, Anne.*) This war continued, at intervals, for more than a year. During the latter years of Stuyvesant's administration, war with the Indians raged in (present) Ulster County, at Esopus (now Kingston), and vicinity. Stuyvesant's better policy finally pacified them, and peace prevailed while the Dutch ruled.

STATE SEAL OF INDIANA.

Indiana was first explored by French missionaries and traders, and Vincennes was a missionary station so early as 1700. Indiana constituted a part of New France (which see), and afterwards of the Northwest Territory. In 1702 some French Canadians discovered the Wabash, and established several trading-posts on its banks—among others, Vincennes. Little is known of the early settlers until the country was ceded to the English, in 1763. The treaty of 1783 included Indiana in the United States. A distressing Indian war broke out in 1788, but by victories over the barbarians, by General Wilkinson (1791) and General Wayne (1794), a dangerous confederacy of the tribes was broken up. Another was afterwards attempted by Tecumtha, but was defeated by the result of the battle of Tippecanoe (which see). On July 4, 1800, the territorial government of Indiana was organized, with William Henry Harrison as governor. It then included Michigan and Illinois. The former was set off in 1805, and the latter in 1809, when Indiana was reduced to its present dimensions. At that time the population was about 24,000 souls. When war with Great Britain broke out, in 1812, a fresh impulse was given to Indian depredations, which had never fairly ceased, but the barbarians were beaten, and were quiet after the close of that contest. On June 29, 1816, a convention adopted a state constitution for Indiana, and on Dec. 11 it was admitted into the Union as a state. Rapid and continued emigration ensued. This was greatly increased by the opening of the Erie Canal (which see). During the Civil War Indiana furnished to the National army 195,147 soldiers.

Indiana, Attempt to introduce Slavery in. In 1803 a movement was made in Congress for suspending for a limited term, in the case of Indiana Territory, the provision of the Ordinance of 1787 (which see) prohibiting slavery northward of the Ohio River. A committee, of which John Randolph, of Virginia, was chairman, reported strongly against the proposition, believing that "in the salutary operation of this salutary and sagacious restraint the inhabitants of Indiana would, at no distant day, find ample remuneration for a temporary privation of labor and immigration." At the next session (1804) the subject was brought up and referred to a new committee, of which Rodney, the new Democratic representative from Delaware, was chairman. This committee reported in favor of such suspension, so as to admit, for ten years, the introduction of slaves born within the territory of the United States, their descendants to be free, masculine at the age of twenty-five years, and feminine at twenty-one years. No action was had, but the subject was afterwards before Congress several times on the urgent application of inhabitants of Indiana for the privilege of introducing slavery into the territory.

Indiana, Position of (1861). This flourishing state, carved out of the Northwest Territory (which see), and containing over 1,350,000 inhabitants, was intensely loyal to the Union. There was no special occasion for the revelation of this loyalty until the attack on Fort Sumter (which see), when it was aroused to intense action. Its governor (Oliver P. Morton) was able, energetic, and steadfast in support of the national authority during the war, and the sons of Indiana were seen on almost every battlefield of that contest. One of the earlier battles of that war was fought by an Indiana regiment (see *Romney*), and its colonel (Wallace) took a high rank in the Union army as an energetic leader.

Indiana Territory. In the year 1800 the "Connecticut Reserve," in the northeastern portion of Ohio, having been sold to a company of speculators, measures were taken to extinguish certain claims on the part of the United States and the State of Connecticut. The speculators found their bargain to be pecuniarily unprofitable, and likely to prove a serious embarrassment. Full one thousand settlers were already on the "Reserve." Hitherto a confirmation of the Connecticut title to these lands by the United States had been inferentially acknowledged, and Connecticut had given no quitclaim deeds, therefore it was to the interest of the speculators to obtain from the United States a direct confirmation. On the other hand, it was an object for the United States to extinguish Connecticut's claim of jurisdiction. Congress passed an act (April 28, 1800) authorizing the issue of letters-patent conveying the title of these lands to the governor of Connecticut, for the benefit of those claiming under her, and similar letters-patent were issued by Connecticut, relinquishing all claim to jurisdiction. So the "Reserve" was annexed to the Northwest Territory, which was presently divided, by act of Congress (May 7), into two separate jurisdictions, the western one being called the Territory of Indiana, after one of the old ante-Revolutionary land companies. St. Vincent, or Vincennes, was made the capital, and William Henry Harrison was appointed governor of the territory.

A NORTH AMERICAN INDIAN.

Indians. Believing the earth to be a globe, Columbus expected to find India or Eastern Asia by sailing westward from Spain. The first land discovered by him—one of the Bahama Islands—he supposed to be a part of India, and he called the inhabitants *Indians*. This name was afterwards applied to all the nations of the adjacent islands and the continent. *Origin.*—There is no positive knowledge concerning the origin of the aborigines of America; their own traditions widely vary, and conjecture is unsatisfying. Recent investigations favor a theory that, if they be not indigenous, they came from two great Asiatic families; the more northern tribes of our continent from the lighter Mongolians, who crossed at Behring's Strait, and the more southerly ones, in California, Central and South America, from the darker Malays, who first peopled Polynesia, in the southern Pacific Ocean, and finally made their way to our continent, gradually spreading over it from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Language fails to connect any of them with the Asiatic families, but their traditions, implements, and modes of life point to such a relationship. It has been suggested that the Mandans and Chinooks, who are almost white, are descendants of a Welsh colony said to have been lost in the wilds of North America seven hundred years ago. *Unity.*—There seems to be a physical identity of race throughout most of the continent. Their skin is generally of a dark reddish-brown, or cinnamon, color; they have long, black, and straight hair, prominent cheekbones, and broad faces; eyes deep-set, full and rounded lips, broad and prominent noses, scanty beard; their heads are generally square, and their stature about the same as that of other races of the same latitude. Their muscular development is not great, and their hands and feet are small; their skin is thinner, softer, and smoother than that of Europeans; the expression of the men is often noble, and many of the women are handsome. Haughty in deportment, taciturn, stoical, cunning, persevering, revengeful, brave and ferocious in war; cruel towards enemies and faithful towards friends; grateful for favors, hospitable and kind, the Indians of North America are undoubtedly capable of great and rapid development under the genial influence of civilization. Their mental temperament is poetic and imaginative in a high degree, and it is often expressed in great beauty and eloquence of language; but in their present social condition, their animal propensities greatly preponderate over the intellectual. The tribes south of California have always been noted for mental development much superior to those of more northern latitudes. *Pursuits.*—War, hunting, and fishing are the chief pursuits of the men of the more barbarous tribes; agriculture of the semi-civilized. Among the savages found in North America by Europeans, the women performed almost all the manual labor and burden-bearing. They carried on their limited agriculture, which consisted in the production of maize or Indian corn, beans, squashes, potatoes, and tobacco. They manufactured the implements of war, and for hunting and fishing; made mats, and skin and feather clothing, canoes, ornaments of the teeth and claws of beasts, and of shells and porcupine-quills; performed all domestic drudgery, and constructed the lodges of the bark of trees or the hides of beasts. Rude figures of animate and inanimate objects carved in wood or stone, or moulded in clay, and picture-writing on the inner bark of trees or the skins of beasts, or cut upon rocks, with rude ornamented pottery, was the extent of their accomplishments in the arts of design and of literature. The picture-writing was sometimes used in musical notation, and contained the burden of their songs. *Religion.*—They believed in a good and Supreme Being, and in an Evil Spirit, and recognized the existence of inferior good and evil spirits. They believed in a future state of existence, and there were no infidels among them. Superstition swayed them powerfully, and charlatans, called "medicine-men," were their physicians, priests, and prophets, who, on all occasions, used incantations. Christian missionaries have labored among them in many places, from the time the Spaniards and Frenchmen settled in America until now, and have done much to enlighten them. *Government.*—There was not a semblance of a national government among the aborigines when the Europeans came, except that of the "Iroquois Confederacy" (which see). Their language was varied by more than a hundred dialects, and they were divided into many distinct families or tribes, under a kind of patriarchal rule. Each family had its armorial sign, called a *totem*, such as an eagle, a bear, or a deer, by which it was designated. The civil head of a tribe was called a sachem, and the military leader a chief. These official honors were gained sometimes by inheritance, but more frequently by personal merit. Such was the simple government, seldom disobeyed, that controlled about a million of dusky inhabitants of the present domain of the United States, which extends over nearly twenty-five degrees of latitude and about sixty degrees of longitude. *Geographical Distribution.*—There seem to have been only eight radically distinct nations known to the earlier settlers—namely, the Algonquin, Huron-Iroquois, Cherokee, Catawba, Uchee, Natchez, Mobilian or Floridian, and Dakota or Sioux. More recently, other distinct nations have been discovered—namely, the Athabascas, Sahaptins, Chinooks, Shoshones, and Attakapas. Others will doubtless be found. The Algonquins were a large family occupying all Canada, New England, a part of New York and Pennsylvania; all New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia; eastern North Carolina above Cape Fear, a large part of Kentucky and Tennessee, and all north and west of those states east of the Mississippi. (See *Algonquins.*) Within the folds of this nation were the Huron-Iroquois, occupying a greater portion of Canada south of the Ottawa River, and the region between Lake Ontario and lakes Erie and Huron, nearly all of the State of New York, and a part of Pennsylvania and Ohio along the southern shores of Lake Erie. Detached from the main body were the Tuscaroras and a few smaller families dwelling in southern Virginia and the upper part of North Carolina. Five families of the Huron-Iroquois, dwelling within the limits of the State of New York, formed the famous "Iroquois Confederacy" (which see) of Five Nations. The Cherokees inhabited the fertile and picturesque region where the mountain-ranges that form the water-shed between the Atlantic and the Mississippi melt into the lowlands that border the Gulf of Mexico. (See *Cherokees.*) The Catawbas were their neighbors on the east, and dwelt upon the borders of the Yadkin and Catawba rivers, on both sides of the boundary-line between North and South Carolina. (See *Catawbas.*) The Uchees were a small family in the pleasant land along the Oconee and the head-waters of the Ogeechee and Chattahoochee, in Georgia, and touched the Cherokees. They were only a remnant of a once powerful tribe, when the Europeans came, and they claimed to be more ancient than the surrounding people. (See *Uchees.*) The Natchez occupied a territory on the eastern side of the Mississippi, extending northeastward from the site of the city of Natchez along the Pearl River to the head-waters of the Chickasaw. They claimed to be older than the Uchees, and, like others of the Gulf region, they worshipped the sun and fire, and made sacrifices to the source of terrestrial light. (See *Natchez.*) The Mobilians or Floridians occupied a domain next in extent to that of the Algonquins. It stretched along the Atlantic coasts from the mouth of the Cape Fear River to the extremity of the Florida peninsula, and westward along the Gulf of Mexico about six hundred miles to the Mississippi River. They also held jurisdiction up that stream as far as the mouth of the Ohio. The domain included parts of South Carolina, the whole of Florida, Alabama, and Mississippi, all of Georgia not occupied by the Cherokees and Uchees, and portions of Tennessee and Kentucky. The nation was divided into three confederacies, each powerful and independent, like our separate states. They were known respectively as the Muscogee or Creek (the most powerful), the Choitan, and the Chickasaw. The heart of the Creek family was in Alabama. (See *Mobilians.*) Under the general title of Dakotas or Sioux have been grouped a large number of tribes west of the Great Lakes and Mississippi, with whom the earlier French explorers came in contact. These, speaking dialects of the same language, apparently, were regarded as parts of one nation. They inhabited the domain stretching northward from the Arkansas River to the western tributary of Lake Winnepeg, and westward along all that line to the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains. They have been arranged into four grand classes: 1. The Winnebagoes, situated between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi, within the domain of the Algonquins; 2. The Assinniboins, or Sioux proper, who formed the more northerly part of the nation; 3. The Minnetaree group, in Minnesota; and 4. The Southern Sioux, who were seated in the country between the Platte and Arkansas rivers. (See *Dakotas.*) The Sahaptins include the Nez Perces and Walla Wallas, extending from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, in Oregon and Washington Territory. (See *Sahaptins.*) Beyond these are the more powerful Chinooks, now rapidly melting away. They embraced numerous tribes, from the mouth of the Columbia River to the Grand Dalles. (See *Chinooks.*) The Shoshones comprise tribes inhabiting the territory around the head-waters of the Columbia and Missouri rivers; the Comanches, extending from the head-waters of the Brazos to those of the Arkansas; families in Utah and Texas, and several tribes in California. (See *Shoshones.*) The Attakapas and Chitemachas, in Texas, have languages that enter into no known group. *Present Condition* (1876).—It is estimated that the present Indian population in the Republic is about 300,000, of whom a little more than two thirds are partially or absolutely under the control of the national government. To the more docile tribes have been allotted reservations of land belonging to the public domain, guaranteed to their use by treaties. These reservations are almost one hundred in number, and their aggregate area is about 170,000 square miles. They are mostly west of the Mississippi River. There are about 40,000 Indians on reservations of public land not guaranteed to them by treaty. These occupy about 60,000 square miles. The remainder are wild tribes of savages. *The Future.*—The expensive and complicated machinery for the management of our Indian affairs stands much in the way of the elevation of the dusky race in the scale of civilization, and is productive of much evil by creating irritation, jealousy, and universal lack of faith in the white race. These irritations keep a large portion of the Indians in a state of chronic hostility, and whole tribes utterly refuse all overtures of our government to accept its protection and fostering care. It is estimated that the number of the people of potentially hostile Indians is full 64,000. Among many tribes, the introduction of agriculture, schools, and churches has been attended with the happiest results; and it is estimated that one sixth of our restrained Indian population now subsist by the labor of their own hands. Recent official investigations show that the popular belief that the Indian race is dying out is undoubtedly erroneous. They seem to unite kindly with other races, and the half-breeds show a healthy and vigorous offspring.

Indians employed in War by White People. The French coalesced with the Indians in warfare from the beginning of the planting of colonies in America. Large numbers of the barbarians became converts to Christianity, and the Jesuit priests had almost unlimited control over them. They were the dreadful scourge in the hands of French leaders, temporal and spiritual, that smote the English frontiers. They were warm allies of the French in the Seven Years' War, and the English also employed many of their race against the foe. When the war for independence broke out, the British sought them for allies; the Americans only sought to secure their neutrality. Pitt denounced the employment of savages in a speech in Parliament in 1777, when that employment was defended by one of the Secretaries of State, saying, "It is perfectly justifiable to use all the means that God and Nature have put into our hands." Pitt replied, after reiterating the words with scorn, "I know not what idea that lord may entertain of God and Nature, but I know that such abominable principles are equally abhorrent to religion and humanity. . . . I call upon that right reverend bench [pointing to the bishops], the holy ministers of the Gospel, and pious pastors of the Church—I conjure them to join in the holy work [of disavowing these principles], and to vindicate the religion of our God." The appeal was in vain. The bishops voted with the ministry; and Lord George Germain, the Colonial Secretary, gave special instructions, received from the king, to employ Indians in fighting republicans. Brant, the great Mohawk chief, a brother-in-law of Sir William Johnson, who had been in England (1775–76), been there caressed by the king, the ministry, and the aristocracy, and espoused the royal cause, was employed to lead those of the Six Nations who would follow him. The best of the British leaders in America were opposed to a coalition with the savages in war, but it was a pet project of Governor Tryon, the king, and his pliant ministers. La Corne St. Luc, a bitter partisan, had declared, "We must let loose the savages upon the frontier of these scoundrels to inspire terror, and to make them submit;" and in the spring of 1777, Tryon wrote to Germain that he and La Corne were "perfectly agreed in sentiment respecting the employment of Indians," and commended him to the ministry as a proper leader of them. La Corne had pledged to the ministry his "honor and his life" that he would raise a corps of Canadians and Indians and "be in the environs of Albany in sixty days after he landed at Quebec." The British employed the Indians in their armies all through the war for independence. So in the wars in the Northwest and Southwest that succeeded that of the Revolution, and in the War of 1812–15. (See *Battle at the River Raisin.*)

Indians, Failure of Negotiations with (1793). The British fur-traders and British officials in the Northwest continually stimulated the tribes in that region to oppose the extension of the frontier settlements in that direction. A commission appointed in 1793 to negotiate with the hostile northwestern tribes arrived at Fort Niagara May 17, accompanied by a deputation of Quakers and Heckewelder, the famous Moravian missionary. They were kindly received by the governor of Upper Canada (Simcoe). They went up Lake Erie, and at the entrance of the Detroit River they met a deputation of Indians who came from a council then in session at the rapids of the Maumee. This deputation came to inquire whether the commissioners were empowered to consent to the Ohio River as a boundary. They replied that it was impossible, as many settlements had already been made north of the Ohio, on lands ceded by the Indians. The commissioners offered large presents of money, in addition to remuneration already made, for the peaceable possession of the ceded territory. When the deputation reported to the council, a long debate ensued. The council, under the influence of British emissaries, refused to negotiate unless the Ohio should be considered the boundary of the United States. War followed. (See *Wayne's Indian Campaign.*)

Indians sold for Slaves in South Carolina. To obtain money to carry on a war against the Indians, Governor West and his council offered (1680) a price for every Indian captive, and then sold all who were brought in to West Indian slave-dealers, who again disposed of them profitably to West Indian planters. When this nefarious business was brought to the notice of the proprietors, it was promptly put a stop to.

India-rubber (caoutchouc) **Manufacture.** This inspissated juice of trees and plants found in the East Indies, Mexico, and Central and South America, was first brought into notice in commerce at about the middle of the last century. It came from India, and Dr. Priestley, in his work on Perspective Drawing, published in 1770, speaks of the substance as good for erasing pencil-marks. It was hence called "India-rubber." In 1813, Jacob Hummel, of Philadelphia, obtained a patent for "gum elastic varnish," and in 1819 a water-proof cloth called "macintosh" was made by the use of this gum in Glasgow, Scotland, by a man named McIntosh. The natives of Para, Brazil, where the caoutchouc-tree abounds, made water-proof shoes in a rude manner of the gum more than sixty years ago, and some of them were introduced into our country by T. C. Wales, a Boston merchant, in 1823. He afterwards sent casts to Brazil, and had well-shaped shoes made; and so the business of furnishing "gum-shoes" was begun in the United States. That substance, in various forms, is now used very extensively in the United States for a variety of purposes, under the name of India-rubber, gutta-percha, etc. In 1874 there were 14,746,000 pounds of caoutchouc imported into the United States. Edwin Chaffee, of Roxbury, Mass., made an important discovery in the preparation of the gum for use, and he and others formed the "Roxbury India-rubber Company" in 1833, with a capital of $400,000. The next most important improvement was made by Charles Goodyear (which see) in "vulcanizing" caoutchouc, for which he obtained a patent in 1844. In 1870 there were fifty-six establishments in the United States for the manufacture of caoutchouc. Gutta-percha is a substance similar to caoutchouc, but is really not identical with it. It was first brought to notice here about 1845, when a company was formed in Brooklyn, N. Y., for its manufacture. It is one of the most useful articles used in our industrial arts.

Indigo Plant, THE, was introduced into South Carolina in 1743. That year Miss Lucas brought to Charleston, from the West Indies, some indigo seed. The cultivation of this plant being considered important, the seed was used as an experiment. The trial proved so very satisfactory that seed was imported from the West Indies, and several Carolina planters turned their attention to the cultivation of indigo, and studied the art of extracting the dye. In 1748, the British Parliament, to encourage the growth of indigo in the English-American colonies, offered a bounty of sixpence a pound on all that should be raised on American plantations, and imported directly into Great Britain from the place of its growth. There had been sent to England, in 1747, from Carolina, 200,000 pounds of indigo. At that time Great Britain was consuming 600,000 pounds of French indigo a year, which, at five shillings a pound, cost the nation $750,000. These statistics induced Parliament to grant the bounty.

Inferior Courts. The old scheme of county courts for the adjudication of smaller civil cases, and of Courts of Sessions, composed of the justices of the peace of each county, for the trial of petty crimes, was retained throughout the states, as was also the system of separate tribunals for probate of wills, administration of the estates of deceased persons, and guardianships of minors. In the forms of legal processes, "The State," "The Commonwealth," or "The People" was substituted for "The King;" and the forms and practices of the courts were made to conform to English technicalities.

Ingalls, RUFUS, was born at Denmark, Me., Aug. 23, 1820. He graduated at West Point in 1843, entering the Rifles, but was transferred to the Dragoons in 1845. He served in the war with Mexico, and was on the staff of General Harney on the Pacific coast. (See *Harney, W. S.*) In April, 1861, he went with Colonel Brown to reinforce Fort Pickens; and in July was ordered to the Army of the Potomac, where he was upon the staff of General McClellan, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel. He was chief-quartermaster of that army from 1862 to 1865, and was made brigadier-general of volunteers in May, 1863. He was in most of the battles of the Army of the Potomac from that of South Mountain to the surrender of Lee at Appomattox.

Ingersoll, CHARLES JARED, author and statesman, was born in Philadelphia, Oct. 3, 1782; died there, Jan. 14, 1862. He became a lawyer, and was attached to the legation of Rufus King when he was minister to France. After travelling in Europe, he returned, and published a poem in 1800, and a tragedy in 1801. In 1810 he published a political satire, called *Inchiquin the Jesuit's Letters.* In 1813 he was in Congress, and from 1815 to 1829 he was United States District Attorney. He was again in Congress from 1841 to 1847, when he was a Democratic leader. President Polk nominated him minister to France, but the Senate did not confirm the nomination. He wrote a history of the second war between the United States and Great Britain.

Inglis, CHARLES, D.D., was born in 1734; died in Nova Scotia early in 1816. From 1764 to the Revolution he was assistant rector of Trinity Church, New York, and was rector from 1777 to 1783. He adhered to the royal cause, and departed for Nova Scotia with the loyalists who fled from New York city in 1783. His letters evinced considerable harsh feeling towards the American patriots as "fomenters of rebellion." Dr. Inglis was consecrated bishop of Nova Scotia in 1788, and in 1809 became a member of the Governor's council. He published an answer to Paine's *Common Sense* (which see), which made him obnoxious to the patriots, and they confiscated his estate. His son John was made bishop of Nova Scotia in 1825; and his grandson, General Sir John Eardley Wilmot Inglis, was the brave defender of Lucknow, and died in Germany in 1862.

Inman, HENRY, a portrait-painter, was born at Utica, N. Y., Oct. 20, 1801; died in New York, Jan. 17, 1846. He was a pupil of John Wesley Jarvis, a portrait-painter, to whom he was apprenticed for seven years. He painted landscapes and historical pictures, but portraits were his chief subjects. In 1844 he went to England, where, becoming the guest of Wordsworth, the poet, he painted his portrait. He also painted the portraits of other distinguished men while in England. He had begun painting an historical picture for the national Capitol at the time of his death.

Inoculation of the Continental Army. During the encampment of the Continental army at Morristown, in the winter of 1776–77, Washington caused all the new recruits who joined the army there to be inoculated for the small-pox. That dreadful disease had terribly smitten the American army in Canada in the spring and early summer of 1776, and prostrated in death one of the best of the American officers, General Thomas. In the Hudson Highlands, opposite West Point, the whole army encamped there were inoculated, together with the women and children, excepting those who had had the disease. "Of five hundred who have been inoculated here," wrote Dr. Thacher, "four only have died." He mentioned a system of treatment adopted there. It was then customary to prepare the system for inoculation by doses of calomel and jalap. An extract of butternut, made by boiling the inner bark of the tree, was substituted, and found to be more efficacious and less dangerous than the mineral drug. Dr. Thacher considered it "a valuable acquisition to the *materia medica.*" Vaccination for the kine-pox had not then been introduced into our country. (See *Small-pox.*)

Insane, The. Places of refuge for the comfort of the insane are well supported by state aid in our country. In all our institutions for the insane a most humane system is employed. The first asylum for this unfortunate class established in this country was founded at Williamsburg, Va., in 1773, and was the only one in the United States until 1818, when the Somerville (Mass.) Institution was incorporated. That was followed in 1821 by the Bloomingdale Asylum, New York; and in 1824 by an asylum at Hartford. In 1876 there were sixty-six institutions for the care of the insane in our country, in which about sixteen thousand persons were under treatment. The total number of insane persons in the United States in 1870 was about thirty-eight thousand. This number is a much less percentage than in any other country.

Insurrection in New Hampshire (1786). On Sept. 20, 1786, about two hundred men, armed in different modes, surrounded the General Assembly at Exeter and held the whole body prisoners several hours; but the citizens, appearing in arms, crushed the insurrection there in its infancy. The object of the insurrection was to force the Assembly to adopt a paper-money system for which a convention of delegates from about thirty towns in the state had petitioned. The insurgents were insolent in their demands. Just at twilight a drum was heard at a distance, and the cry of "Huzza for government! Bring up the artillery!" when the mob, terrified, scattered in all directions. They rallied the next day, but the governor having called out the state forces, the mob was dispersed without bloodshed.

Inter-colonial and Foreign Emigration. When the French dominion in America was ended, and the causes for war dismissed thereby, and the Indian tribes on the frontiers were quieted, emigration began to spread westward in New England, and also from the middle colonies over the mountains westward. Many went from the other colonies into South Carolina, where immigration was encouraged, because the white people were alarmed by the preponderance of the slave population. Bounties were offered to immigrants, and many Irish and Germans settled in the upper districts of that province. Enriched by the labor of numerous slaves, South Carolina was regarded as the wealthiest of the colonies. Settlers also passed into the new province of East Florida. A body of emigrants from the Roanoke settled in West Florida, about Baton Rouge; and some Canadians went into Louisiana, for they were unwilling to live under English rule. A colony of Greeks from the shores of the Mediterranean settled at what is still known as the inlet of New Smyrna, in Florida. And while these movements were going on there were evidences of a rapid advance in wealth and civilization in the older communities. At that time the population and production of Maryland, Virginia, and South Carolina had unprecedented increase, and it was called their golden age. Commerce rapidly became more diffused. Boston, which almost engrossed trade in navigation, now began to find rivals in New York, Baltimore, Norfolk, Charleston, and little seaports on the New England coasts; and its progress, which had been arrested by these causes twenty-five years before, stood still twenty-five years longer.

Interior Department, The, was established in the spring of 1849. It was the first establishment of a new branch of the government since 1798, when the Navy Department was created. Its chief is called Secretary of the Interior, and is a cabinet officer. The first incumbent of the office was Thomas Ewing, of Ohio, appointed by President Taylor. The device of the seal of the Interior Department is an eagle, just ready to soar, resting on a sheaf of grain, with arrows and an olive-branch in its talons, and over it the words "DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR." (See *Executive Departments.*)

Internal Improvements. In 1806 the system of internal improvements by grants from the national Treasury was first begun. The sum of $30,000 was appropriated towards laying out a public road over the Alleghany Mountains from Cumberland, Md., to the Ohio River. The President was also authorized to expend $6600 in opening a road from Athens, Ga., towards New Orleans; also the sum of $6000 upon each of two other roads—one the old road from Nashville to Natchez, the other through the territory just ceded by the Indians, from Cincinnati to the Mississippi opposite St. Louis. (See *Erie Canal.*)

Internal Improvements Proposed. Jefferson, previous to the commercial troubles during his administration, had suggested the appropriation of the surplus revenue, then rapidly accumulating, to internal improvements. A like healthful state of the national finances was promised at the beginning of Monroe's administration. The experience of the war period in the immense cost of transportation, for lack of facilities, now suggested the expediency of making good highways or other means for the transit of merchandise. Madison had called attention to the subject, and recommended the construction of "such roads and canals as could best be executed under the national authority" as objects of a "wise and enlarged patriotism." These recommendations were reiterated by Monroe in his first annual message (Dec. 2, 1817); and he suggested that if any obstacle should be found in the want of express constitutional authority, that might be easily remedied. A bill was introduced into Congress appropriating $600,000 for the general purpose of internal improvements; but this bill, and another continuing the Cumberland Road, or national turnpike that led over the Alleghanies from east to west, failed to pass, the objections being taken, among others, that as yet there was no surplus in the Treasury. The sum of $350,000 was appropriated for completing the part of the Cumberland Road already begun. While Congress thus hesitated the State Legislatures had already begun to act. Virginia had just established an "Internal Improvement Fund," the project of the Erie Canal had been revived in New York, and similar improvements began to be considered in Pennsylvania and North Carolina.

GOVERNMENT TOLL-GATE ON THE CUMBERLAND ROAD.

International Etiquette. Among other serious charges made against the United States government to that of the French by Adet, were that the Americans had made a treaty with Algiers without waiting for French intervention; that the government had hidden away the French flag which had been sent to it (see *Flags, Exchange of*), instead of suspending it in the hall of the House of Representatives; and that the American government allowed to be published certain almanacs, or registers, in which the minister from Great Britain was placed before those of France and Spain, which latter country had recently become the ally of France.

International Exhibitions. The following table gives statistics of the seven great international exhibitions which have taken place within twenty-five years ending in 1876:

	Date of Exhibition.	Number of Exhibitors.	Number of Visitors.	Number of Days open.
London.......	1851	13,917	6,039,135	141
New York....	1854	......	4,250,160	...
Paris..........	1855	23,754	5,162,330	200
London.......	1862	28,653	6,211,103	171
Paris..........	1867	50,226	10,200,000	210
Vienna	1873	42,584	7,254,687	186
Philadelphia ..	1876	......	9,857,626	159

International Law, First Acceptance of, by China. In 1868 Anson Burlingame, United States Minister to China, arrived home, charged by the Chinese government with a roving commission to make treaties with the United States and the European powers. On July 28, 1868, supplementary articles to a treaty made in 1858 were signed at Washington, and soon afterwards were ratified by the Chinese government. This was the first acceptance by that government of the principles of international law. The treaty provided for entire liberty of conscience and worship for Americans in China, and for the Chinese in America; for joint efforts to suppress the coolie trade; for the mutual enjoyment of the rights of travel in the two countries; for education; for the establishment of schools; and for other mutual privileges which were allowed to the most favored nations. Mr. Burlingame was engaged in his noble mission in Europe when he suddenly died. (See *Burlingame, Anson.*)

Inter-oceanic Canal. In 1825 the Federal Republic of Central America made a contract with a company formed at New York for the purpose of effecting a navigable water communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The proposed route was through Nicaragua, one of the states, by the River St. John, into Nicaragua Lake, whence, from its western extremity, a canal was to be cut for about seventeen miles to the Pacific. (See *Darien Ship Canal.*)

Intrepid, Destruction of the. The ketch *Intrepid*, used in the destruction of the *Philadelphia* (which see), had been converted into a floating mine for the purpose of destroying the piratical cruisers in the harbor of Tripoli. In a room below deck one hundred barrels of gunpowder were placed, and immediately above them a large quantity of shot, shell, and irregular pieces of iron were deposited. Combustibles were placed in other parts of the vessel. On the night of Sept. 3, 1804, the *Intrepid* was towed into the harbor by two boats, the whole under the command of Captain Somers, attended by Lieutenant Wadsworth, of the *Constitution*, and Mr. Israel, an ardent young man who got on board the *Intrepid* by stealth. These, with a few men to work the torpedo-vessel, and the crews of the boats, constituted the company engaged in the perilous enterprise. The *Intrepid* entered the harbor at nine o'clock in the evening. The night was very dark. Many eager eyes were turned towards the spot where her shadowy form was last seen. Suddenly a fierce and lurid light streamed up from the dark waters like volcanic fires and illuminated the surrounding objects with its lurid glare — rocks, flotilla, castle, town, and the broad bosom of the harbor. This was followed by an instant explosion, and for a few moments flaming masts and sails and fiery bomb-shells rained upon the waters, when suddenly all was again dark. Anxiously the companions of the intrepid men who went into the harbor awaited their return. They never came back. What was the cause of the premature explosion that destroyed vessels and men will never be known. The belief was that the ketch was captured by the Tripolitans on the watch, and that Somers, preferring death to miserable captivity, had himself applied a lighted match to the powder. A fine monument of white marble, erected to the memory of the slain men and the event—first placed at the navy-yard at Washington city—now stands at the western front of the national Capitol.

Invasion of Canada, Preparations for, at Buffalo (1812). After the battle at Queenston (which see) General Van Rensselaer, disgusted by the conduct of his militia there, resigned his command, and was succeeded by General Alexander Smyth, of Virginia, who made his headquarters at Buffalo. He had insisted that the proper place for invading Canada was between Fort Erie and Chippewa; and for that service he gathered, in the vicinity of Black Rock, about four thousand troops, late in the fall of 1812. He made such grandiloquent proclamations of his intentions that the British were prepared to meet the invaders. He issued orders (Nov. 25) for the whole army to be ready to march at a moment's warning, and gave directions for forming the troops in battle order on the Canada shore. Boats and scows sufficient to carry three thousand men, with artillery, at one time, were made ready for service by Colonel Winder on the evening of the 27th, when Smyth issued his final order for Colonel Boerstler to cross over with a competent force, at three o'clock in the morning, to destroy a bridge five miles below Fort Erie, capture the guard there, kill or take the artillery horses, and, with the captives, if any, return to the American shore. Captain King, of the artillery, was ordered to cross higher up the river and storm British batteries there. Smyth's proclamations had warned the British of the impending invasion, and they were prepared for it at every point between Fort Erie and Chippewa. Owing to blunders, the early morning expeditions across the river in the darkness were failures, with only partial success. Two British batteries were captured, and some British field-pieces were destroyed, but many of the Americans were made prisoners. The bridge had been only partially destroyed. It was sunrise (Nov. 28) when the troops at Black Rock were embarked, and in that position the impatient soldiers, shivering in the cold air, waited from morning until evening, and nothing was seen of Smyth during the day. Meanwhile the British were collected in force on the opposite shore, under Lieutenant-colonel Cecil Bisshopp. When all was in readiness an order came from the general to "disembark and dine!" The wearied and worried troops were greatly exasperated. A council of war was called. They could not agree. During the next three days Smyth issued pompous orders about crossing. On Nov. 30 he said in an order, "While embarking, the music will play martial airs. *Yankee Doodle* will be the signal to get under way. . . . The landing will be effected in despite of cannons. The whole army has seen that cannons are to be little dreaded. . . . Hearts of War! to-morrow will be memorable in the annals of the United States." To-morrow came, but not the promised achievement. The troops had embarked, and were crossing the stream, when General Peter B. Porter, at the head of the flotilla, a quarter of a mile from the shore, received orders for the whole army to disembark and repair to their quarters. This order was accompanied by a declaration that the invasion of Canada was indefinitely abandoned. The regulars were ordered into winter-quarters, and the militia and volunteers were ordered to their homes. The volunteers begged to be sent into Canada under General Porter, promising the speedy capture of Fort Erie, but Smyth evaded their request. They felt themselves betrayed by a mere blusterer without courage, and a deceiver without honor. It was evident to all that he was afraid of Lieutenant-colonel Bisshopp. Their anger and disgust were increased by Smyth's ungenerous charges against General Porter, whom the volunteers and militia all loved. The latter attributed the abandonment of the invasion of Canada to Smyth's cowardice. Confidence in Smyth's military ability was destroyed, and three months afterwards he was deposed without trial and expelled from the army.

Invasion of Cuba from the United States. There had been more or less discontent in Cuba since the beginning of the present century, and after the French republic was proclaimed in 1848 projects for its annexation to the United States were prevalent. Fears were entertained that it might fall into the hands of the English or French, and the people of the United States, especially in the slave-labor states, were much concerned in the matter. The latter desired its annexation to the United States because such a measure would extend the area of slavery. In 1848 President Polk authorized the American minister at Madrid to offer the Spanish government $100,000,000 for the island. The proposition was peremptorily rejected. In 1849 Narcisso Lopez, a native of Venezuela, S. A., who had lived long in Cuba, where he had been in the Spanish military service, came to the United States with a number of Cubans, having been implicated in a revolutionary movement. He declared that the Creole population were ready for revolt and annexation to the United States. Recruits were collected in the United States for a descent upon the island in 1849, but the measure was defeated by the authorities here. A second attempt was made in 1850, and a landing was effected at Cardenas, Cuba. It resulted in failure, and the party was driven to sea. In August, 1851, Lopez sailed from New Orleans in a steamer with five hundred men, and landed at Morillo, in the Vuelta Abojo. It had been asserted that on the appearance of this expedition on the coast there would be a general uprising of the Creole population; but it did not take place. The invaders were met by Spanish troops, and many of the former were killed in engagements. Fifty of those captured, with Colonel Crittenden, of Kentucky, were shot in Havana. The survivors were soon afterwards paroled, with their leaders, and Lopez was garroted in Havana on Sept. 1. Some of his companions were shot; others were transported, and subsequently pardoned. There was considerable irritation of feeling on the part of the Cuban authorities for some time afterwards. The American steamship *Black Warrior* was fired upon by a Spanish vessel of war, and she was seized in the harbor of Havana (Feb. 28, 1854), and the ship and cargo were declared confiscated. This event seriously threatened war between the United States and Spain, but the matter was finally amicably settled between the two governments.

Invasion of Eastern Maine (1814). Commodore Hardy sailed secretly from Halifax early in July, 1814, with a considerable land and naval force, and captured Eastport without much opposition. (See *Eastport, Capture of.*) This easy conquest encouraged the British to attempt the seizure of the whole region between Passamaquoddy Bay and the Penobscot River. A strong squadron, under Admiral Griffith, bearing about four thousand troops, led by Governor Sir John Cope Sherbrooke, of Nova Scotia, captured Castine, on Penobscot Bay, and also Belfast, and went up the Penobscot River to Hampden, a few miles below Bangor, to capture or destroy the American corvette *John Adams*, which, caught in that stream, had gone up so far to escape from the British. The militia, called to defend Hampden and the *Adams*, fled when the British approached, and the object of the latter was accomplished. Captain Morris, commander of the *Adams*, burned her to prevent her falling into the hands of the British. The latter pressed on to Bangor, where they tarried about thirty hours, destroyed several vessels at the mouth of

SIR JOHN COPE SHERBROOKE.

the Kenduskeag, and plundered property valued at over $20,000. Then they returned to Hampden and there repeated their destructive work. Then the troops and fleet descended the Penobscot, and, after capturing Machias, returned to Halifax. General Gosselin was left to hold the country, which he did with dignity and humanity.

VIEW AT THE MOUTH OF THE KENDUSKEAG.

Invasion of Kentucky (1861). On Sept. 4, 1861, the Confederates, under General (Bishop) Polk, entered Kentucky and seized and fortified Columbus, in western Kentucky. On the next day a Confederate force under Felix K. Zollicoffer (formerly a member of Congress) entered Kentucky from East Tennessee. At the same time Simon B. Buckner, who had been placed in command of the professed "neutral" Kentucky State Guard (which see), and had formed a Confederate camp in Tennessee, just below the Kentucky line, entered the latter state, and, acting in concert with Polk and Zollicoffer, attempted to seize Louisville. He was foiled by the vigilance of General Robert Anderson (late of Fort Sumter), who was in command there, with General W. T. Sherman as his lieutenant. Buckner fell back to Bowling Green, on the Nashville and Louisville Railroad, and there established a camp as a nucleus of a powerful Confederate force that was gathered soon afterwards. These movements ended the neutrality of Kentucky. Her loyal sons flew to arms, and from that time she ranked among the loyal states of the Union.

Invasion of Maryland (1814). While stirring events were occurring on the New England coast and the Northern frontier, others of equal importance occurred in the vicinity of Chesapeake Bay and the national capital. There were premonitions of impending danger in that region early in 1814. News reached the government that four thousand British troops, destined for the United States, had landed at Bermuda. This news was followed by the arrival, in Lynn Haven Bay, of Admiral Cockburn, the marauder, with a strong naval force, to begin the work indicated in Admiral Cochrane's order to "destroy the seaport towns and ravage the country." In April news came of the downfall of Napoleon and of his abdication, which would release British veterans from service in Europe. Notwithstanding the national capital was then almost defenceless, the passage of British ships up the Potomac might be disputed only by the guns of Fort Washington, a few miles below the city, and there was little force to obstruct the passage of land-troops across Maryland from the Chesapeake, the apathy of the government was very conspicuous. On the 1st of July official intelligence reached the President that "a fleet of transports, with a large force, bound to some port in the United States, probably on the Potomac," was about to sail from Bermuda. In the military district of which the District of Columbia formed a part there were only a little more than two thousand effective men, under General Winder, and these were scattered at points some distance from each other. There was a company of marines at the barracks at Washington, and a company of artillery at Fort Washington. With all this knowledge of weakness and impending danger, the Secretary of War, whose opinions governed the President and cabinet, could not be persuaded that the capital was likely to receive any harm. The government organ (*National Intelligencer*) boasted that any British force that might come could be easily driven away. The folly of this boast was soon made manifest by sad events. General Winder continually warned the government of danger; and when danger actually appeared he was placed, by official orders, at the head of fifteen thousand militia for the defence of the capital. This army was on paper only. The militia lay hidden in official orders; and when, at the middle of August, a powerful British land and naval force appeared in Chesapeake Bay, Winder had only a handful of men with which to defend the capital. The call for the militia was tardily answered, for they feared the loss of their slaves if the masters should leave the plantations. There was widespread alarm over Maryland and Virginia. At that juncture Commodore Barney, with an armed schooner and fifteen barges, was in the Patuxent River, near its mouth. He fled up the stream to avoid attack by British vessels. The latter landed a strong force, under General Ross, and pushed on towards Washington. Winder issued stirring appeals for the military to turn out, and asked General Smith, of Baltimore, to turn out his brigade. The British pursued Barney and caused the destruction of his flotilla. Pressing on towards the capital, they were met by troops under Winder at Bladensburg, when a severe engagement ensued, which resulted in victory for the invaders. Then they marched on Washington, set fire to its public buildings, and gave the town up to plunder. Only the Patent Office building was saved. The vessels and other public property at the navy-yard were destroyed by the Americans to prevent them falling into the hands of the British. The total value of the property annihilated by the Americans and British at that time was estimated at about $2,000,000. "Willingly," said the London *Statesman*, "would we throw a veil of oblivion over our transactions at Washington. The Cossacks spared Paris, but we spared not the capital of America." While Ross was crossing Maryland to the national capital a British fleet, under Commodore Gordon, went up the Potomac and plundered Alexandria, on the Virginia shore. The British retreated to their ships after desolating the capital, and, flushed with success, they attempted to capture Baltimore. Ross landed with nine thousand troops at North Point, twelve miles from Baltimore, on Sept. 12, and proceeded to march on the town, when he was confronted by an American force under General Stricker and driven back. Ross was killed, and his troops fled to their ships. At the same time the British fleet sailed up Patapsco Bay and bombarded Fort McHenry, that guarded Baltimore harbor. They were repulsed, and ships and troops, discomfited, left the Chesapeake to operate on the more southern regions of the American coast.

Invasion of Maryland and Pennsylvania (1863). After the battle at Chancellorsville (which see) Lee's army was strong in material and moral force. Recent successes had greatly inspirited it. It was reorganized into three army corps, commanded respectively by Generals Longstreet, A. P. Hill, and Ewell. At no time, probably, during the war was the Confederate army more complete in numbers, equipment, and discipline, or furnished with more ample materials for carrying on the conflict, than it was at the middle of June, 1863, when Lee invaded Maryland. According to Confederate official returns, there were at least five hundred thousand men on the army rolls, and more than three hundred thousand "present and fit for duty." Richmond seemed secure from harm. Vicksburg and Port Hudson, on the Mississippi, seemed impregnable against any National forces that might be employed against them. (See *Vicksburg* and *Port Hudson*.) Their European friends gave them great encouragement, for there were strong manifestations of desires for the acknowledgment of the independence of the "Confederate States of America." Feeling strong, the Confederate authorities ordered Lee to invade Maryland and Pennsylvania. His force was now almost equal to that of Hooker, and in better spirits than was the Army of the Potomac. So early as May 20, Hooker suspected such a movement would be undertaken, and so informed the Secretary of War. Earlier than this Clement C. Barclay, of Philadelphia, who had rare opportunities for information, had warned the authorities of Washington, Baltimore, and Harrisburg of impending danger, but they were slow to believe Lee would repeat the folly of the previous year. Lee's first movement in that direction was to get Hooker from the Rappahannock by feints and a real flanking movement. There was considerable preliminary cavalry skirmishing early in June, and finally a cavalry reconnoissance by Pleasanton revealed the fact of Lee's grand movement. Hooker supposed he would follow his route of the previous year, and was watching and guarding the fords of the Rappahannock, when Lee projected his right wing, under Ewell, through the Blue Ridge into the Shenandoah Valley at Strasburg. He pushed down the valley to Winchester, where General Milroy was in command of nearly ten thousand men, on the evening of June 13, having marched seventy miles in three days. It was a bold movement. Milroy called in his outposts and prepared to fight, but before daylight he resolved to retreat. He spiked his cannons, drowned his powder, and was about to depart, when the Confederates fell upon him. Then began a race towards the Potomac, but they were stopped by a force some miles from Winchester, scattered, and many of them made prisoners. The garrison at Harper's Ferry fled across the river to Maryland Heights. Informed of Lee's movement, Hooker moved rapidly northward, intent upon covering Washington, while his cavalry watched the passes of the Blue Ridge. The National authorities, as well as those of Maryland and Pennsylvania, were thoroughly aroused by a sense of danger. The President called (June 15) upon the states nearest the capital for an aggregate of one hundred thousand militia; and the governor of Pennsylvania called out the entire militia of the state. Lee had about a week the start of Hooker in the race for the Potomac. On the 15th fifteen hundred Confederate cavalry dashed across the Potomac at Williamsport in pursuit of Milroy's wagon-train; swept up the Cumberland Valley to Chambersburg, in Pennsylvania; destroyed the railroad in that vicinity; plundered the region of horses, cattle, and other supplies; and, with fifty kidnapped negroes, going back to Hagerstown, waited for Lee. The information procured by the raiders satisfied Lee that he should not meet with much opposition, and he pressed forward. Ewell's corps crossed the Potomac at Williamsport, near Shepherdstown, on June 21 and 22, and swept on to Chambersburg, and thence to the Susquehanna, opposite Columbia, levying contributions on the people. The greatest alarm everywhere prevailed. It was believed that Harrisburg and Philadelphia would soon be entered by the Confederates, and millions of valuable things were sent north from the latter city for safety. Even New York seemed menaced. The remainder of Lee's army crossed the Potomac on the 24th and 25th, and pressed on after Ewell towards the Susquehanna. Hooker's army, now full one hundred thousand strong, crossed the river at Edwards's Ferry. Regarding Harper's Ferry, at that moment, of little account, he asked for the abandonment of that vicinity by eleven thousand National troops. The general-in-chief (Halleck) would not consent, and Hooker, at his own request, was at once relieved of his command, and was superseded by General George G. Meade on June 28.

Invasion of Mexico (1846). After the battle at Resaca de la Palma (which see) the Mexicans trembled for the safety of Matamoras. Arista sent a deputation to General Taylor to ask for an armistice until the two governments should arrange the dispute. Taylor would not trust the treacherous Mexican, and refused. During the conference Arista had removed a large quantity of ammunition and stores from Matamoras, and during the succeeding night (May 17) he retreated, with all the troops which he had rallied, to the open country towards Monterey. Informed of this, Taylor crossed the Rio Grande (May 18) with his army, and for the first time the American flag was unfurled over undisputed Mexican soil. (See *Mexico, War with.*)

Invasion of South Carolina (1779). General Prevost, after the subjugation of Georgia (February, 1779), crossed the Savannah River (April 27) with two thousand regulars and a large body of Tories and Creek Indians, and marched for Charleston. General Lincoln had recruited his broken army (see *Brier Creek, Battle of*), and was then in the field with about five thousand men, preparing to recover Georgia. He hastened from the Savannah River to the relief of Charleston. Prevost marched so slowly that when he reached Charleston the people there were prepared for its defence. They had cast up intrenchments across Charleston Neck. On the morning of the 11th Prevost demanded the immediate surrender of the town. It was promptly refused; and that night, hearing of the approach of Lincoln, the invaders decamped, and started for Savannah by way of the sea-islands along the coast. For more than a month some British detachments lingered upon John's Island, near Charleston, and after a severe engagement at Stono Ferry, ten miles below Charleston (June 20), Prevost established a military post on Lady's Island, between Port Royal and St. Helen's Island, and then retreated to Savannah. Prevost plundered and cruelly treated the inhabitants on his way to Charleston.

Invasion of Virginia (1781). The marauding expedition of Arnold up the James River, early in 1781 (see *Arnold in Virginia*), was followed by a more formidable invasion in the latter part of March. General Phillips, of Burgoyne's army, who had been exchanged for Lincoln, joined Arnold at Portsmouth, with two thousand troops from New York, and took the chief command. They went up the James and Appomattox rivers, took Petersburg (April 25, 1781), and destroyed four thousand hogsheads of tobacco, which had been collected there for shipment to France on account of the Congress. There were virtually no troops in Virginia to oppose this invasion, for all that were really fit for service had been sent to the army of Greene, in the Carolinas. Steuben had about five hundred half-starved and naked troops, whom he was training for recruits. These were mostly without arms, and retreated before Phillips to Richmond. Lafayette, who had halted at Annapolis, now hurried forward, and, by a forced march of two hundred miles, reached Richmond twelve hours before Phillips and Arnold appeared on the opposite side of the river. Joined by Steuben, the marquis here checked the invaders, who retired to City Point, at the junction of the James and Appomattox. After collecting an immense plunder in tobacco and slaves, besides destroying ships, mills, and every species of property that fell in his way, Phillips embarked his army, and dropped some distance down the river. When, soon afterwards, Cornwallis approached Virginia from the South, he ordered Phillips to meet him at Petersburg. Before the arrival of the earl (May 20), General Phillips died (May 13) at Petersburg. On May 24 Cornwallis crossed the James and pushed on towards Richmond. He seized all the fine horses he could find, with which he mounted about six hundred cavalry, whom he sent after Lafayette, then not far distant from Richmond, with three thousand men, waiting for the arrival of Wayne, who was approaching with Pennsylvania troops. The marquis fell slowly back, and at a ford on the North Anne he met Wayne with eight hundred men. Cornwallis had pursued him as far as Hanover Courthouse, from which place the earl sent Lieutenant-colonel Simcoe, with his loyalist corps, the "Queen's Rangers," to capture or destroy stores in charge of Steuben at the junction of the Ravenna and Fluvanna rivers. In this he failed. Tarleton had been detached, at the same time, to capture Governor Jefferson and the members of the Virginia Legislature at Charlottesville, whither they had fled from Richmond. Only seven of them were made captives. Jefferson narrowly escaped by fleeing from his house (at Monticello) on horseback, accompanied by a single servant, and hiding in the mountains. He had left his dwelling only ten minutes before one of Tarleton's officers entered it. At Jefferson's plantation, near the Point of Forks, Cornwallis committed the most wanton destruction of property, cutting the throats of young horses not fit for service, slaughtering the cattle, and burning the barns with remains of previous crops, laying waste growing ones, burning all the fences on the plantation, and carrying away about thirty slaves. Lafayette now turned upon the earl, when the latter, supposing the forces of the marquis to be much greater than they were, retreated in haste down the Virginia peninsula to Williamsburg, blackening his pathway with fire. It is estimated that during the

MONTICELLO.

invasion — from Arnold's advent in January until Cornwallis reached Williamsburg late in June — property to the amount of $15,000,000 was destroyed, and thirty thousand slaves were carried away. The British, in their retreat, had been closely followed by Lafayette, Wayne, and Steuben, and were not allowed a minute's rest until they reached Williamsburg, where they were protected by their shipping.

Investigating Committee, First, in Congress. The first investigating committee appointed by Congress was in the case of the defeat of St. Clair (which see). It was a special committee, empowered to send for persons and papers. Their call upon the War Department for all papers relating to the affair first raised the question of the extent of the authority of the House in such matters. The Cabinet unanimously agreed that the House had no power to call on the head of any department for any public paper except through the President, in whose discretion it rested to furnish such papers as the public good might seem to require and admit, and that all such calls must be made by a special resolution of the House, the power to make them being an authority which could not be delegated to any committee. This decision of the cabinet established the method ever since practised of calling upon the President for public papers.

Iowa was originally a part of the vast territory of Louisiana, ceded to the United States in 1803. The first settlement by Europeans was made by Julian Du Buque, who, in 1788, obtained a grant of a large tract, including the site of the city of Dubuque and the mineral lands around it. There he built a fort, and manufactured lead and traded with Indians until his death, in 1810. The territory was placed under the jurisdiction of Michigan in 1834, and in 1836 under that of Wisconsin. It was erected into a separate territory June 12, 1838, and included all the country north of Missouri between the Mississippi and the Missouri and the British line. This comprised a greater part of Minnesota and the whole of Dakota, with an area of ninety-four thousand square miles. The government was established, at Iowa City, in 1839. In 1844 a state constitution was formed, but an application for admission into the Union was denied. The admission was effected Dec. 28, 1846, and in 1857 the capital was established at Des Moines. The present constitution of Iowa was framed by a convention at Iowa City early in 1857, and was ratified Aug. 3. The clause confining the privilege of the elective franchise to white citizens was stricken out by act of the Legislature, and was ratified by the people in 1868. During the Civil War Iowa contributed 75,860 soldiers to the army of the Republic.

STATE SEAL OF IOWA.

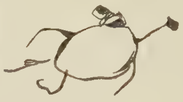
Iowa, Position of (1861). This state, lying westward of the Mississippi River, with a population of nearly 700,000 and a loyal governor (S. J. Kirkwood), was quick to perceive the needs of the national government in its struggles with its enemies, and was lavish in its aid. When the President called for troops (April, 1861) the governor said, "In this emergency Iowa must not, and does not, occupy a doubtful position. For the Union as our fathers formed it, and for the government they framed so wisely and so well, the people of Iowa are ready to pledge every fighting-man in the state and every dollar of her money and credit." That pledge was redeemed by sending over 75,000 men to the front — or one tenth of the entire population.

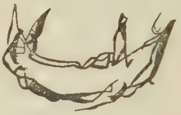
Ireland and the United States. Ireland, which had been more oppressed by British rule than the American colonies, had, at the beginning of the contest between the latter and Great Britain, shown peculiar subserviency to its political master. When news of the affairs at Lexington and Bunker's Hill reached that country, the Irish Parliament voted that they "heard of the rebellion with abhorrence, and were ready to show to the world their attachment to the sacred person of the king." Taking advantage of this expressed loyalty, Lord North obtained leave to send four thousand able-bodied men to America as a part of the British army. The strongest and best of the Irish army were selected, and eight regiments were shipped for America. This left Ireland almost defenceless. Its Parliament offered to organize a national militia, which Lord North refused to accept, and instead of a militia, organized and controlled by the British government, self-formed bands of volunteers sprang up all over Ireland. North saw his blunder, and had a militia bill enacted; but it was too late; the Irish Parliament preferred the volunteers, supported by the Irish themselves. Meanwhile the eloquent, patriotic, and incorruptible Henry Grattan had become a member of the Irish Parliament, and he was principally the agent that kindled the fire of patriotic zeal in Ireland that was burning so brightly in America. In 1779, though only thirty-three years of age, he led the Irish Parliament in demanding reforms. He moved an amendment to the address to the king, that the nation could be saved only by free-trade, and it was adopted by unanimous vote. New taxes were refused. The ordinary supplies usually granted for two years were granted for six months. Throughout the little kingdom an inextinguishable sentiment of nationality was aroused, and very soon Ireland had an army of fifty thousand volunteers. Alarmed by the threatening attitude of Ireland, Parliament, in 1781, conceded to the dependent kingdom its claims to commercial equality.

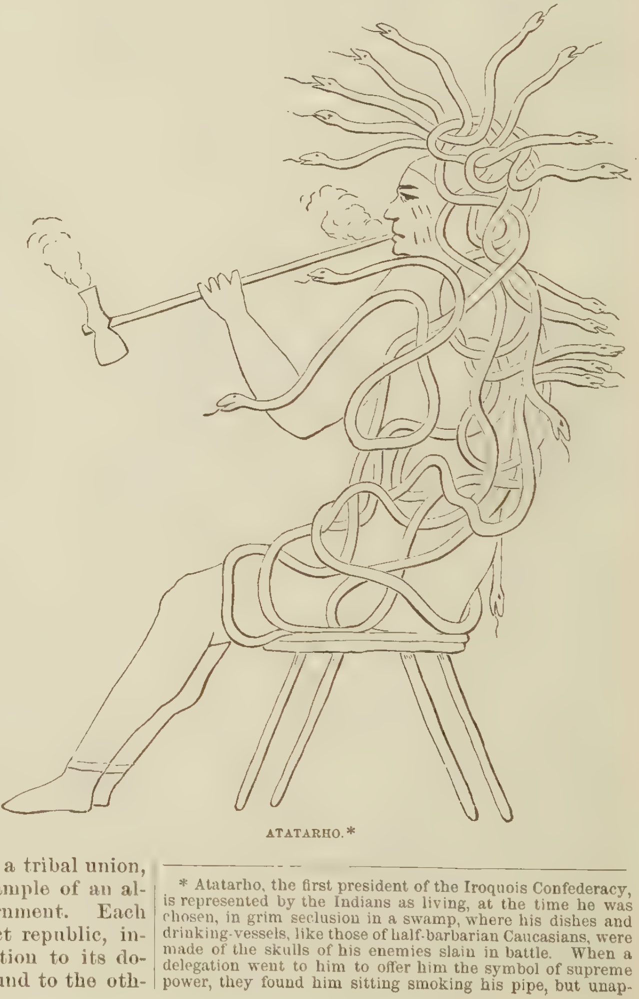
Ireland, Revolutionary Movements in. The combined armies of France and Spain, in 1780, kept the British government on the alert, and they were compelled to keep afloat an immense naval force. To guard against an expected invasion, eighty thousand volunteers were enrolled in Ireland. With arms in their hands, the Irish felt disposed to assert their own rights, and began to put in operation the American plan of non-importation agreements. This movement obtained for them commercial concessions from the British government, which kept them quiet.

Irish Colony in South Carolina. Multitudes of laborers and husbandmen, oppressed by landlords and ecclesiastics in Ireland, and unable to procure a comfortable subsistence, embarked for South Carolina in 1736. These were Protestants, and known as Scotch-Irish (which see). They received a grant of land on the Santee River, where they formed a settlement, and called it Williamsburg.

Iroquois Confederacy, THE, was originally composed of five related families or nations of Indians, in the present State of New York. These were called, respectively, Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas. Tradition says the confederacy was founded by Hiawatha, the incarnation of Wisdom, at about the beginning of the fifteenth century. He came from his celestial home and dwelt with the Onondagas, where he taught the related tribes the knowledge of good living. Fierce warriors approached from the north, slaying everything human in their path. Hiawatha advised a council. It was held on the bank of Onondaga Lake. Representatives of each nation were there. Under his direction a league was formed, and each canton was assigned its appropriate place in it. (See *Hiawatha*.) They gave it a name signifying "they form a cabin," and they fancifully called the league "The Long House." The eastern door was kept by the Mohawks, and the western by the Senecas, and the great council-fire was with the Onondagas, at their metropolis, a few miles south of the site of the city of Syracuse. By common consent, a chief of the Onondagas, called Atatarho, was made the first president of the league. The Mohawks, on the east, were called "the door." The confederacy embraced within its territory the present State of New York north and west of the Kaatzbergs and south of the Adirondack group of mountains. The several nations were subdivided into tribes, each having a heraldic insignia, or *totem*. Through the totemic system they maintained a tribal union, and exhibited a remarkable example of an almost pure democracy in government. Each canton or nation was a distinct republic, independent of all others in relation to its domestic affairs, but each was bound to the others of the league by ties of honor and general interest. Each had an equal voice in the General Council or Congress, and possessed a sort of veto power, which was a guarantee against despotism. After the Europeans came, the sachem, or civil head of a tribe, affixed his totem—such as the rude outlines of a wolf, a bear, a tortoise, or an eagle—to every public paper he was required to sign. It was like a monarch affixing his seal. Each of the original Five Nations was divided into three tribes, those of the Mohawks being designated as the Tortoise or Turtle, the Bear, and the Wolf. These totems consisted of representations of those animals. These were sometimes exceedingly rude, but were sufficient to denote the tribe of the signer; as, No. 1, appended to the signature of Little Hendrick, a Mohawk chief, represents his totem—a turtle; No. 2, appended to


No. 1.

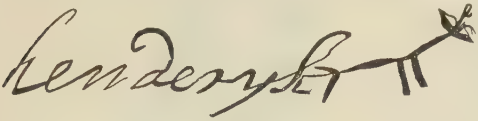

No. 2.


ATATARHO.*

---

[*] Atatarho, the first president of the Iroquois Confederacy, is represented by the Indians as living, at the time he was chosen, in grim seclusion in a swamp, where his dishes and drinking-vessels, like those of half-barbarian Caucasians, were made of the skulls of his enemies slain in battle. When a delegation went to him to offer him the symbol of supreme power, they found him sitting smoking his pipe, but unap-

the signature of Kanadagea, a chief of the Bear tribe, represents a bear lying on his back; and No. 3 is the signature of Great Hendrick (which see), of the Wolf tribe, the rude representation of that animal appearing at the end of his signature.



No. 3.

As each confederated nation was divided into tribes, there were thirty or forty sachems in the League. These had inferior officers under them, and the civil power was widely distributed. Office was the reward of merit alone; malfeasance in it brought dismissal and public scorn. All public services were compensated only by public esteem. The powers and duties of the President of the League were similar to those conferred and imposed upon the chief magistrate of our Republic. He had authority to assemble a congress of representatives; had a cabinet of six advisers, and in the council he was moderator. There was no coercive power, excepting public opinion, lodged anywhere. The military dominated the civil power in the League. The chiefs derived their authority from the people, and they sometimes, like the Romans, deposed civil officers. The army was composed wholly of volunteers, and conscription was impossible. Every able-bodied man was bound to do military duty, and he who shirked it incurred everlasting disgrace. The ranks were always full. The recruiting-stations were the war-dances. Whatever was done in civil councils was subjected to review by the soldiery, who had the right to call councils when they pleased, and approve or disapprove public measures. The matrons formed a third and powerful party in the legislature of the League. They had a right to sit in the councils, and there exercise the veto power on the subject of a declaration of war, and to propose and demand a cessation of hostilities. They were pre-eminently peace-makers. It was no reflection upon the courage of warriors if, at the call of the matrons, they withdrew from the war-path. These women wielded great influence in the councils, but they modestly delegated the duties of speech-making to some masculine orator. With these barbarians, woman was man's co-worker in legislation—a thing unheard of among civilized people. So much did the Iroquois reverence the "inalienable rights of man," that they never made slaves of their fellow-men, not even of captives taken in war. By unity they were made powerful; and to prevent degeneracy, members of a tribe were not allowed to intermarry with each other. Like the Romans, they caused their commonwealth to expand by annexation and conquest. Had they remained undiscovered by the Europeans a century longer, the confederacy might have embraced the whole continent, for the Five Nations had already extended their conquests from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico, and were the terror of the other tribes east and west. For a long time the French in Canada, who taught them the use of fire-arms, maintained a doubtful struggle against them. Champlain found them at war against the Canada Indians from Lake Huron to the Gulf of St. Lawrence. He fought them on Lake Champlain in 1609; and from that time until the middle of that century their wars against the Canada Indians and their French allies were fierce and distressing. They made friends of the Dutch, from whom they obtained fire-arms; and they were alternately at war and peace with the French for about sixty years. The latter invaded the cantons of the League, especially after the Five Nations became allied with the English, who, as masters of New York, used their dusky neighbors to carry out their designs. The Iroquois, meanwhile, carried their conquests almost to Nova Scotia on the east, and far towards the Mississippi on the west, and subdued the Susquehannas in Pennsylvania. In 1649 they subdued and dispersed the Wyandots in the Huron country. (See *Wyandots.*) Some of the fugitives took refuge among the Chippewas; others fled to Quebec, and a few were incorporated in the Iroquois confederacy. The Wyandots were not positively subdued, and claimed and exercised sovereignty over the Ohio country down to the close of the last century. Then the Five Nations made successful wars on their eastern and western neighbors, and in 1655 they penetrated to the land of the Catawbas and Cherokees. They conquered the Miamis and Ottawas in 1657, and in 1701 made incursions as far as the Roanoke and Cape Fear rivers, to the land of their kindred, the Tuscaroras. (See *Tuscaroras.*) So determined were they to subdue the Southern tribes, that when, in 1744, they ceded a part of their lands to Virginia, they reserved a perpetual privilege of a war-path through the territory. A French invasion in 1693, and again in 1696, was disastrous to the League, which lost one-half of its warriors. Then they swept victoriously southward early in the 18th century, and took in their kindred, the Tuscaroras, in North Carolina, when the confederacy became known as the Six Nations. In 1713 the French gave up all claim to the Iroquois, and after that the confederacy was generally neutral in the wars between France and England that extended to the American colonies. Under the influence of William Johnson, the English Indian agent, they went against the French in 1755, and some of them joined Pontiac in his conspiracy in 1763. (See *Pontiac.*) When the Revolution broke out, in 1775, the Iroquois, influenced by the Johnson family, adhered to the crown, excepting the Oneidas. Led by Brant and savage Tories, they desolated the Mohawk, Cherry, and Wyoming valleys. The country of the Western Iroquois, in turn, was desolated by General Sullivan in 1779, and Brant retaliated fearfully on the frontier settlements. At the close of the war, the hostile Iroquois,

---

proachable, because he was entirely clothed with hissing snakes. Here is the old story of Medusa's snaky tresses unveiled in the forests of the new-found world.

dreading the vengeance of the exasperated Americans, took refuge in Canada, excepting the Oneidas and Tuscaroras. By treaties, all the lands of the Six Nations in New York passed into the possession of the white people, excepting some reservations on which the dusky inhabitants yet reside. In the plenitude of their power, the confederacy numbered about 15,000; they now number about 13,000, distributed at various points in Canada and the United States. There are about 5000 in the State of New York, their ancient domain. (See *Huron-Iroquois.*) Like the other barbarians of the continent, the Iroquois were superstitious and cruel. They believed in witches as firmly as did Cotton Mather and his Puritan brethren in New England, and they punished them in human form as fiercely as did Henry the Eighth, or the rulers and the Gospel ministers at Salem in later times. Their "medicine men" and "prophets" were as expert deceivers as the priests, oracles, and jugglers of civilized men. They tortured their enemies in retaliation for kindred slain with almost as refined cruelty as did the ministers of the Holy Inquisition the enemies of their opinions; and they lighted fires around their more eminent prisoners of war, in token of their power, as bright and hot as those kindled by enlightened Englishmen around Joan of Arc as a sorceress, or Bishops Latimer and Ridley as believers in what they thought to be an absurdity.

Irvine, WILLIAM, was born at Fermanagh, Ireland, Nov. 3, 1741; died in Philadelphia, July 29, 1804. He was a surgeon of a ship-of-war, came to the United States after the Peace of 1763, and practised medicine at Carlisle, Penn. He was an active patriot, and raised and commanded a Pennsylvania regiment in 1776; was made a captive at Three Rivers, Canada; exchanged in May, 1778; served under Wayne, and in 1781 was stationed at Fort Pitt, charged with the defence of the northwestern frontier. He was a member of Congress from 1786 to 1788, and took a civil and military part in the task of quelling the Whiskey Insurrection. He was again a member of Congress from 1793 to 1795.

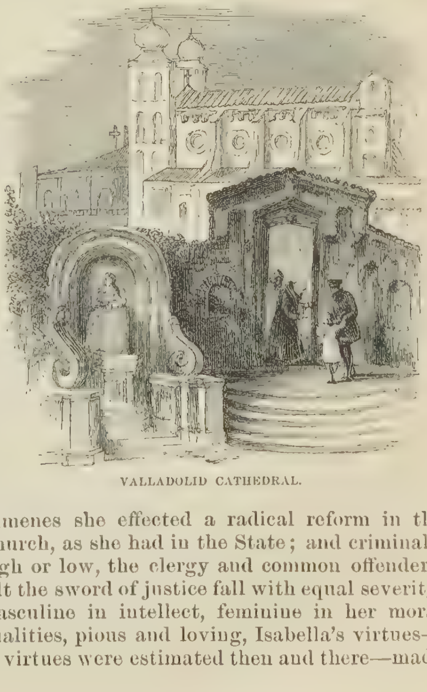
Irving, WASHINGTON, LL.D., was born in the city of New York, April 3, 1783; died at Tarrytown, N. Y., Nov. 28, 1859. His father was a Scotchman, his mother an Englishwoman. He engaged in literature while yet a youth, and was in Europe for his health from 1804 to 1806. In 1807 he published, in connection with his brother Peter and James K. Paulding, *Salmagundi*, and in 1808, when he was twenty-five years of age, his *Knickerbocker's History of New York.* After editing a magazine during the War of 1812–15, he went to Europe, where he resided seventeen years; when, after the failure of a mercantile house in New York with which he was connected, he was left to rely on his literary labors for support. He spent his time partly in England, France, Germany, and Spain, and published his *Life of Columbus* in 1825, which was followed by the *Conquest of Granada* and the *Alhambra.* From 1829 to 1831 he was secretary of the American legation in London, and received from George IV. the fifty-guinea gold medal awarded for eminence in historical composition. He returned to New York in 1832, and prepared and published several works; and from 1839 to 1841 contributed to the *Knickerbocker Magazine.* From 1842 to 1846 he was minister to Spain, and on his return to New York he published a revised edition of all his works in fifteen volumes, which had a very large sale. His last work was a *Life of Washington,* in five volumes, completed a few months before his death. Mr. Irving never married. The honorary degree of LL.D. was conferred upon him by Harvard University, Oxford University, in England, and Columbia College, in New York. Mr. Irving's remains rest near the summit of a gentle slope in the cemetery attached to the ancient Dutch church at the entrance to "Sleepy Hollow," near Tarrytown, N. Y. They lie by the side of those of his mother. In a row lie the remains of his father, mother, brothers, and sisters. The old church, which he made famous by the story of Ichabod Crane (a leader in the psalm-singing there on Sundays) in his *Legend of Sleepy Hollow,* remains the same as when it was built in 1669, and is the oldest church edifice extant in the State of New York. Over the Sleepy Hollow brook, near it, is the bridge where Brom Bones, the supposed "headless horseman," hurled the pumpkin at the frightened Ichabod, and drove him from the neighborhood and Katrina van Tassell forever.

WASHINGTON IRVING.

ANCIENT DUTCH CHURCH.

Isabella, Queen of Castile and Leon, was born at Madrigal, in Old Castile, April 23, 1451; died Nov. 26, 1504. Until her twelfth year Isabella lived in retirement with her mother, a daughter of John II., of Portugal. At the age of eleven years she was betrothed to Carlos, brother of Ferdinand (whom she afterwards married), then forty-six years old. His death prevented the union. Other candidates for her hand were proposed, but, being a young woman of spirit, she rejected them. Her half-brother Henry, on the throne, contracted a marriage for her, for state purposes, with the profligate Don Pedro Giron, Grand-master of the Order of Calatrava. "I will plunge a dagger in Don Pedro's heart," said the maiden, "before I will submit to the dishonor." The grand-master died as suddenly as Carlos while on his way to the nuptials, probably from the effects of poison. Henry now made an arrangement by which Isabella was recognized as heir to Castile and Leon, with the right to choose her own husband, subject to the king's approval. She chose Ferdinand, Prince of Aragon, who signed the marriage contract at Cervera, Jan. 7, 1469, guaranteeing to his betrothed all the essential rights of sovereignty in Castile and Leon. King Henry, offended because his sister would not marry the King of Portugal, sent a force to seize her person. She escaped to Valladolid, whither Ferdinand hastened in disguise, and they were married, Oct. 19, 1469, in the cathedral there. Civil war ensued. The king died late in 1474, and Isabella was declared queen of Castile and Leon; but her authority was not fully recognized until after a war with the King of Portugal, who was affianced to Juana, the rival of Isabella for the throne. After that her career was brilliant. She appeared in arms at the head of her troops in her wars with the Moors. From a conviction that it was for the safety of the Roman Catholic religion, she reluctantly, it is said, gave her consent to the establishment of the Inquisition; and for this act, and her fiery zeal for the Church, amounting at times to fanatical cruelty, she is known in history as Isabella *the* Catholic. Ferdinand was now king of Aragon, and their kingdoms were united and formed a strong empire, and the consolidated Christian power of the Spanish peninsula was effected. The two monarchs were one in love, respect, and interest. They ruled as separate sovereigns, each having an independent council, and sometimes holding their courts at points distant from each other at the same time; but they were a unit in the general administration of the consolidated kingdoms, all acts of sovereignty being executed in the name of both, all documents signed by both, and their profiles stamped together on the national coins, while the royal seal displayed the united arms of Castile and Aragon. The religious zeal of Isabella was inflamed when Columbus, in his application for aid, declared that one great object of his ambition was to carry the Gospel to the heathen of undiscovered lands. But public affairs at first so engrossed the attention of the monarchs that the suit of the navigator did not prevail for a long time. Finally he was summoned before the monarchs, and pleaded his cause in person. The queen's zeal was so inflamed that she resolved to give him aid. "Our treasury," said Ferdinand, "has been too much drained by the war to warrant us in the undertaking." The queen said, "I will undertake the enterprise for my own crown of Castile; and, if necessary, will pledge my jewels for the money." Then she fitted out the expedition that sailed from Palos in the autumn of 1492. (See *Columbus.*) Afterwards she opposed the enslaving the natives of the Western Continent; and when Columbus sent a cargo of captives to Spain, she ordered them to be carried back to their own country. With Cardinal Ximenes she effected a radical reform in the Church, as she had in the State; and criminals, high or low, the clergy and common offenders, felt the sword of justice fall with equal severity. Masculine in intellect, feminine in her moral qualities, pious and loving, Isabella's virtues—as virtues were estimated then and there—made

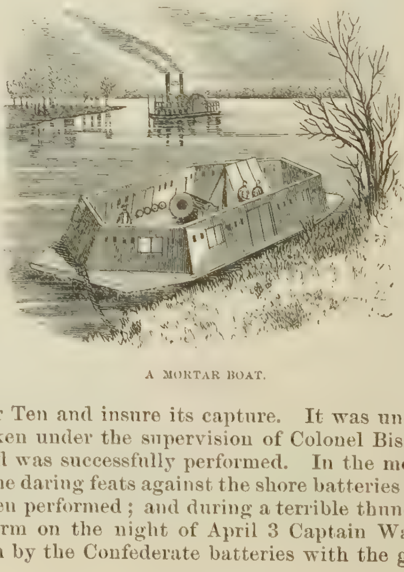
ISABELLA OF CASTILE.


VALLADOLID CATHEDRAL.

a favorite theme for the praise of Spanish writers. In person she was beautiful—well formed, clear complexion, light blue eyes, and auburn hair. She had one son and four daughters. Her youngest daughter, Catharine, became the wife of Henry VIII. of England.

Island Number Ten. This island lies in a sharp bend of the Mississippi River, about forty miles below Columbus, and within the limits of Kentucky. It was considered the key to the navigation of the lower Mississippi. To this island some of the troops and munitions of war were transferred when General Polk evacuated Columbus (which see), and all the troops there were in charge of Beauregard. On the 8th of March (1862) he sent forth a proclamation in which he called for bells with which to make cannons, and there was a liberal response. "In some cities," wrote a Confederate soldier, "every church gave up its bells. Court-houses, public institutions, and plantations sent them. And the people furnished large quantities of old brass—andirons, candlesticks, gas-fixtures, and even door-knobs." These were all sent to New Orleans to be used in cannon-founderies. There they were found by General Butler, sent to Boston, and sold at auction. Beauregard had thoroughly fortified the island, and, after the capture of New Madrid, it became an object of great interest to both parties, for it was besieged by the Nationals. For this purpose Commodore Foote left Cairo (March 14, 1862) with a powerful fleet of gun and mortar boats. There were seven of the former iron-clad and one not armored, and ten of the latter. On the night of the 15th Foote was at Island Number Ten, and the next morning (Sunday) he began the siege with a bombardment by the rifled cannons of his flag-ship, the *Boston*. This was followed by the mortar-boats, moored at proper points along the river shore, from which tons of iron were hurled upon the island and the batteries on the Kentucky banks opposite. All day long the artillery duel was kept up without much injury to either party. Meanwhile a battery of Illinois artillery had been landed on the Missouri shore, in a position to assail the Confederate flotilla near the island. The next day a tremendous attack on the Confederate works was made by a floating battery of ten guns, formed of three gunboats lashed together, side by side, followed by three others separately. The day's work was barren of any decisive result. The island shores were lined with batteries. So the siege went on, with varying fortunes, until the first week in April, when Beauregard telegraphed to Richmond that the "Federal guns" had "thrown three thousand shells and burned fifty tons of gunpowder" without damaging his batteries or killing one of his men. The public began to be impatient, but victory was near. General Pope was chafing with impatience at New Madrid. He wished to cross the river to the peninsula and attack the island in the rear, a movement that would insure its capture. The opposite shore was lined with Confederate batteries, and it would be madness to attempt a crossing until these were silenced. General Schuyler Hamilton proposed the construction of a canal across the neck of a swampy peninsula of sufficient capacity to allow the passage of gunboats and transports, so as to effectually flank Island Number Ten and insure its capture. It was undertaken under the supervision of Colonel Bissell, and was successfully performed. In the meantime daring feats against the shore batteries had been performed; and during a terrible thunderstorm on the night of April 3 Captain Walke ran by the Confederate batteries with the gun-

ISLAND NUMBER TEN.



A MORTAR BOAT.

boat *Carondelet*, assailed by all of them, her position being revealed by the flashes of lightning. It was the first vessel that ran by Confederate batteries on the Mississippi River. She had not fired a gun during her passage, but the discharge of three assured to anxious Commodore Foote the safety of the *Carondelet* after the dangerous voyage. Perceiving the perilous fate that awaited them after the completion of the canal, the Confederates sunk steamboats in the channel of the river to prevent the gunboats descending it, and they unsuccessfully attempted to escape from the island. After the *Carondelet* had passed the batteries, Beauregard was satisfied that the siege must speedily end in disaster to his command; so, after turning over the command on the island to General McCall, and leaving the troops on the Kentucky and Tennessee shores in charge of General McCown, he, with a considerable number of his best soldiers, departed for Corinth to check a formidable movement of National troops through middle Tennessee towards northern Alabama. (See *Mitchel's Expedition.*) The vigorous operations of Pope after he passed through the wonderful canal hastened the crisis. McCall and his troops, in their efforts to escape from the island, were intercepted by Pope's forces under Generals Stanley, Hamilton, and Paine; and on April 8, 1862, Island Number Ten, with the troops, batteries, and supports on the main, was surrendered. Over 7000 men became prisoners of war; and the spoils of victory were 123 cannons and mortars, 7000 small-arms, many hundred horses and mules, four steamboats afloat, and a very large amount of ammunition. The fall of Island Number Ten was a calamity to the Confederates which they never retrieved. It caused wide-spread alarm in the Mississippi valley, for it appeared probable that Memphis, one of the strongholds of the Confederates on the Mississippi, where they had immense workshops and armories, would soon share the fate of Columbus, and that National gunboats would speedily patrol the great river from Cairo to New Orleans. Martial law was proclaimed at Memphis, and only by the wisdom and firmness of the mayor were the troops and panic-stricken citizens prevented from laying the town in ashes. Preparations for flight were made at Vicksburg, and intense alarm prevailed at New Orleans among the disloyal population. It seemed as if the plan devised by Frémont (see *Frémont's Plan*), and now partially executed, was about to be successfully carried out. Curtis had already broken the military power of the Confederates west of the Mississippi (see *Pea Ridge*), and a heavy National force, pressing on towards Alabama and Mississippi, had just achieved a triumph on the banks of the Tennessee, a score of miles from Corinth. (See *Shiloh.*)

THE CARONDELET.

Isle of Sable. The Marquis de la Roche (which see) sailed from France with a commission to conquer Canada in 1598. He took with him a colony of convicts from the prisons, and landed forty of them on the Isle of Sable, and then he sailed for Acadia, or Nova Scotia. He finally returned to France, without making a settlement or having the power to carry the miserable outcasts whom he had left on the desolate island. He did not return to America. The French king, hearing of the fate of these convicts, sent Chetodel, who had been De la Roche's pilot, to take them away. It was at the end of seven years after their arrival that this succor came, when only twelve survived, and were carried home. The king saw them just as they had embarked, in their seal-skin dresses and long beards. He gave each of them fifty crowns, and a pardon for his crimes.

Isolation of the Capital. On the night of the fearful riot in Baltimore (April 19, 1861) (see *Massachusetts Troops in Baltimore*), Marshal Kane and ex-Governor Lowe went to the mayor and Governor Hicks for authority to commit further outrages. Kane said he had information that other Union troops were on the way by railroad from Harrisburg and Philadelphia, and he wanted authority to destroy the bridges on those roads. The mayor cheerfully gave them power so far as his authority extended, but the governor refused. So, without his sanction, Kane and the mayor went to the office of Charles Howard, President of the Board of Police, and received orders for the destruction of bridges on roads entering Baltimore. A gang of men was sent out who destroyed the Canton Bridge, a short distance from the city. When a train from the north approached, it was stopped, the passengers were turned out, the cars were filled by the mob, and the engineer was compelled to run his train back to the long bridges over the Gunpowder and Bush creeks, arms of Chesapeake Bay. These bridges were fired and a large portion of them consumed. Another party went up the Northern Central Railway from Baltimore to Cockeysville, fifteen miles north, and destroyed two wooden bridges there, and smaller structures on the road. The telegraph-wires on all the leading lines out of Baltimore, excepting the one that kept up a communication with the insurgents at Harper's Ferry, were destroyed, and thus all communication by telegraph and railway between Washington and the loyal states was cut off.

Italians and America. The three powers which formerly possessed nearly all of America owed their first discoveries to Italians: *Spain* to Columbus, a Genoese; *England* to the Cabots, Venetians; and *France* to Verazzani, a Florentine. Yet it is remarkable that the Italians, unequalled at the period of the discovery in maritime power, knowledge, and experience in navigation, have never acquired an inch of ground for themselves in America.

Iturbide, AUGUSTIN DE, Emperor of Mexico, was born in Valladolid, Mexico, in 1784; died in July, 1824. Leading in a scheme for overthrowing the Spanish power in Mexico in 1821, he took possession of the capital with troops in September in the name of the nation, and established a regency. He was declared emperor, May 18, 1822, but rivals and public distrust caused him to abdicate, and he went to Europe in 1823. An insurrection in his favor in Mexico induced him to return in 1824, when he was seized and shot. His widow was granted a pension of $8000 a year on condition that she should reside in the United States. She lived a long time in Philadelphia, and finally went to Europe. Iturbide's youngest son died in Paris in 1873, where he kept a public-house.

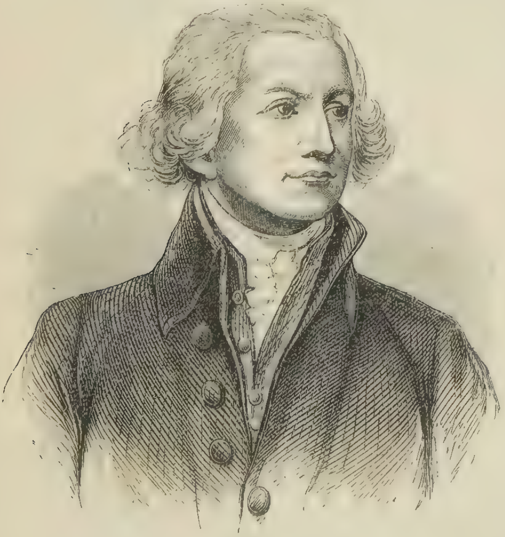
Iuka Springs, BATTLE NEAR. After the evacuation of Corinth (which see) General Rosecrans was placed in command of the forces under Pope, who had gone to Virginia (see *Army of Virginia*), to occupy northern Mississippi and Alabama, in the vicinity of Corinth, and eastward to Tuscumbia. His forces were known as the Army of the Mississippi, with headquarters at Corinth. There were no more stirring events in the region of General Grant's command (under whom was Rosecrans) than guerilla operations, from June until September. At the beginning of September the Confederates under Price and Van Dorn moved towards the Tennessee River, and, when Bragg moved into Tennessee, Price attempted to cut off communications between Grant and Buell. General Armstrong (Confederate), with over 5000 horsemen, struck the Nationals (Aug. 30, 1862) at Bolivar, with the intention of severing the railway there. He was repulsed by less than 1000 men, under Colonel Leggett. He was repulsed at Jackson the next day, and again, on Sept. 1, at Britton's Lane, after a battle of four hours with Indiana troops, under Colonel Dennis. At the latter place Armstrong left 179 men, dead and wounded, on the field. Informed of this raid, at Tuscumbia, Rosecrans hastened to Iuka, a little village celebrated for its fine mineral springs, about fifteen miles east of Corinth, where a large amount of stores had been gathered. There, with Stanley's division, he encamped at Clear Creek, seven miles east of Corinth, and, at the same time, Price moved northward from Tupelo with about 12,000 Confederate troops. Price struck Iuka (Sept. 10) and captured the National property there. Grant at once put two columns in motion to crush Price—one, under Rosecrans, to attack his flank and rear, and another, under General Ord, to confront him. These movements began on the morning of Sept. 18. Ord, with 5000 men, advanced to Burnsville, followed by General Ross with more, while Rosecrans moved with the separated divisions of Stanley and C. S. Hamilton, about 9000 strong, during a drenching rain, to San Jacinto, twenty miles southward of Iuka. On the next morning (Sept. 19) they pushed on towards Iuka, Mizner's cavalry driving a Confederate guard. Early in the afternoon Hamilton, listening for the sound of Ord's guns, and skirmishing briskly by the way, had reached a point within two miles of Iuka on densely wooded heights. There he formed a line of battle. He sent forward his skirmishers, who were driven back, and a severe battle immediately followed. The Eleventh Ohio battery was, after a severe struggle, placed in position on the crest of the hill. With this battery, a few regiments of Iowa, Missouri, Minnesota, and Indiana troops fought more than three times their number of Confederates, led by Price in person. Finally, when Colonel Eddy, of an Indiana regiment, was mortally wounded, the remainder of his regiment was hurled back in disorder, leaving the almost disabled battery to be seized by the Confederates. For the possession of these guns, desperate charges and countercharges were made, until, at length, the

DESTRUCTION OF THE BRIDGE OVER GUNPOWDER CREEK. (See p. 699.)

Confederate soldiers dragged the guns off the field. All of the horses and seventy-two of the artillerymen had been killed. The battle raged warmly elsewhere, when the Confederates were driven to the shelter of the hollows near the village. Darkness ended the battle of Iuka. The National loss was nearly 800, killed, wounded, and missing; that of the Confederates was nearly 1400. Ord, meanwhile, whom Grant had sent to assist Rosecrans, had been watching the movements of Confederates, who were making feints on Corinth. Expecting to renew the battle at Iuka in the morning, Stanley pressed forward for the purpose, but found that Price had fled southward under cover of the darkness, leaving behind the captured guns of the Eleventh Ohio battery. Price was pursued all day, but escaped.

GRAVES OF THE ELEVENTH OHIO BATTERY-MEN.

Izard, GEORGE, was born in South Carolina in 1777; died at Little Rock, Ark., Nov. 22, 1828.



GEORGE IZARD.

He was a son of Ralph Izard. Having finished his education and made a tour in Europe, he entered the United States Army, in 1794, as lieutenant of artillery. He was appointed aid to General Hamilton in 1799, and resigned in 1803. He was appointed colonel of artillery in the spring of 1812, and brigadier-general in March, 1813. He was in command on Lake Champlain and on the Niagara frontier, in 1814, with the rank of major-general. From 1825 until his death he was governor of Arkansas Territory.

Izard on the Niagara Frontier. Early in September, 1814, General Izard, in command on Lake Champlain, moved towards Sackett's Harbor, under the direction of the Secretary of War, with about 4000 troops, where he received a despatch from General Brown at Fort Erie (Sept. 10), urging him to move on to his support, as he had not more than 2000 effective men. The first division of Izard's troops arrived at Lewiston on Oct. 5. He moved up to Black Rock, crossed the Niagara River (Oct. 10–11), and encamped two miles north of Fort Erie. Ranking General Brown, he took the chief command of the combined forces, then numbering, with volunteers and militia, about 8000 men. He prepared to march against Drummond, who, after the sortie at Fort Erie (which see), had moved down to Queenston. Izard moved towards Chippewa, but vainly endeavored to draw Drummond out. He had some skirmishing in an attempt to destroy a quantity of grain belonging to the British, in which he lost twelve men killed and fifty-four wounded; the British lost many more. Drummond fell back to Fort George and Burlington Heights. Perceiving further operations in that region to be useless, and, perhaps, perilous, Izard crossed the river and abandoned Canada. Knowing Fort Erie to be of little service, he caused it to be mined and blown up (Nov. 5). It has remained a ruin until now.

Izard, RALPH, an active Revolutionary patriot, was born near Charleston, S. C., in 1742; died there, May 30, 1804. He was educated at Cambridge, England, and in 1767 married a daughter of Peter Delancy, of New York. They spent some time in Europe, and Mr. Izard was appointed by Congress commissioner to the court of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and resided in Paris, where he took sides with Arthur Lee against Silas Deane and Franklin. (See *Deane, Silas.*) He returned home in 1780; procured for General Greene the command of the Southern Army, and pledged his large estates for the purchase of ships of war in Europe. He was in Congress from 1781 to 1783, and in the Senate of the United States from 1789 to 1795. Two years afterwards he was prostrated by paralysis. His intellect was mercifully spared, and he lived in comparative comfort about eight years, without pain, when a second shock ended his life, at the age of sixty-two years. A tablet was placed to his memory in the parish church of St. James, Goose Creek, near his paternal seat, "The Elms."

J.

Jackson, Andrew, LL.D., the seventh President of the United States, was born in Mecklenburg County, N. C., March 15, 1767; died at "The Hermitage," twelve miles from Nashville, Tenn., June 8, 1845. His father died five days after his birth, and a month later his mother moved across the line between North and South Carolina, into the Waxhaw Settlements. This circumstance led to the common error of giving to South Carolina the credit of being the state of his nativity. His parents had come from the north of Ireland, in 1765, and were of the Scotch-Irish. At fourteen years of age, young Andrew joined the revolutionary forces in South Carolina. In that service he had two brothers killed. He was with Sumter in the battle at Hanging Rock (which see), and in 1781 he was made a prisoner. He was admitted to the practice of the law in western North Carolina in 1786; removed to Nashville in 1788; was United States attorney for that district in 1790; member of the convention that framed the state constitution of Tennessee in 1796; was a member of the United States Senate in 1797, and judge of the Tennessee Supreme Court from 1798 to 1804. From 1798 until 1814 he was major-general of the Tennessee militia, and conducted the principal campaign against the Creek Indians, which resulted in the complete subjugation of that nation in the spring of 1814. His victory at New Orleans (Jan. 8, 1815) gave him great renown; and in 1817 he successfully prosecuted the war against the Seminoles (which see). In 1819 he resigned his military commission, and was governor of newly acquired Florida in 1821–22. He was again United States Senator in 1823–24, also in 1828, and in 1832 he was elected President of the United States. His warfare on the United States Bank (which see) during his presidency resulted in its final destruction. Jackson's remains repose under a temple-form tomb, in the garden of "The Hermitage," his residence, about twelve miles from Nashville, Tenn. Four biographies of him have been written: one by J. H. Eaton, in 1818; a second by William Cobbett, in 1834; a third by Amos Kendall, in 1844; and the last by James Parton, in three volumes, in 1859. President Jackson possessed great firmness and decision of character; was honest and true; not always correct in judgment; often rash in expressions and actions; misled sometimes by his hot anger into acts injurious to his reputation; of unflinching personal courage; possessed of a tender, sympathizing nature, although sometimes appearing fiercely leonine; and a patriot of purest stamp. He retired from public life forever in the spring of 1837. His administration of eight years was marked by great energy, and never were the affairs of the Republic in its domestic and foreign relations more prosperous than at the close of his term of office. In 1852, an equestrian statue of Jackson, in bronze, by Clark Mills, was erected at Washington, at the expense of the nation, and a copy of it occupies a place in a public square in New Orleans.

ANDREW JACKSON IN 1814.

Jackson (Miss.), Battle at. While the troops of General Grant were skirmishing at Raymond (which see), he learned that General Joseph E. Johnston, one of the ablest of the Confederate generals, was hourly expected at Jackson, the capital of Mississippi. To make sure of that place, and to leave no enemy in his rear, Grant pushed on towards Jackson. McPherson entered Clinton early in the afternoon of May 13 (1863), without opposition, and began tearing up the railway between that town and the capital. Sherman was also marching on Jackson, while McClernand was at a point near Raymond. The night was tempestuous. In the morning, Sherman and McPherson pushed forward, and five miles from Jackson they encountered and drove in the Confederate pickets. Two and a half miles from the city they were confronted by a heavy Confederate force, chiefly Georgia and South Carolina troops under General Walker. General Crocker's division led the van of the Nationals, and a battle began at eleven o'clock, while a shower of rain was falling. The Confederate infantry were in a hollow, with their artillery on the crest of a hill beyond them. Crocker pressed the Confederates out of the hollow and up the slopes to their artillery. Still onward the Nationals pressed in the face of a severe fire, when the Confederates broke and fled towards the city, closely pursued for a mile and a half to their earthworks. Under a heavy storm of grape and canister shot poured upon their works, the Nationals reformed for the purpose of making an assault; but there was no occasion, for the garrison had evacuated the fort. They left behind them seventeen cannons, and tents enough to shelter a whole division. The commissary and quartermaster's stores were in flames. The city was taken possession of by the Nationals, and the stars and stripes were unfurled over the State House by the Fifty-ninth Indiana regiment. Entering Jackson that night, Grant learned that Johnston had arrived, taken charge of the department, and had ordered General J. C. Pemberton to march immediately out of Vicksburg and attack the National rear.

JACKSON'S TOMB. (See p. 702.)

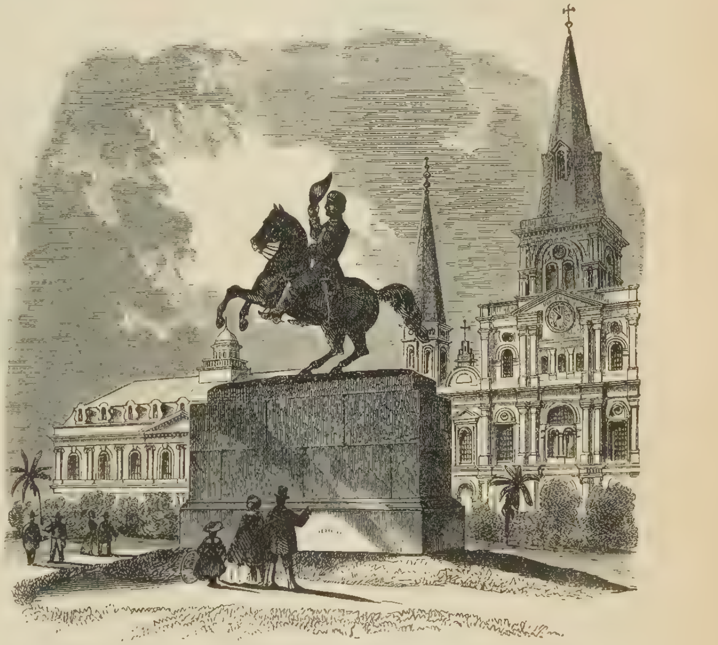
Jackson, Claiborne F., born in Kentucky, April 4, 1807; died at Little Rock, Ark., Dec. 6, 1862. He became conspicuous as a leader of the Secessionists and Confederates during the late civil war, as he was in the efforts of pro-slavery men to make Kansas a slave-labor state. In 1822, young Jackson went to Missouri; was a captain in the Black Hawk War (which see); served several years in the State Legislature, and was elected governor of Missouri by the Democrats in 1860. In 1855 he led a band of lawless men from Missouri, who, fully armed, encamped around Lawrence, in Kansas, where he took measures to prevent a legal polling of votes at an election for members of the Territorial Legislature, late in March. His followers threatened to hang a judge who attempted to secure an honest vote, and by threats compelled another to receive every vote offered by a Missourian. When the Civil War broke out, Jackson made strenuous efforts to place Missouri on the side of secession and rebellion, but was foiled chiefly through the efforts of General Nathaniel Lyon. He was deposed by the Missouri State Convention, in July, 1861, when he entered the Confederate military service as a brigadier-general. He was a refugee in Arkansas at the time of his death.

Jackson, Francis James, Mission of. Erskine was succeeded as minister to the United States by Francis James Jackson, an experienced diplomatist, and who had lately figured discreditably in the affair of the seizure of the Danish fleet by British men-of-war at Copenhagen. He had become known as "Copenhagen Jackson," whose conduct did not commend him to the good-will of the people of the United States. The impression was that he had come with explanations of the cause of the rejection of Erskine's arrangement. The Secretary of State, finding he had nothing to offer, addressed Jackson in a letter in which a tone of discontent was conspicuous, declaring the surprise and regret of the President that he had no explanations to offer as to the non-ratification of the Erskine arrangement, or authority to substitute any new arrangement for it. The object of the letter, probably, was to draw out from Jackson an explicit admission, as a basis for an appeal to the nation, that he had no authority to treat except upon the ground of Canning's three conditions—namely, 1. The repealing as to Great Britain, but the keeping in force as to France, and all countries adopting her decrees, so long as these decrees were continued, all American non-importation and non-intercourse acts; 2. The renunciation by the United States, during the present war, of any pretensions to carry on any trade with the colonies of belligerents not allowed in time of peace; and 3. The allowing British ships of war to enforce, by capture, the American non-intercourse acts with France and her allies. (See *Erskine, Negotiations with.*) Jackson declared that the rejection of that part of the arrangement of Erskine relating to the affair of the *Chesapeake* and *Leopard* (which see), was owing partly to the offensive terms employed in the American note to Erskine concerning it. This note had offended the old monarch, with whom Admiral Berkeley was a favorite. In it, Secretary Smith said (April 17, 1809), "I have it in express charge from the President to state that, while he forbears to insist on a further punishment of the offending officer, he is not the less sensible of the justice and utility of such an example, nor the less persuaded that it would best comport with what is due from his Britannic majesty to his own honor." Jackson's manner was offensive. He had an unbounded admiration for the government he represented, and a profound contempt for the Americans as an inferior people. He treated the officers of the United States government with the same haughty bearing that he did those of weak and bleeding Denmark, and after one or two personal interviews, Secretary Smith refused to have any further intercourse with him except in writing. The insolent diplomat was offended, and wrote an impudent letter to the Secretary. He was informed that no more communications would be received from him, when Jackson, disappointed and angry, left Washington with every member of the diplomatic family, and retired to New York. The United States government requested his recall, and early in 1810 he was summoned to England. No other minister was sent to the United States for about a year.

THE OLD COURT-HOUSE.

Jackson, General, fined for Contempt of Court. Jackson, like a true soldier, did not relax his vigilance after the victory that saved Louisiana from British conquest. He maintained martial law in New Orleans rigorously, even after rumors of a proclamation of peace reached that city. When an official announcement of peace was received from Washington, he was involved in a contention with the civil authorities, who had opposed martial law as unnecessary. In the Legislature of Louisiana was a powerful faction opposed to him personally, and when the officers and troops were thanked by that body (Feb. 2, 1815), the name of Jackson was omitted. The people were very indignant. A seditious publication soon appeared, which increased their indignation, and as this was a public matter, calculated to produce disaffection in the army, Jackson caused the arrest of the author and his trial by martial law. Judge Dominic A. Hall, of the Supreme Court of the United States, issued a writ of *habeas corpus* in favor of the offender. Jackson considered this a violation of martial law, and ordered the arrest of the judge and his expulsion beyond the limits of the city. The judge, in turn, when the military law was revoked (March 13, 1815) in consequence of the proclamation of peace, required Jackson to appear before him and show cause why he should not be punished for contempt of court. He cheerfully obeyed the summons, and entered the crowded court-room in the old Spanish-built court-house in citizen's dress. He had almost reached the bar before he was recognized, when he was greeted with huzzas by a thousand voices. The judge was alarmed, and hesitated. Jackson stepped upon a bench, procured silence, and then, turning to the trembling judge, said, "There is no danger here—there shall be none. The same hand that protected this city from outrage against the invaders of the country will shield and protect this court, or perish in the effort. Proceed with your sentence." The agitated judge pronounced him guilty of contempt of court, and fined him $1000. This act was greeted by a storm of hisses. The general immediately drew a check for the amount, handed it to the marshal, and then made his way for the court-house door. The people were intensely excited. They lifted the hero upon their shoulders, bore him to the street, and there an immense crowd sent up a shout that blanched the cheek of Judge Hall. He was placed in a carriage, from which the people took the horses and dragged it themselves to his lodgings, where he addressed them, urging them to show their appreciation of the blessings of liberty and a free government by a willing submission to the authorities of their country. Meantime, $1000 had been collected by voluntary subscriptions and placed to his credit in a bank. The general politely refused to accept it, and begged his friends to distribute it among the relatives of those who had fallen in the late battles. Nearly thirty years afterwards (1843), Congress refunded the sum with interest, amounting in all to $2700.

Jackson, General, Honors to, in New Orleans. On Jan. 21, 1815, Jackson, with the main body of his army, entered New Orleans. They were met in the suburbs by almost the entire population, who greeted the victors as their saviors. Two days afterwards there was an imposing spectacle in the city. At Jackson's request, the apostolic prefect of Louisiana appointed Jan. 23 a day for the public offering of thanks to God for the victory just won. It was a beautiful winter morning on the verge of the tropics. The religious ceremonies were to be held in the old Spanish cathedral, which was decorated with evergreens for the occasion. In the centre of the public square in front of the cathedral, a temporary triumphal arch was erected, supported by six Corinthian columns, and festooned by flowers and evergreens. Beneath this arch stood two beautiful little girls, each upon a pedestal, and holding in her hand a civic crown of laurel. Near them stood two damsels, one personifying *Liberty*, the other *Justice*. From the arch to the church, arranged in two rows, stood beautiful girls dressed in white, each covered with a blue gauze veil, with a silver star on her brow. These personated the several states and territories of the Union. Each carried a basket filled with flowers, and behind each was a lance stuck in the ground, and bearing a shield on which was inscribed the name and legend of the state or territory which she represented. These were linked by festoons of evergreens that extended from the arch to the door of the cathedral. At the appointed time, Jackson, accompanied by the officers of his staff, passed into the square, and, amid the roar of artillery, was conducted to the raised floor of the arch. As he stepped upon it, the two little girls leaned gently forward and placed the laurel crown upon his head. At the same moment, a charming Creole maiden (Miss Kerr), as the representative of Louisiana, stepped forward, and, with modesty in voice and manner, addressed a few congratulatory words to the general, eloquent with expressions of the most profound gratitude. To these words Jackson made a brief reply, and then passed on towards the church, the pathway strewn with flowers by the gentle representatives of the states. At the cathedral entrance he was received by the apostolic prefect (Abbé du Bourg) in his pontifical robes, supported by a college of priests in their sacerdotal garments. The abbé addressed the general with eloquent and patriotic discourse, after which the latter was seated conspicuously near the great altar, while the *Te Deum Laudamus* was chanted by the choir and the people. When the pageant was over, the general retired to his quarters to resume the stern duties of a soldier; and that night the city of New Orleans blazed with a general illumination. On the spot where the arch was erected, in the centre of the public square in front of the cathedral, has been erected a bronze equestrian statue of Jackson, by Clark Mills, a copy of one made for the government to adorn the public grounds in Washington city.



STATUE OF JACKSON IN FRONT OF THE CATHEDRAL, NEW ORLEANS.

Jackson, James, was born in Devonshire, Eng., Sept. 21, 1757; died in Washington, March 12, 1806. He came to Savannah, Ga., in 1772, and studied law. He entered the military service, and was brigade-major of the Georgia militia in 1778. He took part in the defence of Savannah; and when the British seized it at the close of 1778, he fled to South Carolina, where he joined General Moultrie. His appearance was so wretched while in his flight, that he was arrested, tried, and condemned as a spy, and was about to be executed, when a reputable citizen of Georgia, who knew him, saved him. Jackson fought a duel in March, 1780, killing his antagonist and being severely wounded himself. He joined Colonel Elijah Clarke, and became aid to Sumter. With Pickens, he shared in the victory at the Cowpens. He afterwards did good service as commander of a legionary corps, and was presented with a dwelling in Savannah by the Georgia Legislature. In 1786 he was made brigadier-general, and governor of Georgia in

1788, but the latter office he declined. From 1789 to 1791 General Jackson was a member of Congress, and United States Senator from 1793 to 1795, and from 1801 to 1806. From 1798 to 1801 he was governor of the state.

JAMES JACKSON.

Jackson, Sack of. Jackson is the capital of the State of Mississippi, and before the Civil War was one of the most beautiful towns in all that region. It is upon the Pearl River, at the intersection of two railways. After Grant left it (see *Jackson, Battle at*), General Joseph E. Johnston, the Confederate leader, made his headquarters there. After the fall of Vicksburg (which see), Johnston hovered menacingly in Grant's rear. Sherman had pushed out to press him back. Grant sent Sherman reinforcements, giving that leader an army fifty thousand strong. With these he crossed the Big Black River, during a great drought. In dust and great heat the thirsty men and animals went on to Jackson, Johnston retiring before them and taking position behind his breastworks there. Sherman invested Jackson (July 10), each flank resting on the Pearl River. He planted a hundred cannons on a hill, and opened on the town (July 12); but his trains being behind, his scanty ammunition was soon exhausted. In the assault, General Lauman pushed his troops too near the Confederate works, and in the course of a few minutes five hundred of his men were killed or wounded by sharpshooters and the grape and canister from twelve cannons. Two hundred of his men were made prisoners. Under cover of a fog, Johnston made a sortie (July 13), but with no beneficial result, and on the night of July 16–17 he withdrew with his twenty-five thousand men, hurried across the Pearl River, burned the bridges behind him, and retreated to Morton. Sherman did not pursue far, his object being to drive Johnston away and make Vicksburg secure. For this purpose he broke up the railways for many miles, and destroyed everything in Jackson that might be useful to the Confederates, and, more, the soldiers shamefully sacked and plundered the city. They ransacked the houses, taking whatever of value or otherwise pleased them, and destroyed what they were unable to appreciate or remove. Pianos and articles of furniture were demolished; books in libraries were torn up or trampled under foot; pictures were thrust through with bayonets; windows were broken and doors torn from their hinges. Furniture and beds, costly and otherwise, were dragged into the street and burned, and buildings were set on fire and destroyed. It was one of the most shameful exhibitions of barbarism of which the Union soldiers were occasionally guilty, and soiled with an indelible stain the character of the National army. When Sherman fell back to Vicksburg, he was followed by a great multitude of negroes of both sexes and of all ages.

Jackson, Thomas Jonathan ("Stonewall"), was born at Clarksburg, Va., Jan. 21, 1824; died at Guiney's Station, Va., May 10, 1863. He graduated at West Point in 1846, entering the Second Artillery. He served in the war with Mexico, was breveted captain and major, and resigned in 1852 with health impaired, becoming professor in the Military Institute at Lexington, Va. He entered the Confederate service as colonel in April, 1861, and commanded the "Army of Observation" at Harper's Ferry. His first engagement was at Falling Waters (which see). Jackson commanded a brigade in the battle of Bull's Run, where he received the name of "Stonewall" (which see). As brigadier and major general, he became the chief assistant of General Lee in his campaigns, and was accidentally shot by his own men, while reconnoitring during the battle of Chancellorsville (which see).

THOMAS J. ("STONEWALL") JACKSON.

Jackson, William, born in Cumberland, Eng., March 9, 1759; died in Philadelphia, Dec. 17, 1828. He was brought to Charleston, S. C., an orphan, at an early age. At the breaking-out of the war for independence he entered the military service. He finally became aid to General Lincoln, and was made a prisoner at Charleston in 1780. He was secretary to Colonel John Laurens, special minister to France, and was in Washington's military family as aid, with the rank of major. Jackson was Assistant Secretary of War under Washington, and was secretary to the convention that framed the national Constitution in 1787. From 1789 to 1792 he was aid and private secretary to President Washington, and after spending some time in Europe, he married Elizabeth Willing, of Philadelphia, in 1795. Major Jackson was surveyor of the port of Philadelphia from 1796 to 1801, and was secretary to the General Society of the Cincinnati.

WILLIAM JACKSON.

Jackson's Cabinet. The whole of President Adams's cabinet having resigned, President Jackson nominated for his constitutional advisers his political friends—namely: Martin Van Buren, of New York, Secretary of State; Samuel D. Ingham, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Treasury; John H. Eaton, of Tennessee, Secretary of War; John Branch, of North Carolina, Secretary of the Navy; and John McPherson Berrian, of Georgia, Attorney-general. It having been determined to make the Postmaster-general a cabinet officer, William T. Barry, of Kentucky, was called to the cabinet as such. The Senate being in session, these nominations were immediately confirmed. James A. Hamilton, of New York, performed the duties of Secretary of State until Mr. Van Buren could close his duties as Governor of New York, on which he had just entered.

Jamaica, INTERPOSITION OF. The island of Jamaica is a colony of Great Britain, and was of great commercial importance when the outbreak between the English-American colonies and the mother country occurred. In December its legislature interposed. They affirmed the rights of the colonies, enumerated their grievances, and, enforcing their claims to redress, implored the king to become the mediator for peace, and to recognize the title of the Americans to the benefits of the English Constitution. They disclaimed any intention of joining the American confederated colonies, for they were too weak, being only a small colony of white inhabitants, with more than two hundred thousand slaves. Their petition was received by the king, but no heed to it was given. The name of Jamaica is an Indian or native word. Oviedo mentions a river so called by the natives of Santo Domingo. The Spaniards spelled it Haymaca.

James I., KING OF ENGLAND, ETC., was born in Edinburgh Castle, June 19, 1566; died in the Palace of Theobald, March 27, 1625. He was son of Mary Queen of Scots and Henry Lord Darnley. Of him Charles Dickens writes: "He was ugly, awkward, and shuffling, both in mind and person. His tongue was much too large for his mouth, his legs were much too weak for his body, and his dull goggle-eyes stared and rolled like an idiot's. He was cunning, covetous, wasteful, idle, drunken, greedy, dirty, cowardly, a great swearer, and the most conceited man on earth. His figure—what was commonly called rickety from his birth—presented the most ridiculous appearance that can be imagined, dressed in thick-padded clothes, as a safeguard against being stabbed (of which he lived in constant fear), of a grass-green color from head to foot, with a hunting-horn dangling at his side instead of a sword, and his hat and feather sticking over one eye or hanging on the back of his head, as he happened to toss it on. He used to loll on the necks of his favorite courtiers, and slobber their faces, and kiss and pinch their cheeks; and the greatest favorite he ever had used to sign himself, in his letters to his royal master, 'his majesty's dog and slave.' He was the worst rider ever seen, and thought himself the best. He was one of the most impertinent talkers (of the broadest Scotch) ever heard, and boasted of being unanswerable in all manner of argument. He wrote some of the most turgid and most wearisome treatises ever read—among others, a book upon witchcraft, in which he was a devout believer—and thought himself a prodigy of authorship. He thought, and said, that a king had a right to make and unmake what laws he pleased, and ought to be accountable to nobody on earth. This is the plain, true character of the personage whom the greatest men about the court praised and flattered to that degree that I doubt if there be anything more shameful in the annals of human nature!" James was the sixth king of Scotland of that name, and came to the throne of England, after experiencing many vicissitudes, March 24, 1603. In 1589 he married Anne, daughter of the King of Denmark. His gross, ill manners and bad personal appearance made an unfavorable impression on the English people. He had trouble with Parliament and with the religionists of his realm from the beginning of his reign. Glad to get rid of troublesome subjects, he readily granted charters for settlements in America; and in 1612 two "heretics" were burned in England, the last execution of that kind that occurred in that country. His son Henry, Prince of Wales, died the same year, and his daughter Elizabeth was married to the Elector Palatine in 1613. His treatment of Sir Walter Raleigh, whom he caused to be beheaded (October, 1618), was disgraceful to human nature; his foreign policy, also, was disgraceful to the English name. Fickle, treacherous, conceited, and arbitrary, his whole life was an example to be avoided by the good. Dickens's portrayal of his personal character is a fair picture of his reign so far as the king was concerned. It was during that reign that a new translation of the Bible was authorized (1604)—the English version yet in use. The vile Duke of Buckingham was James's special favorite for a long time; and he and the queen were suspected of causing the king's last illness, by poison.

James II., KING OF ENGLAND, was the seventh king of Scotland of that name. He was born in the Palace of St. James, London, Oct. 15, 1633; died at St. Germain, France, Sept. 16, 1701. During the civil war, in which his father lost his head, James and his brother Gloucester and sister Elizabeth were under the guardianship of the Duke of Northumberland, and lived in the palace. When the overthrow of monarchy appeared inevitable, in 1648, he fled to the Netherlands, with his mother and family, and he was in Paris when Charles I. was beheaded. He entered the French service (1651), and then the Spanish (1655), and was treated with much consideration by the Spaniards. His brother ascended the British throne in 1660 as Charles II., and the same year James married Anne Hyde, daughter of the Earl of Clarendon. She died in 1671, and, two years afterwards, James married Maria Beatrice Eleanor, a princess of the House of Este, of Modena, twenty-five years younger than himself. While in exile James had become a Roman Catholic, but did not acknowledge it until 1671. He had become a commander in the British navy, but the test-act of 1673 caused him to leave all public employments. Being sent to Scotland as head of the administration there, he treated the Covenanters with great cruelty. When Charles died, James became king (Feb. 6, 1685). The prime object of his administration was to overthrow the Constitution of England and give the control of the nation to Roman Catholics. His rule was vigorous—oftentimes tyrannous—and in less than three years almost the whole of his subjects detested him. The foreign policy of the government was made subservient to that of France. Finally, the announcement that the queen had given birth to a son brought on a political crisis. The people had been restrained from revolution by the belief that the government would soon fall into the hands of his eldest daughter, who had married the Protestant Prince William of Orange. Now that event seemed remote, and William was invited by leading men of the realm to invade England. He did so in November, 1788, when the king was abandoned by every one but the Roman Catholics—even by his daughter Anne, who was afterwards Queen of England. James fled to France, where he was received by Louis XIV. with open arms. He made efforts to regain his kingdom, but failed.

James River. (See *Amphibious Engagement on the James.*)

James, THOMAS, ARCTIC DISCOVERIES OF. In 1631 Thomas James was sent out by an association at Bristol to search for a northeast passage to India. With twenty-one men, in the ship *Henrietta Maria* (named in honor of the queen), he sailed May 3. On the 29th of June he spoke the ship of Captain Fox, who had been sent on the same errand by the king, and furnished with a letter to the Emperor of Japan, if he should find that country. Neither James nor Fox discovered the coveted "passage," but the former made valuable discoveries in Hudson's Bay. James was a man of science, and in his *Journal* he recorded his observations on rarities he had discovered, "both philosophicall and mathematicall." James and his crew suffered terribly, for they passed a winter in those high latitudes, and returned in 1632.

Jamestown. On the 13th of May, 1607, more than one hundred Englishmen landed on a slightly elevated peninsula on the right bank of the "River of Powhatan," Virginia, forty or fifty miles from its mouth, chose the spot for the capital of a new colony, cleared the trees from the ground, and began the building of a village, which, in compliment to their king (James I.), they named Jamestown. They also gave his name to the river. The spot is more of an island than a peninsula, for the marshy isthmus that connects it with the mainland is often covered with water. The Rev. Robert Hunt, the pastor of the colony, preached a sermon and invoked the blessings of God upon their undertaking. Then, in the warm sunshine, and among the shadowy woods and the delicious perfume of flowers, the sound of the metal axe was first heard in Virginia. The first tree was felled for a dwelling on the spot first settled, permanently, by Englishmen in America. The Indians were at first hostile, and the settlement built a stockade. Their first church edifice there was very simple. "When I first went to Virginia," says Captain Smith, "I well remember we did hang an awning (which was an old sail) to three or four trees to shadow us from the sun; our walls were rails of wood, our seats unhewed trees, till we cut planks; our pulpit a bar of wood nailed to two neighboring trees; in foul weather we shifted into an old, rotten tent, for we had few better. . . . This was our church till we built a homely thing, like a barn, set upon crotchets, covered with rafts, sedge, and earth; so were also the walls. The best of our houses were of the like curiosity, but, for the most part, of far worse workmanship, that could neither well defend wind nor rain. Yet we had daily common prayer morning and evening, every Sunday two sermons, and every three months communion till our minister died." The church—"the homely thing, like a barn"—was burned while Captain Smith was a prisoner among the Indians (see *Pocahontas*), and he found the settlers building a house for the President of the Council. When, not long after, he was installed in that office, he ordered the "building of the palace to be stayed, as a thing needless," and the church to be rebuilt at once. Commissioners under the new charter (see *London Company*) arrived at Jamestown in the spring of 1610. Of the four hundred and ninety persons left there by Smith the previous autumn, only sixty remained alive. They had refused to follow the admonitions of Smith to provide food for the winter, but relied upon the neighboring barbarians to supply them. When Smith departed, the Indians showed hostility and withheld corn and game. They matured a plan for the destruction of the settlers at Jamestown, when Pocahontas, like an angel of mercy, hastened to the settlement under cover of darkness, warned them of their danger, put them on their guard, and saved them. Terrible had been the sufferings of the colonists through the winter. More than four hundred had perished by famine and sickness in the space of six months. It was long after referred to by the survivors as "the starving time." The settlers were in the depths of despair when the commissioners arrived. Sir Thomas Gates, who was acting-governor, saw no other way to save the lives of the starving men than to abandon the settlement, sail to Newfoundland, and distribute them among the fishermen there. They were embarked in four pinnaces, but, at dawn, they met Lord Delaware, with ships, supplies, and emigrants, at the mouth of the river. All turned back, and, landing at deserted Jamestown, they stood in silent prayer and thanksgiving on the shore, and then followed Rev. Mr. Buckle (who had succeeded Mr. Hunt) to the church, where he preached a sermon in the evening twilight. The congregation sang anthems of praise, and were listened to by crouching savages in the adjacent woods. In that little chapel at Jamestown Pocahontas was baptized and married a few years later. (See *Pocahontas.*) The fire that consumed the first church also destroyed a large portion of the town and surrounding palisades. There seems to have been another destructive fire there afterwards, for Smith, speaking of the arrival of Governor Argall, in 1617, says: "In Jamestown he found but five or six houses, the church down, the palisades broken, the bridge [across the marsh] in pieces, the well of fresh water spoiled, and the store-house used for a church." When, in 1619, Governor Yeardly organized a representative government in Virginia, and soon afterwards families were established in the colony (see *Women in Virginia*), the settlement at Jamestown grew rapidly, and remote settlements were planted. Suddenly a great calamity overtook the colony. Powhatan was dead, and his successor, Opechancanough, always hostile, planned a blow for the extermination of the white people. It fell with terrible force late in March, 1622, and eighty plantations were reduced to eight. The settlers at Jamestown escaped the calamity, through the good offices of Chanco, a friendly Indian, who gave them timely warning of the plot, and they were prepared for defence. Jamestown became a refuge from the storm for the Western settlements. (See *Opechancanough.*) Sickness and famine ensued, and the colony was greatly reduced in number, for many left through fear. It soon recovered, and increased in strength. A new and substantial church was built, with a heavy brick tower, probably between the years 1620 and 1625. During Bacon's rebellion, in 1676, Jamestown—"the only village in all Vir-

JAMESTOWN IN 1876.

ginia"—was entered by that leader, after driving away the governor, and, in a council of war, it was determined to burn the town, a rumor having reached Bacon that the royalist troops were coming upon him. The torch was applied just at twilight, and the Virginia capital was laid in ashes. Nothing remained the next morning but the brick tower of the church and a few solitary chimneys. (See *Bacon's Rebellion.*) The remains of that tower may still be seen there. They are about thirty feet high, the walls three feet thick, all of imported brick. Around it lie the ruined monuments of the dead buried in the church-yard. Jamestown was never rebuilt. It has remained in desolation over two hundred years.

Jamestown Colony Saved. Pocahontas, then about thirteen years old, having discovered a plot among her people to destroy the English colony at Jamestown, went, on a dark and dreary night, to the president (John Smith) and disclosed the design, so that the settlers there were on their guard. Some accident gave the barbarians such an elevated idea of the power and wisdom of the white people that hatred was changed to respect. An Indian, apparently dead from the effects of the fumes of charcoal, was restored by the application of a little vinegar and alcohol. This struck the Indians with astonishment, as a miracle. The barbarians had not yet seen gunpowder. At about that time a small quantity accidentally exploded and killed two or three Indians. Powhatan and some of his people came to Smith with presents, and offered the colonists unfeigned friendship.

Jamestown, SIEGE OF (1676). Governor Berkeley, who had been driven from Jamestown by Bacon (see *Bacon's Rebellion*), collected a force of nearly one thousand Accomacians, by liberal promises of pay and plunder, and returned, in two ships and sixteen sloops, and entered his capital. Bacon collected a new force and laid siege to Jamestown (September, 1676). His numbers were inferior to those of the governor, and, fearing a sortie while completing fortifications across the neck of the peninsula, he sent out horsemen to bring the wives of several of the principal men of the colony, who were in Jamestown with the governor. These he placed in full view of their husbands, in the morning, on the top of a small work he had cast up in the night, and kept them there until he had completed his works, as a defence against the shots of the enemy. When the works were finished and the ladies were removed, Berkeley's men made a sally, but were repulsed. The governor could not depend upon his troops, and made a hasty retreat by night, in his vessels. Bacon entered the town the next morning, and, to prevent the governor's return, he laid Jamestown in ashes. It consisted, besides the church and state-house, of about eighteen houses, mostly built of brick.

Jamestown, SKIRMISH NEAR (1781). Cornwallis prepared to cross the James River at Jamestown, when he found the republican troops pressing him hard (see *Steuben in Virginia*), for Sir Henry Clinton had ordered him to send three thousand of his troops to New York. On July 6 Wayne sent out a detachment to capture a British field-piece, and they boldly resisted the attack of a large portion of Cornwallis's army as the former fell back to Lafayette's main force near the Green Spring Plantation. There a sharp skirmish ensued, in which the marquis had a horse shot under him, and each party lost about one hundred men. The blow was so severe that Cornwallis hastened across the river (July 9), and marched, without further molestation, to Portsmouth.

Japan, INTERNATIONAL INTERCOURSE WITH. Japan, like China, had always been a sort of sealed kingdom to the commerce of the world. The foundation of the states of California and Oregon, on the Pacific coast, suggested the great importance of commercial intercourse with Japan, because of the intimate relations which must soon exist between this coast and the East Indies. This consideration caused an expedition to be fitted out by the United States government in the summer of 1852 to carry a letter from the President (Mr. Fillmore) to the sovereign of Japan soliciting the negotiation of a treaty of friendship and commerce between the two nations, by which the ports of the latter should be thrown open to American vessels for purposes of trade. For this expedition seven ships of war were employed. They were placed under the command of Commodore M. C. Perry, a brother of the victor on Lake Erie. The diplomatic portion of the mission was also intrusted to Commodore Perry. He did not sail until November (1852). The letter which he bore to the emperor was drafted by Mr. Webster before his decease, but countersigned by Edward Everett, his successor in office. Perry carried out many useful implements and inventions as presents to the Japanese government, including a small railway and equipments, telegraph, etc. He was instructed to approach the Emperor of Japan in the most friendly manner; to use no violence unless attacked; but if attacked, to let the Japanese feel the full weight of his power. Perry delivered his letter of credence, and waited some months for an answer, without being permitted to land on the shores of the empire. Meanwhile he visited and surveyed the Loo Choo Islands. In February, 1854, he returned to the Bay of Jeddo, and finally effected a landing and commenced negotiations, which were happily successful. The treaty then made stipulated that ports should be thrown open to American commerce, to a limited extent, in different Japanese islands; that steamers from California to China should be furnished with supplies of coal; and that American sailors shipwrecked on the Japanese coasts should receive hospitable treatment. So Japan was first opened to friendly relations with the Americans. Before this treaty the Dutch had monopolized the trade of Japan. Subsequently a peculiar construction of the treaty on the part of the Japanese authorities, in relation to the permanent residence of Americans there, threatened a disturbance of the amicable relations which had been established. The matter was adjusted, and in 1860 the first embassy from Japan visited the United States. It was an imposing array of Japanese officials. There was great opposition in the empire to this intercourse with "the barbarians." Civil war ensued. A rapid change now marked public opinion in Japan in regard to foreigners; and from that time the intimate relations, social and commercial, between the United States and Japan have constantly increased, with results wonderfully beneficial to both countries.

Japanese Embassy. At the beginning of the year 1872 the government of Japan sent an embassy to the United States to inquire about the renewal of former treaties. It consisted of twenty-one persons, composed of the heads of the several departments of the Japanese government and their secretaries. Among them was an imperial prince—Mr. Mori—who came to represent Japan at Washington as chargé-d'affaires. Also twelve students. The mission arrived at Washington at the beginning of March. Mr. Mori was the first minister ever sent by his government to reside in a foreign country.

Jasper, SERGEANT. During the hottest of the attack of the British fleet on Fort Sullivan (see *Charleston, Defence of*), the South Carolina flag that waved over it fell to the ground outside of the fort, its staff having been cut in two by a cannon-ball. Sergeant William Jasper, of Moultrie's regiment, a native of South Carolina, and about twenty-six years of age, seeing the flag fall, leaped down from one of the embrasures, seized the ensign, climbed back, fixed the colors to a sponge-staff, mounted the parapet, stuck the improvised flag-staff in the sand of one of the bastions, and returned to his place in the fort. A few days afterwards Governor Rutledge took his own sword from his side and presented it to Jasper. He also offered him a lieutenant's commission, which the young man modestly declined because he could neither read nor write, saying, "I am not fit to keep officers' company—I am but a sergeant." He was given a sort of roving commission by Colonel Moultrie, and, with five or six men, he often brought in prisoners before his commander was aware of his absence. An earnest Whig lady of Charleston—Mrs. Susannah Elliot—presented Jasper's regiment with a stand of colors wrought with her own hands. They were shot down at the assault on Savannah (1779), and in trying to replace them on the parapet of a redoubt Jasper was mortally wounded, but brought them off. A county in Georgia and a square in Savannah bear his name.

Jay, JOHN, was born in New York, Dec. 12, 1745; died at Bedford, N. Y., May 17, 1829. He was of Huguenot descent. Graduated at King's (Columbia) College in 1764, he was admitted to the bar in 1768, and formed a partnership with Robert R. Livingston. In 1774 he was a delegate in the First Continental Congress, and the same year he married a daughter of William Livingston, of New Jersey. In that Congress, though the youngest member but one, he took a conspicuous part, being the author of the "Address to the People of Great Britain." His facile pen was often employed in framing documents in the Congress of 1775. Early in 1776 Mr. Jay left Congress and engaged in the public affairs of his own state, being a leading member of the Provincial Congress in 1776. He wrote the able address of the convention at Fishkill in December, 1776; reported a bill of rights to the New York Constitutional Convention in March, 1777; and was the chief author of the first constitution of the State of New York. After assisting in putting in motion the machinery of his state government, and being made a judge, he entered Congress again, late in 1778, and became president of that body. In September, 1779, he was sent to Spain to negotiate a loan. Mr. Jay was one of the commissioners for negotiating a treaty of peace with Great Britain (which see). He returned to New York in 1784, and was Secretary for Foreign Affairs from that year until the organization of the government under the national Constitution. Mr. Jay was associated with Hamilton and Madison in writing the series of articles in support of the Constitution known collectively as *The Federalist.* Washington appointed Jay the first chief-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States. In 1794 he went on a mission to England (see *Jay's Treaty*); and from 1795 to 1801 he was Governor of the State of New York, under whose administration slavery was abolished. This was the last public office held by Mr. Jay.

JOHN JAY.

Jay's Mission to England. On the 7th of April, 1794, a motion was made in the House of Representatives that all commercial intercourse with Great Britain and her subjects be suspended, so far as respected all articles of the growth or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, until the surrender of the Western posts and due compensation for all losses and damages growing out of British aggressions on our neutral rights should be made. This motion, if adopted, would lead directly to war. Its adoption seemed probable, and Washington, to avert the calamitous consequences, proposed to send a special minister to England to negotiate an amicable settlement of the existing disputes. There were grave charges of violations of the treaty of 1783 made by the two parties against each other. Washington desired to send Hamilton on the mission. Violent opposition to this was made by his political enemies, whose hatred and jealousy were intense. Fearing Hamilton might not have the confirmation of the Senate, Washington nominated John Jay (April 16), which nomination was confirmed April 19. The special minister arrived in England in June, where he was received with great courtesy by the British government. He negotiated a treaty which was not wholly satisfactory to his countrymen, closing his labors on Nov. 19. (See *Jay's Treaty.*)

Jay's Treaty. In April, 1794, John Jay was sent to the British court, as envoy extraordinary, to negotiate a treaty that should settle all existing disputes between the two governments. He arrived in London in June, and was received graciously by the ministry. Lord Grenville, then at the head of foreign affairs, expressed great anxiety to bring the negotiations to a successful issue. There was a wide difference of views concerning matters in dispute. The Americans complained that, contrary to the provisions of the treaty of peace (1783), a large number of negroes had been carried off by the evacuating armies; and for this loss compensation was demanded for the owners. They complained, also, of the detention of the Western posts, which was the main cause of the hostility of the Northwestern tribes. They also alleged numerous violations of their neutral rights, especially on the high seas, such as the impressment of seamen and the exclusion of American shipping from the trade of the British West Indies. There were other complaints on the part of the Americans; but the matters more immediately provocative of war were the disputed questions of neutral rights and the detention of the Western posts. Deeming it wise to adjust these two important difficulties, Jay thought it best to yield, temporarily, other considerations, or leave them for future adjustment, and he was induced to sign a treaty (Nov. 19, 1794) defective in some respects and objectionable in others. It provided for the collection of British debts in the United States contracted before the Revolution, but it did not secure indemnity to those who lost slaves. It secured indemnity for unlawful captures on the high seas, and the evacuation of the military posts on the frontiers yet held by the British. These were to be surrendered on June 1, 1796, the present residents to have the option of removing or of becoming American citizens. There was to be a mutual reciprocity of inland trade and intercourse between the North American territories of the two nations, including the navigation of the Mississippi; but it did not extend to the Hudson's Bay Company, nor to the admission of American vessels into the harbors of the British North American colonies, nor to the navigation of the rivers of those colonies below the highest port of entry. These were the principal features of the first ten articles of the treaty, which were to be perpetual. Eighteen others, of the nature of a treaty of commerce, were limited to two years. They provided for the admission of American vessels into British ports in Europe and the East Indies on terms of equality with British vessels; but no terms were made concerning the East India coasting trade, or the trade between Europe and the British West Indies. There were restrictions upon the American trade to the British West Indies; and British vessels were to be admitted to American ports on terms of the most favored nations. Privateers were to give bonds to respond to any damages they might commit against neutrals, and other regulations of that service were made. The list of contraband articles was clearly defined. No vessel attempting to enter a blockaded port was to be captured unless she had first been notified and turned away. Neither nation was to allow enlistments within its territory by any third nation at war with the other; nor were the citizens or subjects of either to be allowed to accept commissions from such third nation, or to enlist in its service, on penalty of being treated as pirates. Ships of war of the contracting parties were to be mutually admitted in a friendly manner into the ports of each other, such vessels to be free from any claim of search, but were to depart as speedily as might be. Other and stringent regulations were made concerning privateers. In case of rupture or war, the citizens or subjects of either nation resident in the territories of the other were to be allowed to remain and to continue their trade so long as they behaved peaceably. They might be ordered off, in case of suspicion, on twelve months' notice, or without any notice, if detected in violations of the laws. No reprisals were to be ordered by either party till satisfaction had first been demanded. Fugitives from justice charged with murder or forgery were to be mutually given up. This treaty was laid before the Senate early in June, 1795, and its ratification was agreed to on the 14th. The ratification was completed by Washington's signature to it on Aug. 18.

Jay's Treaty before the House of Representatives. When the President had proclaimed the treaty as the law of the land, he, according to promise, sent a copy of it (March 2, 1796) to the House. Its appearance was the beginning of a violent debate in that body, which turned upon the question whether the House possessed discretionary power to carry the treaty into execution or not at its pleasure. The debate arose on a motion of Edward Livingston, of New York, calling upon the President for his instructions to Jay and other papers relating to the treaty. After about thirty speeches, in a debate of three weeks, which grew warmer and warmer the longer it lasted, the resolution was adopted (March 24) by a vote of sixty-two to thirty-seven. The President consulted his cabinet, and they unanimously decided that the House had no right to make such a call, as they were not a part of the treaty-making power. They also decided that it was not expedient for the President to furnish the papers, for the call should be considered as an unfounded claim of power on the part of the House to interfere with the privileges of the President and Senate. The President therefore declined to comply with the request of the House, giving his reasons in a special message. Resolutions asserting the majesty of the House were introduced (April 6), and were supported by Madison. These resolutions were adopted by a vote of fifty-seven to thirty-five, and the subject of the "British treaty" was a staple topic of debate for some time afterwards. Finally (April 30) the House passed a resolution—fifty-one to forty-eight—that it was expedient to pass laws for carrying the treaty into effect.

Jay's Treaty, Opposition to. The leaders of the Democratic party had opposed the treaty from its inception, and the Democratic societies (which see) and newspapers had resolved to oppose and attack it whatever might be its provisions. The treaty was concluded at London on Nov. 19, 1794. It reached the President in March, 1795, after the adjournment of Congress. The Senate was convened, in special session, to consider it, early in June, 1795. After a debate for a fortnight, in secret session, a vote of twenty to ten—precisely a constitutional majority—advised (June 24) the ratification of the treaty, excepting the article which related to the renunciation by the Americans of the privilege of transportation of sugar, molasses, coffee, cocoa, and cotton in the West India trade. Cotton was then just promising to be of vast importance in the carrying-trade (see *Cotton in the United States*), and such an article was wholly inadmissible. The President had determined, before the meeting of the Senate, to ratify the treaty; and when it was laid before the cabinet all agreed with him excepting the Secretary of State (Edmund Randolph, of Virginia), who raised the point that by the ratification, before an obnoxious British Order in Council (which see) concerning neutrals should be repealed, the British claim to the right of search and impressment (which see) would be conceded by the Americans. Hamilton, who had been consulted, advised the ratification, but to withhold the exchange of ratifications until that order should be repealed. The Senate had removed the seal of secrecy from their proceedings, but had forbidden any publication of the treaty itself. Statements concerning the provisions of the treaty soon appeared. The Democratic societies (which see) and newspapers had resolved to oppose and attack the treaty whatever might be its provisions. They had opposed the mission to negotiate it. After it was received Randolph revealed enough of its character to give a foundation for many attacks upon it in the newspapers. It was denounced as a pusillanimous surrender of American rights. In order to prevent misrepresentations, and to elicit the expressions of the people, Washington caused the whole treaty to be published. He had been anticipated by an unfaithful Senator from Virginia (Stevens Thomson Mason), who caused to be published a full abstract of it in the *Aurora*, a violent opponent of the government. A day or two afterwards a perfect copy was furnished by Mason. Concerning this transaction a writer said:

> "Ah, Thomson Mason! long thy fame shall rise
> With Democratic incense to the skies.
> Long shall the world admire thy manly soul,
> Which scorned the haughty Senate's base control:
> Came boldly forward with thy weighty name,
> And gave the treaty up for public game!"

A mad, seditious cry went over the land from the opposition. In several cities mobs threatened personal violence to the supporters of the treaty. Hamilton was stoned at a public meeting in New York, while speaking in the open air. "These are hard arguments," he said, as a stone grazed his forehead. The British minister at Philadelphia was insulted; and in Charleston the British flag was trailed in the dust of the streets. Jay was denounced as a traitor; and in Virginia *disunion* was recommended as a cure for political evils. The Democratic societies and orators put forth claims for sympathy for France. "She has a government congenial to our own. Citizens, your security depends on France. Let us unite with her and stand or fall together!" shouted opposition orators throughout the country. The Democrats adorned their hats with the French cockade. Jay was burned in effigy in many places, and longings for the guillotine were freely expressed in public assemblies. For many years afterwards Jay's treaty was made an efficient war-club in the hands of the Republican or Democratic leaders.

Jay's Treaty out of Congress. While debates concerning the treaty were rife in Congress, an apprehension spread among the people, especially the mercantile class, that war with Great Britain would be the consequence of the rejection of the treaty. This thought inspired serious alarm, and petitions began to pour into Congress from all portions of the country in favor of its ratification. Insurance could no longer be obtained against capture on the high seas. Very speedily counter-petitions flowed in, and the whole country, especially the business communities, was fearfully agitated. Brand, the British chargé d'affaires, added fuel to the flame by intimating that if the House should refuse to pass laws for the execution of the treaty, the Western posts would not be given up. This again aroused violent debates in the House; and so the war of words went on in and out of Congress—the chief speaker among the Republicans against the treaty being Albert Gallatin, and in favor of it, Fisher Ames—until the close of April (1796), when the resolution declaring it expedient to pass the laws necessary for carrying the treaty into effect was passed, and the agitation soon ceased.

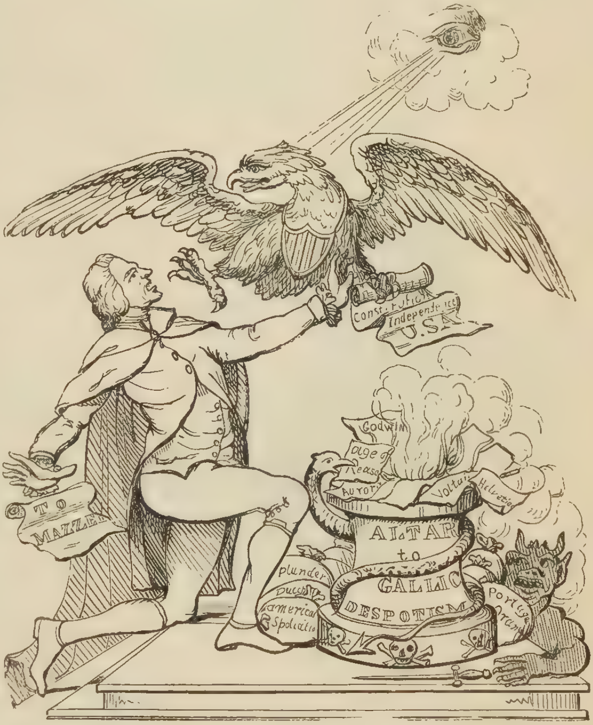
Jealousy of Chartered Colonies. The first ministry of George I., annoyed by obstacles which the colonial charters opposed to absolute imperial control, attempted (1715) to "regulate the chartered governments." The excitement raised by the bill for this purpose caused the ministry to drop it; but they sent orders to the colonial governors not to consent to any laws which would affect British trade, unless with clauses suspending their operations till they received the royal assent. In Rhode Island, Connecticut, and the Carolinas, such assent was not necessary to the enactment of laws; and hence the disposition, so repeatedly exhibited, to strip those provinces of their charters. Five years later (1720) an agent sent to England by the people of the Carolinas represented the "confused, negligent, and helpless government of the proprietaries." Taking advantage of this, the old act for regulating the "chartered governments" was revived. It was again abandoned, but an order for vacating the Carolina charters was issued. Pending the process the administration of the Carolinas was assumed by the crown. It was at this time that Jeremiah Dummer, agent of the Province of Massachusetts, published in London his *Defence of the New England Charters*.

Jealousy of old Army Officers. When the army was organized for war in 1812, military officers of the Revolution were chosen to fill the higher places, and they generally failed, not only on account of incapacity, but because of their jealousy of each other, and of younger officers. Unfortunately for the country, President Madison appointed John Armstrong Secretary of War at the beginning of 1813. He was unfitted for his place by his temperament and imperious manner, and was always offended by a suggestion, as if it were an impertinent interference. He snubbed the patriotic Jackson (see *Tennessee*), and drove Harrison from the army; and in the summer of 1813 he called the incompetent Wilkinson from the Gulf region to take the place of Dearborn in command of the forces on the northern frontier. The change was of no value to the cause. Dearborn withdrew from the service before Wilkinson's arrival, leaving the command at Fort George with General Boyd, the senior officer on that frontier. Trouble soon ensued. Armstrong was as much infatuated with the idea of conquering Canada as his predecessors had been; and he conceived a plan for an invasion by the united forces of the armies of the Centre and the North. He ordered Wilkinson to Sackett's Harbor to make arrangements for it. Wilkinson differed with Armstrong about the plan, and bitter enmity between them was soon aroused. The fiery spirit of the Secretary of War could not brook contradiction. There was another imperious and hot spirit then in the field—General Wade Hampton, of South Carolina, one of Marion's partisan officers in the Revolution. He had succeeded Bloomfield in command of the Army of the North, on Lake Champlain and its vicinity. He was a thorough-going aristocrat. His landed possessions were princely in extent, and he counted his slaves by thousands. He hated Wilkinson intensely. When that officer, on his arrival at Albany, sent his first order to Hampton, the anger of the fiery Southerner was fiercely kindled. He wrote to Armstrong an insolent letter, insisting that his was a separate and independent command, and tendering his resignation in the event of his being ordered to act under Wilkinson. The latter, at the same time, was as jealous of Armstrong, who, he feared, might trample upon his prerogatives; and on the 24th of August (1813) he wrote to the Secretery of War: "I trust you will not interfere with my arrangements, or give orders within the district of my command, but to myself, because it would impair my authority and distract the public service. Two heads on the same shoulders make a monster." This was reasonable; but Armstrong was highly offended, and he finally went to Sackett's Harbor to regulate matters himself, and actually established the War Department there for a while. The jealousies and bickerings of these old officers of the Continental army were highly detrimental to the public service.

Jealousy of Washington. After the affair at Trenton the whole country rang with the praises of Washington, and the errors of Congress in not heeding his advice in the construction of the army were freely commented upon. That body was now inferior in its material to the first and second Congresses, and was cursed with cliques and factions; and there were protests among the members, who shook their heads in disapprobation of the popularity and power with which Washington was invested. To a proposition to give him power to name generals John Adams vehemently protested, saying: "In private life I am willing to respect and look up to him; in this House I feel myself to be the superior of General Washington." On Feb. 24, 1777, when mere "ideal reinforcements" were voted to Washington, after an earnest debate, in which "some of the New England delegates and one from New Jersey showed a willingness to insult him," they expressed an "earnest desire that he would not only curb and confine the enemy within their present quarters, but, by the divine blessing, totally subdue them before they could be reinforced." To this seeming irony Washington calmly responded: "What hope can there be of my effecting so desirable a work at this time? The whole of our number in New Jersey fit for duty is under three thousand." The resolution was carried by a bare majority of the states present—Virginia and four New England states. The jealous men were few; the friends and admirers were many. William Hooper, of North Carolina, wrote to Robert Morris: "When it shall be consistent with policy to give the history of that man [Washington] from his first introduction into our service; how often America has been rescued from ruin by the mere strength of his genius, conduct, and courage; encountering every obstacle that want of money, men, arms, ammunition, could throw in his way; an impartial world will say, with you, he is the greatest man on earth. Misfortunes are the elements in which he shines; they are the groundwork on which his picture appears to the greatest advantage. He rises superior to them all; they serve as forts to his fortitude, and as stimulants to bring into view those great qualities which his modesty keeps concealed."

Jefferson and Dickinson. Thomas Jefferson and John Dickinson were patriots of purest mould, but of different constituents in temperament. The first was bold, impassioned, and aggressive; the second was cautious, calm, and disposed to act on the defensive. When the proclamation of King George III. (which see) arrived in America, Jefferson took fire, and exclaimed, "There is not in the British empire a man who more cordially loves a union with Great Britain than I do; but, by the God that made me, I will cease to exist before I will yield to a connection on such terms as the British Parliament propose; and in this I speak the sentiments of America." But Dickinson still adhered to the belief that the petition he had drafted (see *Second Petition to the King*) had not been rejected, and that proofs of a conciliatory disposition would be manifest in his speech at the opening of the session of Parliament. In this he was disappointed; but his caution made him so conservative that when the question of independence was voted upon he was opposed to the measure.

Jefferson Caricatured. Caricature was very little known in America before the close of the eighteenth century, excepting such as came over from England and France. It was sometimes attempted here with good effect. One of the best issued in the United States in the last decade of that century was one aimed at Jefferson. It forms a frontispiece to a pamphlet entitled *Observations on the Dispute between the United States and France*, by Robert G. Harper, without date, in possession of the writer. It was probably issued in the summer of 1797, at the time when the public mind was much excited by the publication in American newspapers of Jefferson's letter to Mazzei (which see). It alludes to Jefferson's alleged "infidelity" in theological opinions, and his attachment to the course of the French Revolutionists, who in the "Reign of Terror" had developed into a terrible scourge. Upon an "Altar to Gallic Despotism," entwined by a serpent, before which Jefferson is kneeling in devotion, are laid various papers, so marked as to indicate his lack of orthodoxy in theology—"Godwin," "*Age of Reason*," "J. J. Rousseau," "Helvetius," "Voltaire," and the *Aurora* and *Chronicle*, the two latter Democratic newspapers. Around the altar are seen bags of offerings, marked "Portugal Oranges Bribe," "American Spoliations," "Spain," "Venice," "Sardinia," "Dutch Reserves," "Flanders." Back of these is seen the black demon of the French Revolution, about to seize a dagger. Over all is the American eagle soaring, with a scroll marked "Constitution—Independence—U. S. A." in one talon, which it has snatched from the altar on which Jefferson had placed it, while the other talon is defending the scroll from the enraged worshipper who is trying to seize it. From Jefferson's hand is falling a letter upon which are the words "To Mazzei."



CARICATURE OF JEFFERSON.

Jefferson elected President (1800). The leaders of the two great parties nominated their respective candidates in 1800, the Federalists choosing to be voted for John Adams and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney; the Democrats, Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. There was a breach in the Federal party, owing to extended dislike of Adams, and the Democrats used the Alien and Sedition Laws with powerful effect against him. The Federalists were defeated. Jefferson and Burr had each seventy-three votes in the electoral colleges; and, according to the provisions of the Constitution, the election was carried into the House of Representatives. (See *Election for President and Vice-President*.) There exciting scenes occurred. Two or three members, too sick to appear otherwise, were brought to the house on beds. For seven days the balloting went on. After it was ascertained that a Democrat was elected, the Federalists all voted for Burr, as being less objectionable than Jefferson; but the friends of the latter were stronger than all opposition, and he was elected. The whole Federal party were mortified and humiliated by the triumph of Jefferson, their arch enemy. He was inaugurated March 4, 1801, and appointed James Madison Secretary of State; Henry Dearborn, Secretary of War; Levi Lincoln, Attorney-general; and before the meeting of Congress in December he appointed Albert Gallatin Secretary of the Treasury, and Robert Smith Secretary of the Navy.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Jefferson, THOMAS, LL.D., the third President of the United States, was born at Shadwell, Va., April 2, 1743; died at Monticello, July 4, 1826. He was educated at the College of William and Mary; studied law under George Wythe, and was admitted to the bar in 1767. From 1769 to 1775 Mr. Jefferson was an active member of the Virginia House of Burgesses. In that body he introduced a bill empowering masters to manumit their slaves. On the 1st of January, 1771, he married Martha Skelton, a rich and beautiful young widow of twenty-three. He was a member of the Committee of Correspondence of Virginia, which he assisted in forming, and was engaged in active public life until his retirement from the presidency of the United States in 1809, when he was sixty-four years of age. In 1774 he wrote his famous *Summary View of the Rights of British America*, which, it is believed, procured for him a place in the list of American traitors denounced by the British Parliament. He had taken an active part against the Boston Port Bill (which see). Mr. Jefferson took his seat in the Continental Congress in June, 1775, when he was thirty-two years of age. In that body he served on the most important committees and in drawing up state papers. On the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence, to Mr. Jefferson was assigned the duty of writing that important paper, which he advocated and signed. True to the proclivities of his nature in favor of human liberty, he introduced a clause censuring slavery, which was stricken out. In October, 1776, he retired from Congress to take part in his own state affairs, and for two years and a half he was employed in revising the laws of Virginia and procuring some wise enactments, such as abolishing the laws of primogeniture, giving freedom to convicts, etc. During the entire war for independence Jefferson was very active in his own state, serving as its governor from June, 1779, to 1781. At the time of his retirement from the chair, Cornwallis, invading Virginia, desolated Jefferson's estate at Elk Hill, and he and his family narrowly escaped capture. Mr. Jefferson was again in Congress in 1783, and, as chairman of a committee, reported to that body the definitive treaty of peace with Great Britain. Assisting the suggestions of Gouverneur Morris, he proposed and carried a bill establishing our (present) decimal system of currency. In 1785 he succeeded Dr. Franklin as minister at the French court, where he remained until 1789, when he returned and took a seat in Washington's cabinet as Secretary of State. In France he had published his *Notes on Virginia*, and he had there become thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the French Revolutionists previous to the bloody era of 1793. Not finding at home the same enthusiastic admiration of the French people in their struggle against "the conspiracy of the kings," he became morbidly suspicious of a monarchical party in the United States that might overthrow the government. He formed and led an active party called "Republican" or "Democratic," and there was much acrimonious feeling soon engendered between that and the Federal party, of which Colonel Alexander Hamilton was the active leader. Mr. Jefferson was elected Vice-President of the United States when Washington was elected President a second term. In 1800 he was elected President, and served eight years, retiring in March, 1809, when he withdrew from public life and retired to his seat at Monticello, near Charlottesville, Va. Among the important events of his administration were the purchase of Louisiana, an exploration of the continent from the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean, and difficulties with France and Great Britain on account of their violation of the rights of neutrals. Mr. Jefferson was the founder of the University of Virginia (1819) at Charlottesville, Va., and was its rector until his death, which occurred on the same day, and almost at the same hour, as that on which John Adams died, who was his associate in drafting the Declaration of Independence, and signing it, just fifty years before. Jefferson was a keen politician, though no speaker; a man of great learning and fine scholarly as well as scientific attainments, and in conversation extremely attractive. His house was the resort of learned men of his own country and of Europe. In person he was tall and slender, with sandy hair, florid complexion in his youth, and brilliant gray eyes, a little inclining to brown. He was buried in a family cemetery near his house at Monticello, and over his grave is a granite monument, bearing the inscription, written by himself, and found among his papers after his death, "Here lies buried THOMAS JEFFERSON, author of the Declaration of Independence, of the Statute of Virginia for Religious Freedom, and father of the University of Virginia." Mr. Jefferson regarded slavery as a moral and political evil, and did much to alleviate its hardships. His correspondence with men of all classes was voluminous, for he was a fluent writer and had a very wide acquaintance. Few men have exerted as much influence in establishing the free institutions of the United States as Thomas Jefferson. He adopted for the motto of his private seal that of Oliver Cromwell—"Rebellion to tyrants is obedience to God."

JEFFERSON'S SEAL.

Jefferson's Escape from Tarleton. When, in the early summer of 1781, Cornwallis was overrunning a portion of Virginia, he sent Tarleton with his cavalry to capture the Virginia Assembly sitting at Charlottesville, and also Governor Jefferson, who lived two miles from that place. On the way Tarleton destroyed twelve wagon-loads of clothing intended for Greene's army in North Carolina. Within ten miles of Charlottesville Tarleton detached Captain McLeod, with a party of horsemen, to capture Governor Jefferson at Monticello, while he pressed forward. On his way he captured some members of the Legislature, but when he arrived at Charlottesville the remainder, forewarned, had fled and escaped. McLeod's expedition to Monticello was quite as unsuccessful. Jefferson was entertaining several members of the Legislature, including the presiding officers of both houses, when the British cavalry were seen coming up the winding road towards the mansion. Jefferson immediately sent away his family, while he and the others escaped on horseback. Jefferson had not been gone ten minutes when McLeod rode up and found the house deserted.

Jefferson's Policy. Soon after his inauguration, Jefferson indicated his policy in a letter to Nathaniel Macon, in Congress, as follows: "1. Levees are done away with. 2. The first communication to the next Congress will be, like all subsequent ones, by message, to which no answer will be expected. 3. Diplomatic establishments in Europe will be reduced to three ministers. 4. The compensation of collectors depends on you [Congress], and not on me. 5. The army is undergoing a chaste reformation. 6. The navy will be reduced to the legal establishment by the last of this month [May, 1801]. 7. Agencies in every department will be revived. 8. We shall push you to the uttermost in economizing. 9. A very early recommendation has been given to the Postmaster-general to employ no traitor, foreigner, or Revolutionary Tory in any of his offices." Three days after his inauguration he wrote to Monroe: "I have firmly refused to follow the counsels of those who have desired the giving of offices to some of the Federalist leaders in order to reconcile them. I have given, and will give, only to Republicans under existing circumstances." The doctrine, "To the victor belong the spoils," which has been accepted as orthodox in the politics of our Republic ever since, was then first promulgated.

Jeffries, SIR GEORGE, CONDUCT OF. Sir George Jeffries was Lord Chief-justice of England under Charles II., and was of a bloodthirsty and cruel disposition, delighting in the severe punishment of the enemies of the king. After the rebellion of the Duke of Monmouth (1685) was crushed he held courts in the insurgent districts which are known in history as the "Bloody Assizes." The partisans of Monmouth in arms were full six thousand in number, many of them persons of great respectability. They were brought before the court of the chief-justice by scores. He seemed to delight in convicting and punishing them. He caused three hundred and twenty to be hanged or beheaded, and more than eight hundred to be sold as slaves in the West Indies and Virginia. Many of the latter were given to court favorites that they might sell them on speculation or extort money for their pardon from those who had any to give. In this nefarious business Lord Effingham, Governor of Virginia, engaged; and many men of culture, as well as good mechanics, were sent to Virginia to be sold as slaves, and so added excellent social materials for society in that colony. "Take care," wrote King Charles to Effingham, "that they continue to serve for ten years at least, and that they be not permitted in any manner to redeem themselves by money or otherwise until that term be fully expired." The Assembly refused to make laws to that end; and when, in 1689, the Stuarts were driven from the throne of England, these people were pardoned, and the Virginians received them with open arms as brethren. (See *Slaves, White, in the Colonies*.)

Jenkinson, CHARLES, was an adroit, untiring, and most active politician. He was private secretary to Lord Bute when he was the English premier, and, when he resigned, Jenkinson became the principal Secretary of the Treasury. He was an Oxford scholar, and becoming personally acquainted with George III., when he was Prince of Wales, became devoted to his service. He had great tact in dealing with delicate personal matters, and so was fitted to please all, or, rather, not to offend any. He was chiefly instrumental in pushing forward the English ministry in their schemes for taxing the English-American colonists, and was really the author of Townshend's obnoxious bills and Grenville's Stamp Act. He held a place with Lord North at the Treasury Board in 1768, and was the chief instigator of that minister's bills for asserting the absolute authority of the Parliament over the American colonies.

Jenkinson's Ferry, BATTLE AT. General Steele, at Little Rock, Ark., tried to co-operate with the Red River expedition, but was unable to do so effectually, for he was confronted by a heavy body of Confederates. He started southward (March 23, 1864) with 8000 troops, horse and foot. He was to be joined by General Thayer at Arkadelphia with 5000 men, but this was not then accomplished. Steele pushed on for the purpose of flanking Camden and drawing out Price from his fortifications there. Early in April, Steele was joined by Thayer, and on the evening of the 15th they entered Camden as victors. Seriously menaced by gathering Confederates, Steele, who, by the retreat of Banks (see *Red River Expedition*), had been released from duty elsewhere, moved towards Little Rock. He crossed the Washita on the night of April 26. At Jenkinson's Ferry, on the Sabine River, he was attacked by an overwhelming force led by E. Kirby Smith in person. Steele's troops, though nearly famished, fought desperately during a most sanguinary battle that ensued. Three times the Confederates charged heavily, and were repulsed. The battle was fought by infantry alone, and the Nationals finally drove their adversaries and gained a complete victory. Then they crossed the river and moved on towards Little Rock. In the struggle at Jenkinson's Ferry the Confederates lost over 3000 men, including more than 300 officers. The Nationals lost 700 killed and wounded. Steele's broken army reached Little Rock on May 2.

Jenks, JOSEPH, an early American inventor, was born near London; died at Lynn, Mass., in 1683. He came to America in 1645, and is supposed to have been the first brass-founder on this continent. On May 6, 1648, he secured a patent from the Massachusetts Legislature for a water-mill and for a saw-mill. In 1652 he made the dies, it is said, for the silver coinage — the "pine-tree" money of that province. In 1654 he made a fire-engine for Boston, and in 1655 he received a patent for an improved method of manufacturing scythes. In 1667 he had an appropriation for the encouragement of wire-drawing.

Jersey Prison-ship. (See *Prisons and Prison-ships.*)

Jesuit Missionaries among the Six Nations. There were twenty-four different Jesuit missionaries among the Six Nations between 1657 and 1769. Their names and places of service are as follows: Paul Ragueneau, at Onondaga, from July, 1657, to March, 1658. Isaac Jogues, prisoner among the Mohawks from August, 1642, to August, 1643; a missionary to the same nation in 1646, and killed in October of the same year. Francis Joseph Le Mercier, at Onondaga, from May 17, 1656, to March 20, 1658. Francis Duperon, at Onondaga, from 1657 to 1658. Simon Le Moyne, at Onondaga, July, 1654; with the Mohawks from Sept. 16, 1655, until Nov. 9 of the same year; then again in 1656, until Nov. 5; again there (third time) from Aug. 26, 1657, until May, 1658; at Onondaga, from July, 1661, until September, 1662; ordered to the Senecas in July, 1663, but remained at Montreal. He died in Canada in 1665. Francis Joseph Bressani, a prisoner among the Mohawks from April 30 to Aug. 19, 1644. Pierre Joseph Mary Chaumont, at Onondaga from September, 1655, until March 20, 1658. Joseph Anthony Poncet, was a prisoner among the Iroquois from Aug. 20 to Oct. 3, 1652; started for Onondaga Aug. 28, 1657, but was recalled to Montreal. René Ménard was with Le Mercier at Onondaga from 1656 to 1658, and afterwards among the Cayugas. Julien Garnier, sent to the Mohawks in May, 1668, passed to Onondaga, and thence to the Senecas, and was engaged in this mission until 1683. Claude Dablon, at Onondaga a few years after 1655, and was afterwards among the tribes of the Upper Lakes. Jacques Fremin, at Onondaga from 1656 to 1658; was sent to the Mohawks in July, 1667; left there for the Senecas in October, 1668, where he remained a few years. Pierre Rafeix, at Onondaga from 1656 to 1658; chaplain in Courcelle's expedition in 1665; sent to the Cayugas in 1671, thence to Seneca, where he was in 1679. Jacques Bruyas, sent to the Mohawks, July, 1667, and to the Oneidas in September, where he spent four years, and thence returned to the Mohawks in 1672; was at Onondaga in 1679, 1700, and 1701. Etienné de Carheil, sent to Cayuga in 1668, and was absent in 1671–2; returned, and remained until 1684. Pierre Milet, was sent with De Carheil to the Cayugas in 1668, and left in 1684; was at Niagara in 1688, and was taken prisoner at Cataraqua in 1689. Jean Pierron, was sent to the Mohawks in July, 1667; went among the Cayugas in October, 1668, and was with the Senecas after 1672, where he was in 1679. Jean de Lamberville was at Onondaga in 1671–72; was sent to Niagara in 1687. Francis Boniface was sent to the Mohawks in 1668, and was there after 1673. Francis Vaillant de Gueslis succeeded Boniface among the Mohawks about 1674; accompanied the expedition against the Senecas in 1687; was sent to New York in December, 1687, and to the Senecas in 1703. Pierre de Mareuil was at Onondaga in June, 1709, where he surrendered himself to the English in consequence of war breaking out between the latter and the French, and was courteously treated at Albany. Jacques d'Heu was among the Onondagas in 1708, and the Senecas in 1709. Anthony Gordon, founded St. Regis, in 1769, with a colony from St. Louis. There were two "Sulpicians" as missionaries in northern New York at the middle of the last century —namely, Francis Piquet, who founded Oswegatchie (Ogdensburg) in 1748, and abandoned it in 1760; he was succeeded at Oswegatchie by Pierre Paul Francis de la Garde.

Jesuit Missionaries in Arizona and California. (See *Arizona* and *California.*)

Jesuit Missionary, FIRST, IN OHIO. The northern shores of the Great Lakes were visited by the Roman Catholic missionaries some time before they appeared in the Ohio country. That was about 1747, when Father Armande de la Richardie began a mission temporarily at Sandusky, and made the place his permanent residence in 1751. He was a Jesuit priest. None of the Recollets with La Salle ever visited the southern shores of Lake Erie. It is possible that Father Peter Portier may have made excursions among the Huron camps before him.

Jesuit Missions in North America, EARLY. In 1539, the Society of Jesus, or Jesuits, was established by Ignatius Loyola. Its members were, by its rules, never to become prelates. Their vows were to be poor, chaste, and obedient, and in constant readiness to go on missions against heresy and heathenism. Their grand maxim was, the widest diffusion of influence, and the closest internal unity. Their missions soon spread to every part of the habitable globe then known. They planted the cross in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, and on the islands of the sea; and when Champlain had opened the way for the establishment of French dominion in America, to the Jesuits was assigned the task of bearing the Christian religion to the dusky inhabitants of New France (which see). More persevering and more effective than the votaries of commerce and trade, the Jesuits became the pioneers of discovery and settlements in North America. Their paramount object was the conversion of the heathen and an extension of the Church; their secondary, yet powerful, object was to promote the power and dominion of France in America. Within three years after the restoration of Canada to the French (see *Kirk*, or *Kertk, David*), there were fifteen Jesuit priests in the province (1636). The first most noted Jesuit missionaries were Brébeuf and Daniel, who were bold, aggressive, and self-sacrificing to the last degree. Then came the more gentle Lallemande, who, with others, traversed the dark wilderness with a party of Hurons who lived far to the westward, on the borders of one of the Great Lakes. They suffered incredible hardships and privations—eating the coarsest food, sleeping on the bare earth, and assisting their red companions in dragging their canoes at rough portages. On a bay of Lake Huron they erected the first house of the Society among the North American Indians. That little chapel, which they called the cradle of the Church, was dedicated to St. Joseph, the husband of the Blessed Virgin. They told to the wild children of the forest the story of the love of Christ and his crucifixion, and awed them with the terrors of perdition. For fifteen years Brébeuf carried on his missionary labors among the Hurons, scourging his flesh twice a day with thongs; wearing an iron girdle armed at all points with sharp projections, and over this a bristly hair-shirt, which continually "mortified the flesh;" fasted frequently and long; kept his pious vigils late into the night, and by penitential acts resisted every temptation of the flesh. As missionary stations multiplied in the western wilderness, the central spot was called St. Mary. It was upon the outlet of Lake Superior into Lake Huron. There, in one year, three thousand Indians received a welcome at the hands of the priest. This mission awakened great sympathy in France. Everywhere prayers were uttered for its protection and prosperity. The king sent magnificently embroidered garments for the Indian converts. The pope expressed his approbation, and to confirm and strengthen these missions a college in New France was projected. The pious young Marquis de Gaenache, with the assent of his parents, entered the order of Jesuits, and with a portion of their ample fortune he endowed a seminary for education at Quebec. Its foundation was laid in 1635, just before the death of Champlain. That college was founded two years before the first high seminary of learning was established in the Protestant colonies in America by John Harvard. (See *Harvard College.*) At the same time, the Duchess d'Acquillon, aided by her uncle, Cardinal Richelieu, endowed a public hospital at Quebec, open to the afflicted, whether white or red men, Christians or pagans. It was placed in charge of three young nuns, the youngest twenty-two, and the oldest twenty-nine years of age, who came from Paris for the purpose. (See *Ursuline Convent.*) In 1640, Hochelaga (Montreal) was taken possession of as a missionary station, with solemn religious ceremonies, and the Queen of Angels was petitioned to take the island of Montreal under her protection. Within thirteen years the remote wilderness was visited by forty-two Jesuit missionaries, besides eighteen other devoted men. These assembled two or three times a year at St. Mary's; the remainder of the time they were scattered through the forests in their sacred work. A plan was conceived in 1638 of establishing missions among the Algonquins, not only on the north, but on the south of the Great Lakes, and at Green Bay. The field of labor opened to the view of the missionaries a vast expanse of wilderness, peopled by many tribes, and they prayed earnestly for recruits. Very soon Indians from very remote points appeared at the mission stations. The hostilities of the Five Nations had kept the French from navigating lakes Ontario and Erie; finally, in 1640, Brébeuf was sent to the Neutral Nation (which see) on the Niagara River. The further penetration of the country south of the Lakes was then denied, but a glimpse of the marvellous field soon to be entered upon was obtained. In September and October, 1641, Charles Raymbault and Isaac Jogues penetrated to the Falls of St. Mary, in the strait that forms the outlet of Lake Superior, where they heard of the Sioux. They yearned to penetrate the country of this famous people. This favor was denied the missionaries. Father Raymbault returned to Quebec and died, but Father Jogues was destined to endure many trials and adventures of missionary life. On his way from Quebec to the Hurons he was captured by a roving band of Mohawks, and he who was one of the first to carry the cross into Michigan was now the first to bear it to the villages of the Five Nations. At the villages on the way from the St. Lawrence to the Mohawk domain, Father Jogues was compelled to submit to the horrors of running the gauntlet (which see); yet he never repined, but rejoiced in his tribulations, and was made happy by the conversion, here and there, of one of the savages, whom, on one occasion, he baptized with drops of dew. As he roamed through the forests of the Mohawk valley, he carved the name of Jesus and the figure of a cross on the trees, and with a chant took possession of the country in the name of Christ. He was ransomed by the Dutch at Albany, sailed for France, but soon returned to Canada. Another missionary (Bressari), who suffered horribly, was also ransomed by the Dutch. In the summer of 1646 the Jesuits established a mission among the barbarians of Maine, and so French outposts were established on the Kennebec and the upper lakes fourteen years after these missionary labors were begun. There was then a lull in hostilities between the French and the Five Nations, and Father Jogues went to the Mohawks as ambassador from Canada. His report caused an effort to establish a mission among them, and he alone understanding their language, was sent, but lost his life among the Mohawks, who hung his head upon the palisades of a village, and cast his body into the Mohawk River. In 1648, warriors from the Mohawk valley fell upon the Hurons, and the Jesuit missions among them were destroyed, and priests and converts were murdered after horrible tortures. Finally, in 1654, when peace between the French and the Five Nations had been restored, Father Le Moyne was sent as ambassador to the Onondagas, when he was cheered by the sight of many Hurons holding on to their faith. Le Moyne was allowed to establish a mission in the Mohawk valley. Very soon the Onondagas received Father Dablon and his companions kindly, and chiefs and followers gathered around the Jesuits with songs of welcome. A chapel was built in a day. "For marbles and precious metals," Dablon wrote, "we employed only bark; but the path to heaven is as open through a roof of bark as through arched ceilings of silver and gold." In the heart of barbarian New York the solemn services of the Church of Rome were held as securely as if it were in Paris. Fifty French people settled near the missionary station, and very soon there were Christian laborers among the Cayugas and Oneidas. A change came. War was again kindled, and Jesuits and settlers were obliged to flee from the bosom of the Five Nations. After that, the self-sacrificing Jesuits penetrated the western wilderness to the Mississippi River, carrying the cross as the emblem of their religion, and the lilies of France as tokens of political dominion. In these labors they were assisted by the votaries of commerce. Seeds of civilization were planted here and there, until harvests were beginning to blossom all along the Lakes and the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico. (See *Allonez, Marquette, Joliet, La Salle, Hennepin, Tonti.*) The discoveries of these priests and traders gave to France a claim to that magnificent domain of millions of square miles, extending from Acadia along the St. Lawrence and the Lakes, and the establishment of French dominion in Louisiana, on the borders of the Gulf of Mexico. It has been truthfully said, "The history of these [Jesuit] labors is connected with the origin of every celebrated town in the annals of French America: not a cape was turned or a river entered but a Jesuit led the way."

Jesuits Banished from New York. The Assembly of New York, in 1700, passed an act requiring every "ecclesiastical person receiving his ordination from the Pope or See of Rome," then residing in the province, to depart from it before the 1st of November. It referred to them as "Jesuits and popish priests," and charged them with inciting the Indians to make war on the English, and of seducing them from their allegiance. Massachusetts passed a similar law, and gave the same reasons for it.

Jesup, THOMAS SIDNEY, was born in Virginia in 1788; died in Washington, D. C., June 10, 1860. He entered the army in 1808, and was Hull's adjutant-general in 1813. For his good conduct at the battle of Chippewa he was breveted lieutenant-colonel, also colonel for his services in the battle of Lundy's Lane, or Niagara, in which he was severely wounded. After the war, he was adjutant-general and quartermaster-general of the United States Army (1818) with the rank of brigadier, and was breveted major-general in 1828. In 1836 he was in command of the army in the Creek nation, and at the close of the year he commanded the army in Florida. He was wounded by the Seminoles in January, 1838.

Jews Disfranchised. In 1738, William Smith, the defender of Zenger when tried for libel (see *Zenger's Trial*), and an earnest advocate of the freedom of the press, practically denied the freedom of conscience by obtaining the passage of a law by the Legislature of New York disfranchising the Jews. A few had settled in New Amsterdam, under the liberal rule of the Dutch. In 1733, among emigrants who went to the new colony of Georgia were forty Jews. Fearing to alarm the bigotry of the English public, on whose bounty the trustees depended (see *Georgia, Colony of*), they disclaimed any intention of making it a "Jews' colony," and gave express orders to Oglethorpe not to give them any encouragement. The Jews remained quietly, built a synagogue, and gave many good citizens to Georgia, but they were there disfranchised during the colonial period.

Jogues, ISAAC, a French missionary, was born at Orleans, Jan. 10, 1607; killed at Caughnawaga, N. Y., Oct. 18, 1646. He became a Jesuit at Rouen in 1624; was ordained in 1636; and, at his own request, was immediately sent to Canada. He was a most earnest missionary among the Indians on both sides of the Lakes. Caught, tortured, and made a slave by the Mohawks, he remained with them until 1643, when he escaped to Albany, and was taken to Manhattan. Returning to Europe, he was shipwrecked on the English coast. He returned to Canada in 1646, where he concluded a treaty between the French and the Mohawks. Visiting Lake George, he named it St. Sacrament, and, descending the Hudson River to Albany, he went among the

Mohawks as a missionary, who seized him and put him to death as a sorcerer.

John Adams, CRUISE OF THE. The naval operations on the sea in 1814, though not so important as in the two preceding years in some respects, yet fully sustained the character of the American war-marine. The *John Adams* frigate had been cut down to a corvette of 28 guns in 1813, and was the first that figured after the opening of 1814. She started on a cruise from Washington in January, and on the night of the 18th passed the British blockading squadron in Lynn Haven Bay, put to sea, and ran to the northeast to cross the track of the West India merchantmen. She made a few prizes, and on March 25 she captured the Indiaman *Woodbridge.* While taking possession of her, the commander of the *Adams* (Captain Charles Morris) observed twenty-five merchant-vessels, with two ships of war, bearing down upon her with a fair wind. Morris abandoned his prize, and gave the *Adams* wings for flight from danger. In April she entered the harbor of Savannah for supplies, and on May 5 sailed for the Manilla Reef, to watch for the Jamaica convoy, but the fleet passed her in the night. She gave chase in the morning, but was kept at bay by two vessels of war. She crossed the Atlantic, and on July 3 was off the Irish coast, where she was chased by British vessels, but always escaped. For nearly two months the weather was foggy, cold, and damp, because the ocean was dotted with icebergs. Her crew sickened, and Captain Morris determined to go into port. He entered Penobscot Bay, and was nearly disabled by striking a rock (Aug. 17, 1814), and made his way up the Penobscot River to Hampden. British vessels followed, and to prevent her falling into the hands of his enemy, Morris burned her. (See *Hampden, British at.*)

John Brown's Raid. There seemed to be a peculiar serenity and calmness in the public mind about public affairs in the fall of 1859. The discussions about slavery had almost ceased, the Mormons were quiet, difficulties with Paraguay, S. A., had been amicably settled, troubles with the Indians on the Pacific coast were drawing to a close, and the operations of Walker in Nicaragua were losing much of their interest. It was only the calm that precedes a tempest. Suddenly as a peal of thunder in the genial air of October, a rumor went out of Baltimore that the Abolitionists had seized the government armory and arsenal at Harper's Ferry, at the junction of the Shenandoah and Potomac rivers, and that a general insurrection of the slaves in Virginia was imminent. The rumor was mostly true. John Brown, an enthusiast, fanatical and brave, who had fought pro-slavery men in Kansas, and was known as "Ossawattamie Brown," then in the sixtieth year of his age, had espoused the cause of the Abolitionists (those who advocated the abolition of slavery) in early life, and, filled with zeal for the cause, had suddenly appeared at Harper's Ferry with a few followers, to induce the slaves of Virginia to rise in insurrection and assert their right to freedom. He had come to believe himself to be the destined liberator of the slaves in the Republic. With a few white followers and twelve slaves from Missouri, he went into Canada West, and at Chatham a convention of sympathizers was held in May, 1859, whereat a "Provisional Constitution and Ordinances for the People of the United States" was adopted—not, as the instrument declared, "for the overthrow of any government, but simply to amend and repeal." It was a part of the scheme for promoting the uprising of the slaves. Brown spent the summer of 1859 in preparations for his work. He hired a farm a few miles from Harper's Ferry, where he was known by the name of Smith. One by one his followers joined him there, and stealthily gathered pikes and other weapons, with ammunition, for the purpose of first arming the insurgent slaves of Virginia. On a very dark night, Brown, with seventeen white men and five negroes, stole into the village of Harper's Ferry, put out the street-lights, seized the government armory and the railway-bridge there, and quietly arrested and imprisoned in the government buildings every citizen found in the street at the earlier hours of the next morning, each one ignorant of what else had happened. These invaders had seized Colonel Washington, living a few miles from the Ferry, with his arms and horses, and liberated his slaves; and at eight o'clock on Monday morning, Oct. 17, Brown and his followers (among whom were two of his sons) had full possession of the village and the government works. He had felt assured that when the first blow should be struck the negroes of the surrounding country would rise and flock to his standard, that a general uprising of the slaves throughout the Union would follow, and that he would win the satisfaction and the honors of a great liberator. When asked what was his purpose, and by what authority he acted, he replied, "To free the slaves; and by the authority of God Almighty." News of this affair went swiftly abroad, and before night a large number of Virginia militia had gathered at Harper's Ferry. Struggles between these and Brown's followers ensued, in which the two sons of the former perished. The invaders were finally driven into a fire-engine house, where Brown bravely defended himself. With one son dead by his side and the other shot through the body, he felt the pulse of his dying child with one hand, held his rifle with the other, and issued oral commands to his men with all the composure of a general in his marquee, telling them to be firm, and sell their lives as dearly as possible. They held their citadel until Monday evening, when Colonel Robert E. Lee arrived with ninety United States marines and two pieces of artillery. The doors of the engine-house were forced open, and Brown and his followers were captured. The bold leader was speedily tried for murder and treason, was found guilty (Oct. 29), and on Dec. 3, 1859, was hanged. Meanwhile the wildest tales of the raid had gone over the land. The governor of Virginia (Henry A. Wise) was almost crazy with excitement, and declared himself ready to make war on all the free-labor states; and he declared, in a letter to the President (Nov. 25), that he had authority for the belief that a conspiracy to rescue Brown existed in Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, and other states. Attempts were made to implicate leading Republicans in a scheme for liberating the slaves. A committee of the United States Senate, with James M. Mason, author of the Fugitive Slave Law of 1850, as its chairman, was appointed to investigate the subject. The result was the obtaining of positive proof that Brown had no accomplices, and only about twenty-five followers. Although Brown's mad attempt to free the slaves was a total failure, it proved to be one of the important events which speedily brought about the result he so much desired.

John Paul Jones and the Earl of Selkirk. In 1779, while Jones was cruising up and down the east coast of Scotland, between the Solway and the Clyde, he tried to capture the Earl of Selkirk, in order to secure a notable prisoner for exchange. He had been an early friend of Jones's father. His seat was at the mouth of the Dee; and there, in his boyhood, our hero had gambolled under the shadow of its majestic oaks. He anchored his vessel (the *Ranger*) in the Solway at noon, and with a few men, in a single boat, he went to a wooded promontory on which the earl's fine estate lay, where he learned that his lordship was not at home. Disappointed, he ordered his men back to the boat, when his lieutenant, a large and fiery man, proposed to go to the mansion and plunder it of the family plate. Jones would not listen to the proposition, for the memory of old associations made his heart tender towards Lady Selkirk, who had been very kind to him. Again he ordered his men back, but they and the lieutenant, eager for prize-money, in defiance of his expostulations, went to the house and demanded the plate. The frightened Lady Selkirk surrendered it with her own hands. When the prizes of the *Ranger* were sold, Jones bought this plate, and sent it back to Lady Selkirk with a letter in which he expressed his regret because of the annoyance she had suffered.

John the Painter. While Silas Deane, commissioner of the Continental Congress, was in Paris (1777), a stranger, advanced in years, called upon him one day, and requested a strictly private interview. It was granted, when the stranger told Deane that he was a native of Scotland, but was an American citizen, and had lived at Amboy, in New Jersey, where he had a comfortable house. The British troops stationed there, suspecting him of being a Whig, had greatly abused him, and finally burned his house to ashes. He told Deane he had resolved on revenge; that he had determined to kill King George, and had come to Europe for the purpose. He had been to England, had laid his plans, and was ready to execute them. He thought it right to acquaint Deane, the United States minister, with his scheme. He said he passed by the name of "John the Painter." Mr. Deane opposed the assassination of the king as cowardly and unjust. He was innocent of wrong in the matter. If he must have revenge, he should take it in a manly, generous way; he should go into the American army, and meet his enemy as a soldier, and not as a vulgar assassin; and if he could so meet King George, at the head of his army, he could kill him with propriety. It would be lawful to so kill his generals. The man was finally persuaded by Deane to abandon his regicidal plan, and left. He soon returned, thanked Deane for persuading him not to lay violent hands on "the Lord's Anointed," and said he was determined to seek revenge by burning the naval stores at Portsmouth, England. Deane said that would tend to weaken the enemy in carrying on the war, and was legitimate business. He was astonished at the wisdom of the man's plans. He warned him, however, that if he should be caught his life would pay the penalty of his crime. "I am an old man," said "John the Painter," "and it matters little whether I die now or five years hence." He borrowed a guinea from Deane, and crossed the channel. At Portsmouth he took lodgings at the house of a very poor woman on the outskirts of the town. While he was absent, she had the curiosity to examine a bundle which he had brought with him. It contained some clothing and a tin box, with some sort of a machine inside. John wanted a top to it, and had one made by a tinman. The same evening the naval storehouses were fired by this "infernal machine," and $500,000 worth of property was destroyed. Strict search was made for the incendiary in the morning at every house in the town. The old woman told them of John the Painter and his mysterious tin box. The tinman reported making a top for it. John was fixed upon as the incendiary. Not doubting he had been sent by the enemy for the purpose, and that relays of horses had been furnished for his escape, horsemen were sent out on every road, with orders to pursue any person they should find riding very fast. John, meanwhile, was trudging on foot towards London. Men came up to him and asked him if he had seen any person riding post-haste. "Why do you inquire?" asked John. He was properly answered, when John told the pursuers they were mistaken, for he—"John the Painter"—was the incendiary, and gave them his reasons for the act. They took him back to Portsmouth, where he was recognized by the old woman and the tinman. He candidly told them that he should certainly have killed the king had not Mr. Deane dissuaded him, and that he was revenged, and was ready to die. He was tried, condemned, and hung. A false and unfair account of his trial was published, and no mention was made of Mr. Deane's having saved the life of the king. The *Gentleman's Magazine* for 1777 contains the English account of the affair, with a portrait. The above is compiled from manuscript notes made from the lips of Deane by Elias Boudinot.

Johnson, Andrew, LL.D., seventeenth President of the United States, was born at Raleigh, N. C., Dec. 29, 1808. He learned the trade of a tailor, and taught himself to read. After working as a journeyman in South Carolina, he went to Greenville, Tenn., taking with him his mother, who was dependent on him. There he worked at his trade, married, and was taught by his wife how to write; became alderman and mayor, a member of the Legislature (1832–33 and 1839), presidential elector (1840), state senator in 1841, and member of Congress from 1843 to 1853. From 1853 to 1857 he was governor of Tennessee, and United States Senator from 1857 to 1863. In 1862 he was appointed military governor of Tennessee, and in 1864 was elected Vice-President of the United States. He succeeded Mr. Lincoln as President in 1865; kept up a continual warfare with Congress; was impeached, but acquitted, in 1868, and retired from office in 1869. He received the degree of LL.D. from the University of North Carolina in 1866, and died in Carter County, Tenn., July 31, 1875.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

Johnson, Fort, Destruction of. On the Cape Fear River, not far from Wilmington, was a fortification called Fort Johnson. To it the royal governor (Joseph Martin) of North Carolina fled (June 14, 1775) when the indignant people began to rise in rebellion against royal rule. From that stronghold he sent forth a menacing proclamation, and soon afterwards preparations for a servile insurrection were discovered. The rumor went abroad that Martin had incited the slaves. The exasperated people determined to drive him from the fort and demolish it. A body of five hundred men, led by John Ashe and Cornelius Harnett, marched to the fort. Martin had fled on board a British vessel of war in the river. The munitions of war had all been removed on board of a transport, and the garrison also had fled. The people burned the barracks and demolished the walls.

Johnson, Guy, was born in Ireland in 1740; died in London, March 5, 1788. He married a daughter of Sir William Johnson, and in 1774 succeeded him as Indian Agent. He served against the French from 1757 to 1760. At the outbreak of the Revolution he fled to Canada, and thence went with the British troops who took possession of New York city in September, 1776; he remained there some time, and became manager of a theatre. He joined Brant, and participated in some of the bloody outrages in the Mohawk valley. In 1779 he fought with the Indians against Sullivan. (See *Sullivan's Campaign.*) His estates were confiscated.

Johnson, Reverdy, a distinguished lawyer, was born at Annapolis, Md., May 21, 1796; died there, Feb. 10, 1876. He was admitted to the bar in 1815. After serving two terms in his State Senate, he was United States Senator from 1845 to 1849, when he became United States Attorney-general under President Taylor. Mr. Johnson was a delegate to the Peace Convention (which see); United States Senator from 1863 to 1868; and minister to Great Britain in 1868–69, negotiating a treaty which was rejected by the United States Senate.

Johnson, Richard Mentor, was born at Bryant's Station, Ky., Oct. 17, 1781; died at Frankfort, Ky., Nov. 19, 1850. He graduated at Transylvania University, became a lawyer and state legislator, and raised a regiment of cavalry in 1812. With them he served under Harrison, and was in the battle of the Thames in 1813, where he was dangerously wounded. From 1807 to 1819 and 1829 to 1837 he was a member of Congress. He was United States Senator from 1819 to 1829, and Vice-President of the United States from 1837 to 1841.

Johnson, Richard W., was born in Livingston County, Ky., Feb. 7, 1827, and graduated at West Point in 1849. He was a captain of cavalry in the Civil War until August, 1861, when he was made lieutenant-colonel of a Kentucky cavalry regiment. In October he was made a brigadier, and served under Buell. In the summer of 1862 he commanded a division of the Army of the Tennessee, and afterwards had the same command in the Army of the Cumberland. In the battles at Stone's River and near Chickamauga, and in the Atlanta campaign he was a most useful officer. He was severely wounded at New Hope Church, and commanded a division of cavalry in the battle of Nashville, in December, 1864. He was breveted major-general in the United States Army for "gallant services during the war," and retired with full rank in October, 1867.

Johnson, Samuel, LL.D., was born at Dundee, Scotland, Dec. 15, 1733; died near Edenton, N. C., Aug. 18, 1816. He was brought to North Carolina by his father when he was three years of age, and was in civil office there under the crown until he espoused the cause of the patriots. In 1773 he was one of the North Carolina Committee of Correspondence and an active member of the Provincial Congress. He was chairman of the Provincial Council in 1775, and during 1781–82 was in the Continental Congress. In 1788 he was governor of the state, and presided over the convention that adopted the national Constitution. From 1789 to 1793 he was United States Senator, and from 1800 to 1803 was judge of the Supreme Court.

Johnson, Sir John, son of Sir William, was born in 1742; died in Montreal, Jan. 4, 1830. He was a stanch loyalist, and in 1776 the Whigs tried to get possession of his person. He fled to Canada with about seven hundred followers, where he was commissioned a colonel, and raised a corps chiefly among the loyalists of New York, known as the Royal Greens. He was among the most active and bitter foes of the patriots. While investing Fort Stanwix (or Schuyler), in 1777, he defeated General Herkimer at Oriskany (which see), but was defeated himself by General Van Rensselaer in 1780. After the war Sir John went to England, but returned to Canada, where he resided as Superintendent of Indian Affairs until his death. He married a daughter of John Watts, a New York loyalist.

Johnson, THOMAS, was born in Calvert County, Md., in 1732; died at Rose Hill, near Frederickton, Oct. 26, 1819. He was an eminent lawyer, and was chosen a delegate to the Second Continental Congress in 1775. He had the honor of nominating George Washington for the position of commander-in-chief of the Continental armies. He was chosen governor of the new State of Maryland in 1777, and was Associate-justice of the Supreme Court of the United States from 1791 to 1793, when he resigned. He was offered the position of Chief-justice of the District of Columbia in 1801, but declined it.

Johnson, WILLIAM, born in Meath County, Ireland, in 1715; died near Johnstown, N. Y., July 11, 1774. He was educated for a merchant, but an unfortunate love affair changed the tenor of his life. He came to America in 1738 to take charge of landed property of his uncle, Admiral Sir Peter Warren, in the region of the Mohawk valley, and seated himself there, about twenty-four miles west of Schenectady, engaging in the Indian trade. Dealing honestly with the Indians and learning their language, he became a great favorite with them. He conformed to their manners, and, in time, took Mary, a sister of Brant, the famous Mohawk chief, to his home as his wife. When the French and Indian War broke out Johnson was made sole superintendent of Indian affairs, and his great influence kept the Six Nations steadily from any favoring of the French. He kept the frontier from injury until the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). In 1750 he was a member of the Provincial Council. He withdrew from his position of Superintendent of Indian Affairs in 1753, and was a member of the convention at Albany in 1754. He also attended grand councils of the Indians, and was adopted into the Mohawk tribe and made a sachem. At the council of governors, convened by Braddock at Alexandria in 1755, Johnson was appointed "sole superintendent of the Six Nations," created a major-general, and led an expedition intended for the capture of Crown Point. (See *Crown Point, Expedition against.*) The following year he was knighted, and the king gave him the appointment of Superintendent of Indian Affairs in the North; he was also made a colonial agent. He continued in the military service during the remainder of the war, and was rewarded by his king with the gift of one hundred thousand acres of land north of the Mohawk River, which was known as "Kingsland," or the "Royal Grant." Johnson first introduced sheep and blooded horses into the Mohawk valley. Sir William Johnson married a German girl, by whom he had a son and two daughters; also eight children by Mary (or Mollie) Brant, who lived with him until his death. Sir William lived in baronial style and exercised great hospitality.

WILLIAM JOHNSON.

Johnson, WILLIAM SAMUEL, LL.D., D.C.L., F.R.S., was born in Stratford County, Conn., Oct. 7, 1727; died Nov. 14, 1819. He graduated at Yale College in 1744; became a lawyer, and was distinguished for his eloquence. He was a delegate to the "Stamp Act Congress" (which see), and for five years (from 1766 to 1771) he was agent for Connecticut in England. He corresponded with the eminent Dr. Johnson several years. He was a judge of the Supreme Court of Connecticut and a commissioner for adjusting the controversy between the proprietors of Pennsylvania and the Susquehanna Company. Judge Johnson was in Congress (1784 to 1787), and was also a member of the convention that framed the national Constitution, in which he was the first to propose the organization of the Senate as a distinct branch of the national Legislature. He was United States Senator from 1789 to 1791, and, with his colleague, Oliver Ellsworth, drew up the bill for establishing the judiciary system of the United States. He was President of Columbia College from 1787 to 1800.

Johnsons, THE INFLUENCE OF THE, in the Mohawk region, gave the Whigs much annoyance, and finally became a scourge. Sir William died just as the war for independence was kindling, and his mantle of partisanship against the Republicans was worn by his son and successor, Sir John Johnson. Equally strong in his opposition to the Whigs was a son-in-law of Sir William, Guy Johnson, who succeeded him as Superintendent of Indian Affairs, having been long his deputy. Guy had such influence over the Indians, that, in July, 1775, a large body of the Mohawks, notwithstanding their solemn promise of neutrality, followed him to Montreal, and, in the presence of Governor Carleton, pledged an oath of allegiance to the crown, and took up the hatchet against the Republicans. Sir John Johnson had many retainers on his domain, who were Scotch Highlanders, and were all Tories. Suspected of disaffection to the patriot cause, General Schuyler had watched him closely and taken his word of honor to refrain from hostilities. Satisfied that he would not be faithful, Schuyler required him to give his parole (January, 1776) to that effect. This sat so lightly that, in May, Schuyler sent a force under Colonel Elias Dayton to arrest him. The baronet retired to the forests between the Mohawk and the Sacandaga, with his Tory retainers, and soon afterwards they made their way to Canada. In wretched plight, after great suffering in the wilderness, they reached the St. Lawrence, some distance above Montreal, when Sir John was commissioned a colonel in the British service. He raised two battalions, including one thousand men composed of his Highlanders and other Tories, and named his corps "The Royal Greens." With these and Indian followers, Sir John carried on a distressing partisan warfare, mostly in the valley of the Mohawk.

Johnston, Albert Sidney, was born in Mason County, Ky., in 1803; killed in the battle of Shiloh (which see), April 6, 1862. He graduated at West Point in 1826; served in the Black Hawk War, and resigned in 1834. He entered the Texan army as a private in 1836 and was soon made a brigadier, and in 1838 became commander-in-chief of the army and Secretary of War. He retired to private life in Texas. He served in the war with Mexico, and became paymaster in the United States Army in 1849. In 1860–61 he commanded the Pacific Department, and, sympathizing with the Secessionists, he was superseded by General Sumner and entered the Confederate service, in command of the Division of the West. At his death, in the battle of Shiloh, General Beauregard succeeded him.

Johnston, Bushrod R., was born in Ohio, Sept. 6, 1817, and graduated at West Point in 1840. He served in the Florida and Mexican wars, and was professor of mathematics in military academies in Kentucky and Tennessee. He joined the Confederate army in 1861, and was made a brigadier-general early in 1862; was captured at Fort Donelson (which see), but soon afterwards escaped; was wounded in the battle of Shiloh, and was made major-general in 1864. He was in command of a division in Lee's army that surrendered at Appomattox Court-house.

Johnston, General J. E., Surrender of. With the surrender of Lee (which see), the Civil War was virtually ended. Although he was general-in-chief, his capitulation included only the Army of Northern Virginia. That of Johnston, in North Carolina, and smaller bodies, were yet in the field. When Sherman, who confronted Johnston, heard of the victory at the Five Forks (which see) and the evacuation of Petersburg and Richmond, he moved on Johnston (April 10, 1865) with his whole army. The latter was at Smithfield, on the Neuse River, with full thirty thousand men. Jefferson Davis and the Confederate cabinet were then at Danville, on the southern border of Virginia, playing "Government," and had just proposed to Johnston a plan whereby they might secure their own personal safety and the treasures they had brought with them from Richmond. It was to disperse his army, excepting two or three batteries of artillery, the cavalry, and as many infantry as he could mount, with which he should form a guard for the "Government," and strike for the Mississippi and beyond, with Mexico as their final objective. Johnston spurned the proposition, and, deprecating the bad example of Lee in continuing what he knew to be a hopeless war, had the moral courage to do his duty according to the dictates of his conscience and his nice sense of honor. He refused to fight any more, or to basely desert his army far away from their homes, as the "Government" proposed, and stated frankly to the people of North and South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, included within his military department, that "war could not be longer continued by them except as robbers," and that he should take measures to stop it and save the army and people from further evil, and "avoid the crime of waging a hopeless war." Sherman was pushing Johnston with great vigor, when the former received a note from the latter (April 14, 1865), asking if a temporary suspension of active hostilities might be arranged to allow the "civil authorities to enter into the needful arrangements to terminate the existing war." Sherman promptly replied that he would do so, and was willing to hold a conference. He said that, as a basis of action, he would undertake to abide by the terms made by Grant and Lee at Appomattox Court-house. Sherman and Johnston met at Durham's Station, half-way between Raleigh and Hillsborough, at ten o'clock, April 17. Johnston said he regarded the Confederate cause as lost, and admitted that Grant's terms were magnanimous (see *Lee's Surrender*); but he insisted upon conditions involving political guarantees, which Sherman had no authority to grant. At a second conference the next day Sherman consented to a memorandum of agreement as a basis for the consideration of the government, which, if carried out, would have instantly restored to all persons engaged in the rebellion every right and privilege, social and political, which they had enjoyed before the war, without any liability of punishment. It was adroitly drawn up by Breckinridge, and was signed by the respective commanding generals. The national government instantly rejected it, and General Grant was sent to Raleigh to declare that rejection, which he did April 24, and proclaimed that the truce would end in forty-eight hours. This notification was accompanied by a demand for the surrender of Johnston's army, on the terms granted to Lee. The capitulation was agreed upon at the house of James Bennett, near Durham's Station, April 26. About twenty-five thousand troops were surrendered. The capitulation included all the troops in Johnston's military department. General Taylor surrendered at Citronelle, Ala., to General Canby, on the same terms, and the Confederate navy on the Tombigbee River was surrendered by Commander Farrand to Rear-admiral Thatcher. Wade Hampton, of Johnston's surrendered forces, refused to comply with the terms, and dashed off with a considerable body of cavalry towards Charlotte, to follow the fortunes of Jefferson Davis.

PLACE OF JOHNSTON'S SURRENDER TO SHERMAN.

Johnston, JOSEPH ECCLESTON, was born in Prince Edward County, Va., in February, 1807; graduated at West Point in 1829, and entered the artillery. He served in the war with the Florida Indians, and in the war with Mexico, in which he was twice wounded. He became lieutenant-colonel of cavalry in 1855, and quartermaster-general, with the rank of brigadier, in June, 1860. He joined the insurgents in the spring of 1861, and became a general in the Confederate army. He was in command at the battle of Bull's Run, and fought gallantly on the Virginia Peninsula, until wounded at the battle of Fair Oaks, or Seven Pines (1862), when he was succeeded by Lee. He was in command in the Mississippi valley, where he opposed Grant and Sherman. He was also in command during the Atlanta campaign in 1864 until July, when he was superseded by General Hood. In 1865 he was in command in the Carolinas, and surrendered his army to Sherman April 26, 1865.

JOSEPH ECCLESTON JOHNSTON.

Johnstone's Attempt at Bribery (1778). One of the British peace commissioners, in 1778, was George Johnstone, an advocate of the Americans in the House of Commons, and who brought letters of introduction to Robert Morris, Joseph Reed, and other leading patriots. Finding the commissioners could do nothing, officially, with Congress, Johnstone attempted to gain by bribery what could not be acquired by diplomacy. To Morris and others he wrote letters, urging the expediency of making arrangements with the government, and suggesting, in some of his letters, that those persons who should be instrumental in bringing it about would not fail of high honors and rewards from the government. An American lady in Philadelphia, whose husband was in the British service, and who was a relative of Ferguson, the secretary of the commission, was induced by Johnstone to approach Joseph Reed with a proposition. Mrs. Ferguson was a daughter of Dr. Græme, of Pennsylvania, a bright woman, in whose prudence and patriotism the Whigs had such confidence that the interchange of visits among them and the Tories never led to a suspicion that she would betray the cause of her country. Johnstone made her believe he was a warm friend of the Americans, and he entreated her to go to General Reed and say to him that if he could, conscientiously, exert his influence in bringing about a reconciliation, he might command $50,000 and the highest post in the government. "That," said Mrs. Ferguson, "General Reed would consider the offer of a bribe." Johnstone disclaimed any such intention, and Mrs. Ferguson carried the message to Reed as soon as the British left Philadelphia. Reed indignantly replied, "I am not worth purchasing, but, such as I am, the King of England is not rich enough to do it." These facts being made known to Congress, resolutions were passed (Aug. 11, 1778) accusing the commissioner of an attempt at bribery and corruption, and declining to hold any further communication with him. (See *Ferguson, Elizabeth Græme.*)

Joint High Commission. The government of the United States, in behalf of its citizens, claimed from Great Britain damages inflicted on the American shipping interests by the depredations of the *Alabama* (which see) and other Anglo-Confederate cruisers. To effect a peaceful solution of the difficulty, Reverdy Johnson, of Maryland, was sent to England in 1868 to negotiate a treaty for that purpose. His mission was not satisfactory. The treaty which he negotiated was almost universally condemned by his countrymen, and was rejected by the Senate. His successor, J. Lothrop Motley, appointed minister at the British court, was charged with the same mission, but failed in that particular, and was recalled in 1870. The matter was finally settled by arbitration. Much correspondence succeeded the efforts to settle by treaty. Finally, in January, 1871, the British minister at Washington (Sir Edward Thornton), in a letter to Secretary Fish, proposed, under instructions from his government, a Joint High Commission, to be appointed by the two governments, respectively, to settle disputes of every kind between the United States and Great Britain, and so establish a permanent friendship between the two nations. Mr. Fish proposed that the commission should embrace in its inquiries the matter of the "Alabama Claims," so that nothing should remain to disturb amicable relations. The suggestion was approved, and each government appointed commissioners. The President appointed for the United States Hamilton Fish, Secretary of State; Samuel Nelson, Associate-justice of the United States Supreme Court; R. C. Schenck, Minister to England; E. Rockwood Hoar, late United States Attorney-general, and G. H. Williams, United States Senator from Oregon. Queen Victoria appointed George Frederick Samuel, Earl de Grey and Earl of Ripon; Sir Stratford Henry Northcote; Sir Edward Thornton, her representative at Washington; Sir Alexander McDonald, of the Privy Council of Canada and Attorney-general of that province; and Montague Bernard, Professor of International Law in Oxford University. The commissioners first met in Washington, Feb. 27, 1871. Lord Tenterden, secretary of the British commission, and J. C. Bancroft Davis, Assistant Secretary of State of the United States, were chosen clerks of the Joint High Commission. The commissioners of the United States were instructed to consider: 1. The fisheries; 2. The navigation of the St. Lawrence River; 3. Reciprocal trade between the United States and the Dominion of Canada; 4. The Northwest water boundary and the island of San Juan; 5. The claims of the United States against Great Britain for compensation for injuries committed by Confederate cruisers; 6. Claims of British subjects against the United States for losses and injuries arising out of acts committed during the Civil War. A treaty was agreed to, and was signed May 8, 1871, which provided for the settlement, by arbitration, by a mixed commission, of all claims on both sides for injuries by either government to the citizens of the other, during the Civil War, and for the permanent settlement of all questions in dispute between the two nations. Arbitrators were appointed, who, at Geneva, Switzerland, formed what was known as the "Tribunal of Arbitration," and reached a decision in which both parties acquiesced. (See *Tribunal of Arbitration*.)

Joliet, Louis, was one of the discoverers of the Mississippi River. He was born in Quebec in 1645, where his father was a smith; and died about the year 1700. He was educated at the Jesuit college, in Quebec, and afterwards engaged in the fur-trade in the Western wilderness. In 1673 Intendant Talon, at Quebec, with the sanction of Governor Frontenac, selected him to find and ascertain the direction of the course of the Mississippi and its mouth. Starting from Mackinaw, in May, 1673, with Father Marquette and five other Frenchmen, they reached the Mississippi June 17. (See *Marquette*.) They studied the country on their route, made maps, and gained much information. After intercourse with Indians on the Lower Mississippi, near the mouth of the Arkansas, who had trafficked with Europeans, they were satisfied that the Mississippi emptied into the Gulf of Mexico, and made their way back to Green Bay, where Joliet started alone for Quebec to report to his superiors. His canoe was upset in Lachine Rapids, above Montreal, and his journals and charts were lost, but he wrote out his narrative from memory, which agreed, in essentials, with that of Marquette. Joliet afterwards went on an expedition to Hudson's Bay, in the service of his king, and was rewarded by his sovereign with the appointment of hydrographer to his majesty, and was favored with the seigniory of the island of Anticosti in 1680. La Salle's pretentions denied him the privilege of making explorations in the West.

Joncaire, or Jonquière (Marquis de la), Jacques Pierre de Taffanel, Governor of Canada in 1749–52, was born at La Jonquière, France, in 1686; died in Quebec, May 17, 1752. He entered the navy in 1698, and in 1703 was adjutant in the French Army. He was a brave and skilful officer, and was in many battles. He became captain in the navy in 1736, and accompanied D'Anville in his expedition against Louisburg in 1745. In 1747 he was appointed Governor of Canada, but, being captured by the British, he did not arrive until 1749.

Jones, Jacob, was born near Smyrna, Del., in March, 1768; died in Philadelphia, Aug. 3, 1850. He graduated at the University of Pennsylvania, and entered the navy as a midshipman in 1799. He was an officer of the *Philadelphia*

JACOB JONES.

when she was captured at Tripoli. (See *Philadelphia.*) In 1810 he was made commander, and when the War of 1812–15 broke out he was in charge of the sloop-of-war *Wasp*, in which he gained a victory. (See *Wasp and Frolic.*) He commanded the *Macedonian*, in Decatur's squadron, as post-captain. After the war he commanded the Mediterranean squadron; was a commissioner of the Navy Board; and Governor of the Naval Asylum at Philadelphia.

Jones, John Paul, was born in the parish of Kirkbean, Scotland, July 6, 1747; died in Paris, July 18, 1799. Before he was eighteen years old he commanded a vessel that traded with the West Indies. Jones came to Virginia in 1773, inheriting the estate of his brother, who died there. Offering his services to Congress, he was made first-lieutenant in the navy in December, 1775, when, out of gratitude to General Jones, of North Carolina, he assumed his name. Before that he was John Paul. He was a bold and skilful sea-rover, gathering up many prizes. Made captain in the fall of 1776, he, in the *Alfred*, destroyed the Port Royal (N. S.) fisheries, capturing all the vessels and freight. In the summer of 1777 he sailed in the *Ranger* to Europe, and in February, 1778, received from a French commander the first salute ever given to the American flag by a foreign man-of-war. In April he scaled the walls of Whitehaven, in England, on the borders of the Irish Sea, and spiked thirty-eight cannons. Cruising to intercept the Baltic fleet, he fell in with British men-of-war and had a desperate fight, winning a victory (September, 1779), his vessel being the *Bonhomme Richard*. (See *Bonhomme Richard and Serapis.*) Congress gave him a gold medal and a commission as commander of the *America*, which ship was soon presented to France. Jones entered the service of Russia as rear-admiral in 1787, and, in consequence of a victory over the Turks, he was made vice-admiral and knighted. On his death in Paris the National Assembly decreed him a public funeral. It is not known where in Paris he was buried.

JOHN PAUL JONES.

Jones, Thomas Ap Catesby, was born in Virginia in 1789; died at Georgetown, D. C., May 30, 1858. He entered the navy in 1805. From 1808 to 1812 he was engaged in the Gulf of Mexico in the suppression of piracy, smuggling, and the slave-trade. He fought the British flotilla on Lake Borgne (which see) late in 1814, when he was wounded and made captive. He commanded the Pacific squadron in 1842.

Jonesborough, Battle at. Sherman began his flanking when he raised the siege of Atlanta (which see), on the night of Aug. 25, 1864. General Slocum, with the Twentieth Corps, proceeded to the protection of the sick, wounded, and stores near the Chattahoochee, and Howard and the rest of the army moved for the West Point Railway. General Stanley's corps was on the extreme left, and the armies of Howard, Thomas, and Schofield pressed forward so secretly that Hood was not informed of the movement until the Nationals were destroying that road. This was done (Aug. 28) for twelve miles, and the next day they struck the Macon road. Schofield reached the road at Rough-and-Ready Station, ten miles from Atlanta. Thomas struck it at Couch's; and Howard, crossing the Flint River half a mile from Jonesborough, approached it at that point. There he was met by one half of Hood's army, under Hardee. With the remainder Hood was holding the defences of Atlanta, but he was too weak to attempt to strike Schofield. There was a severe fight at the passage of the Flint River, on the morning of Aug. 31, between the forces of Howard and Hardee. Howard's army was disposed with Blair's corps in the centre, and rude breastworks were cast up. The contest was renewed very soon, when Hardee attempted to crush Howard before he could receive reinforcements. He failed. The Nationals thus attacked were veterans. For two hours there was a desperate strife for victory, which was won by Howard. Hardee recoiled, and in his hasty retreat left four hundred of his dead on the field and three hundred of his badly wounded at Jonesborough. His loss was estimated at twenty-five hundred men. Howard's loss was about five hundred. Meanwhile Sherman had sent relief to Howard. Kilpatrick and Garrard were very active, and General Davis's corps soon touched Howard's left. At four o'clock in the afternoon Davis charged and carried the Confederate works covering Jonesborough on the north, and captured General Govan and a greater part of his brigade. In the morning Hardee had fled, pursued by the Nationals to Lovejoy's.

Juarez, Benito, President of Mexico, was born in Villa Ixtlan, Oaxaca, in 1807; died in the city of Mexico, July 18, 1872. He was descended from the ancient Indian race. Well educated, he gained distinction as a lawyer. He was a legislator, and was governor of his native state from 1848 to 1852. Banished by Santa Aña in 1853, he lived in New Orleans until 1855, when he returned, and became minister of justice. Experiencing the vicissitudes of public life in that country, he was elected President of Mexico in June, 1861. Then came the

French usurpation and the short-lived empire of Maximilian (which see). He defeated the imperial forces in 1867, and caused the emperor to be shot. In October Juarez was re-elected President, and for five years Mexico was distracted by revolutions. Peace was restored in 1872, but Juarez, then President, worn down with perplexities, died of apoplexy.

Judges, APPOINTMENT OF. In the states of Connecticut and Rhode Island the judges were appointed annually by the assemblies. In Georgia the chief-justice was appointed in the same way, the county judges being elected annually by the people. In New Jersey, Delaware, and Pennsylvania the judges were appointed by the Assembly for a term of seven years. In the other states they were to hold their office during good behavior. The justices of the peace, as in colonial times, were invested with a jurisdiction as judges in the first instance for the smallest class of civil cases.

Judge's Mission at Washington. The authorities of Alabama sent Thomas J. Judge to "negotiate with the government of the United States in reference to the forts, arsenals, and custom-houses" in that state, and "the debt of the United States." He was introduced by Clement C. Clay, Jr., then sitting in the Senate of the United States, who expressed a wish that when Judge should have an audience he should present his credentials and enter upon the proposed negotiations. The President refused to receive him only as a private gentleman, as he had done Hayne, of South Carolina (see *Hayne's Mission*), and the State of Alabama withdrew in the person of Mr. Judge.

Judicial Kidnapping. In the reign of James II. (1685–88) officers of the crown in England carried on a traffic with the American colonies more profitable than the African slave-trade. Young persons, as well as felons, were extensively arrested, hurried across the Atlantic, and sold in the colonies for money. This kidnapping became common in Bristol, where the mayor, the sheriff, and justices of the peace were engaged in it. They would threaten small rogues and pilferers with hanging, and, inspired by the terror of such a fate, would petition for transportation as the only avenue for safety. Then they would be divided among the members of the court, who sold these criminals to planters in America.

Judiciary, NATIONAL, FIRST ESTABLISHED. While the House of Representatives of the First Congress was employed (1789) in providing means for a sufficient revenue, the Senate was busy in organizing a judiciary. A bill drafted by Oliver Ellsworth, of Connecticut, which embodied a plan of a judiciary, was, after several amendments, adopted by both Houses and became a law. It provided for a Supreme Court, having one chief-justice and five associate-justices, who were to hold two sessions annually at the seat of the national capital. Circuit and district courts were also established, which had jurisdiction over certain specified cases. Each state was made a district, as were also the territories of Kentucky and Maine. The districts, excepting Kentucky and Maine, were grouped together into three circuits. An appeal from these lower courts to the Supreme Court of the United States was allowed, as to points of law, in all civil cases where the matter in dispute amounted to two thousand dollars. A marshal for each was to be appointed by the President, having the general powers of a sheriff; and a district attorney, to act for the United States in all cases in which the national government might be interested, was also appointed. John Jay was made Chief-justice of the United States.

Judiciary, SUBVERSION OF THE, IN AMERICA. The judges in the colonies had always been appointed to hold office "during good behavior." The custom was abolished in 1761. The British government could not comprehend the justice of equality of political rights between England and the colonies, and on Nov. 18, about a month after Pitt's retirement from office, the Board of Trade and Plantations reported to the king that the existing system of appointments was subversive of all true policy and tended to "lessen the just dependence of the colonies upon the government of the mother country." It pleased the king; and on Dec. 9 instructions went forth to all the colonial governments to grant no judicial commissions but "during pleasure." This tenure of judicial offices made the judges creatures of the king's will and instruments of the prerogative. The New York Assembly, regarding this as a step towards absolute despotism, took the strong ground that these later instructions should be changed or they would grant no salary to judges in their province. Colden, in reporting to the Board of Trade, gave the sources of opposition to be three "popular lawyers, educated in Connecticut, who had strongly imbibed the independent principles of that colony, and who calumniated the administration in every exercise of the prerogative, and gained the applause of the mob by propagating the doctrine that all authority is derived from the people." These three lawyers were William Livingston, afterwards Governor of New Jersey; John Morin Scott, leader among the "Sons of Liberty" (which see) in New York; and William Smith, the historian, who, in the revolution that followed, took sides with the crown. In 1762 the Board of Trade recommended, as a means of making the judges still more the creatures of the crown, that they should receive their salaries from the royal quit-rents. The suggestion was adopted. The king, in the royal provinces, instituted courts, named the judges, removed them at pleasure, fixed the amount of their salaries, and paid them out of funds independent of legislative grants.

Judiciary, THE, AUTHORITY OF, QUESTIONED. The three co-ordinate branches of the national government — the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial—were subject to much jealousy, criticism, and opposition at the beginning of the national life of the Republic. The Supreme Court having decided that states were liable to be sued by individuals—citizens of other states—produced much discussion and opposition. A process of that sort was commenced against the State of Massachusetts. When the writ was served on the governor, he called the Legislature together. They resolved to take no notice of the suit, at the same time recommending, by resolution, an amendment to the national Constitution in that particular, which the governor was requested to transmit to the legislatures of other states. The Legislature of Georgia had a similar case before them. They dealt more harshly with the matter. They assumed a posture of defiance to the Supreme Court, and passed an act subjecting to death, without benefit of clergy, any marshal or other person who should presume to serve any process issued against that state at the suit of any individual. The proposition of Massachusetts was favorably responded to, and ultimately prevailed.

Judson, ADONIRAM, D.D., an eminent Baptist missionary at Burmah, was born at Malden, Mass., Aug. 9, 1788; died at sea, April 12, 1850. He graduated at Brown University in 1807, and Andover Theological Seminary in 1810. He was ordained on Feb. 6, 1812, and, with his wife, Anne Hasseltine, sailed for Calcutta on the 19th. In Rangoon, Burmah, he toiled nearly forty years, gathering around him thousands of converts and many assistants, Americans and Burmese. He translated the Bible into the Burmese language, and had nearly completed a dictionary of that language at the time of his death. His wife dying in 1826, he married (April, 1834) the widow of a missionary (Mrs. Sarah H. Boardman), who died in September, 1845. While on a visit to the United States in 1846, he married Miss Emily Chubbuck ("Fanny Forester," the poet), who accompanied him back to Burmah. His first wife, Anne Hasseltine, was the first American feminine missionary in the East Indies.

Junius, LETTERS OF. During the vehement quarrel between Great Britain and her colonies (1765–1775), a series of letters addressed to King George III., his ministers, and other distinguished public men in England, were published in the *Public Advertiser*, and were generally signed "Junius" or "Philo-Junius." In the first authorized collection of these letters there were forty-four by "Junius" and fifteen by "Philo-Junius." They treated of public men and public measures of that day in a style that produced a profound impression and interest in the public mind, and excited the hottest indignation of those who felt the lash. The style was condensed but lucid; full of studied epigrammatic sarcasm, brilliant metaphor, and fierce personal attack. The government and those interested in the matter tried in vain to ascertain the name of the author. It was evident that he was a man of wealth and refinement, and possessing access to minute information respecting ministerial measures and intrigues. The most eminent legal advisers of the crown tried in vain to get a clue to the secret of his identity; and the mystery which has ever since enveloped the name of the author of the letters of "Junius" has kept up an interest in them, which, because of the remoteness of their topics, could not otherwise have been kept alive. Some afterwards claimed their authorship, but without a particle of proof in favor of the claim. The names of more than fifty persons have been mentioned as the suspected authors. An array of facts, circumstances, and fair inferences have satisfied the most careful inquirers that Sir Philip Francis was "Junius." The letters were chiefly written between 1769 and 1772.

K.

Kalb (Baron de), JOHN, was born in Alsace (then a French province, now in Germany), June 29, 1721; died at Camden, S. C., Aug. 19, 1780. He entered the French military service in 1743, and in 1747 rose to the rank of brigadier-general under Marshal Broglie, and obtained the order of military merit in 1761. The next year he visited the English-American colonies as a secret agent of the French government, to ascertain their political temper. He was a brigadier in the French army when (November, 1776) he was engaged by Franklin and Deane to serve in the Continental army. He accompanied Lafayette to America in 1777, and was appointed major-general (Sept. 15, 1777) by the Continental Congress. He served under the immediate command of Washington until after the evacuation of Philadelphia (June, 1778); then in New Jersey and Maryland until April, 1780, when he was sent to assist Lincoln, besieged in Charleston. He arrived too late. De Kalb became chief commander in the south after the fall of Charleston, but was soon succeeded by General Gates, when he became that officer's second in command. In the disastrous battle at Sanders's Creek, near Camden, S. C., he was mortally wounded, and died three days afterwards. De Kalb's body was pierced with eleven wounds. It was buried at Camden. A marble monument was erected to

BARON DE KALB.

his memory in front of the Presbyterian Church at Camden, the corner-stone of which was laid by Lafayette in 1825.

DE KALB'S MONUMENT.

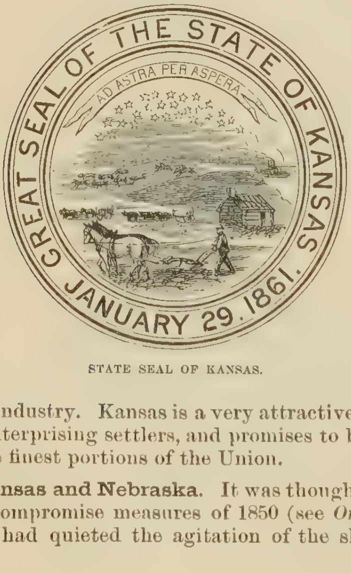
Kane, ELISHA KENT, M.D., was born in Philadelphia, Feb. 3, 1820; died at Havana, Feb. 16, 1857. He was educated at the universities of Virginia and Pennsylvania, taking his medical degree in 1843. Ill-health led to his entering the navy, and he sailed as physician to the embassy to China in 1843. He travelled extensively in Asia and Europe, traversed Greece on foot, explored Western Africa to some extent, was in the war with Mexico, and in May, 1850, sailed as surgeon and naturalist under Lieutenant De Haven, in search of Sir John Franklin. He commanded a similar expedition which sailed from New York in May, 1853. The expedition suffered great hardships, and the survivors returned in October, 1855. They had abandoned their vessel, and had travelled eighty miles on the ice and in boats to a Danish settlement. During that voyage, the open Polar Sea, whose existence was suspected, was discovered. Gold medals were awarded him by Congress, the Legislature of New York, and the Royal Geographical Society of London. But his own life and those of most of his companions were sacrificed. His health failed, and he went first to London and then to Cuba, where he died.

ELISHA KENT KANE.

Kane's Arctic Expedition. Sir John Franklin, an English navigator, sailed on a voyage of discovery and exploration with two vessels, in May, 1845. Years passed by, and no tidings of him or his companions came. Expeditions were sent from England in search of him. Public interest in the fate of Sir John was excited in Europe and America, and in May, 1850, Henry Grinnell, an opulent merchant of New York, fitted out two ships (*Advance* and *Rescue*) and placed them in charge of Lieutenant De Haven, to assist in the benevolent effort. These vessels returned, after remarkable adventures in the polar seas, in the autumn of 1851, without success. In connection with the United States government, the same wealthy merchant fitted out another expedition for the same purpose in 1853. Two vessels, under the command of Dr. Elisha Kent Kane (surgeon of the first expedition) sailed from New York in May. Kane and his party made valuable discoveries, among others, of an "open polar sea," so long suspected and sought for by scientific men and navigators. But they failed to find Sir John Franklin. The companies of these two vessels suffered much, and were finally compelled to abandon the ships and make their way in open boats to a Danish settlement in Greenland. Their long absence created fears for their safety, and a relief expedition was sent in search of them. They returned home in the vessels of the latter in the autumn of 1855. The fate of Sir John Franklin and his crew is yet one of the mysteries of the sea. The object of his search—the discovery of a northwest passage from Europe to India—yet occupies men's minds and the efforts of scientific men and navigators. The search has been going on for more than three hundred years. The question whether there is a water connection in the polar regions between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, or, rather, between Baffin's Bay and Behring's Strait, was solved in October, 1853, by Captain McClure, of the British ship *Investigator.* He passed through Behring's Strait and sailed eastward to a point whence, with sleds, he travelled on the ice to another point eastward, to which Captain Parry and other navigators had penetrated. Before this the mute whale had demonstrated the scientific fact to the satisfaction of naturalists. The same species are found in Behring's Strait and Baffin's Bay; and as the waters of the tropical regions would be like a sea of fire to them, they must have had communication through polar channels. This expedition met with many perils amid the ice-packs in the polar seas, and the vessels were frozen in from late in September, 1850, until May, 1851, during the long six months' night of the Arctic regions. One of the vessels was placed by the currents and the ice-floes in a careening position, and was not released from it until May, 1851, when she was cut out of the ice by the crew.

Kansas was a part of the Louisiana purchase in 1803. (See *Louisiana.*) The territories of Kansas and Nebraska (which see) were established in 1854 by act of Congress, which really repealed the Missouri Compromise Act (which see). This produced great agitation throughout the country, and great commotion among the settlers in Kansas. (See *Kansas, Civil War in.*) On Jan. 29, 1861, Kansas was admitted into the Union as a state. During the war, Kansas furnished to the National Army more than 20,000 soldiers. It is rapidly increasing in population and wealth. Its population in 1876 was about 613,000. Much of the state is a fine grazing country, well supplied with rivers and watered by numerous creeks. On its eastern border the navigable Missouri River presents a water-front of almost one hundred and fifty miles. It has a coal-bearing region which occupies the whole of the eastern part of the state, and embraces about 17,000 square miles. Its climate is beautiful, and, probably, no other Western state has so many bright, sunny days. The rearing of cattle is a prominent industry. Kansas is a very attractive state for enterprising settlers, and promises to be one of the finest portions of the Union.

CUTTING-OUT, MAY, 1851. (See p. 731.)



STATE SEAL OF KANSAS.

Kansas and Nebraska. It was thought that the Compromise measures of 1850 (see *Omnibus Bill*) had quieted the agitation of the slavery question forever. A member from Georgia introduced the following resolution in Congress in 1852: "That the series of acts passed during the first session of the Thirty-first Congress, known as compromises, are regarded as a final adjustment and a permanent settlement of the questions therein embraced, and should be maintained and executed as such." Suddenly the agitation of the slavery question was vehemently aroused. In January, 1854, Senator Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, presented a bill in the Senate for the erection of two vast territories in mid-continent, to be called, respectively, Kansas and Nebraska. It provided for permitting the inhabitants of these territories to decide for themselves whether slavery should or should not exist within their domains. This proposed nullification of the Missouri Compromise (which see) produced rancorous controversies in and out of Congress, and the people of the free-labor states became greatly excited. After long and bitter discussions in both Houses of Congress, the bill was passed, and became a law by receiving the signature of the President, May 31, 1854. From that day the question of slavery was a subject of discussion and sectional irritation, until it was abolished in 1863. The people of the North thought they perceived in this measure a determination to make slavery national, and the boast of Robert Toombs, of Georgia, that he would yet "call the roll of his slaves on Bunker's Hill," seemed likely not to be an illusion.

Kansas, Civil War in. The Kansas-Nebraska Act (see *Kansas and Nebraska*) left all the territories of the United States open to the establishment in them of the social institutions of every state in the Union, that of slavery among others. It was a virtual repeal of the Missouri Compromise (which see). The question immediately arose, Shall the domain of the Republic be the theatre of all *free* or all *slave* labor, with the corresponding civilization of each condition as a consequence? This question was succeeded by positive action by the friends of each labor system. Those in favor of the slave system, viewing the willingness of those of the free-labor states to accede to the wishes of the Southern politicians so as to secure Southern trade, felt confident that their supremacy was secure. That party sounded the trumpet for battle, and the Territory of Kansas was the chosen battle-field. The Fugitive Slave Law (which see) had created an intense and wide-spread feeling of hostility to slavery in the free-labor states, and when the advocates of slavery began to assert their exclusive right to the government of Kansas, and thus cast down the gauntlet before their opponents, the latter gladly took it up. They resolved to carry on the contest with the peaceful weapons of the ballot-box. Suddenly, emigration began to flow in a steady, copious, and ever-increasing stream from the free-labor states, especially from New England, into the new territory. It soon became evident that the settlers from those states in Kansas would soon outnumber and outvote those from the slave-labor states. The dominant power in politics was pro-slavery in its proclivities. Alarmed by this emigration, it proceeded to organize physical force in Missouri to counteract the moral force of its opponents if necessary. Combinations were formed under various names — "Social Band," "Friends' Society," "Blue Lodge," "The Sons of the South," etc. A powerful organization under the title of the "Emigrant Aid Society" had been formed in Boston under the sanction of the Legislature of Massachusetts immediately after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill (May, 1854); and the Southern societies just mentioned were organized to oppose this "Emigrant Aid Society." At a meeting at Westport, Mo., early in July, 1854, it was resolved that Missourians who formed the associations represented there should be ready at all times to assist, when called upon by pro-slavery citizens of Kansas, in removing from the territory by force every person who should attempt to settle under the auspices of the Emigrant Aid Society. Both parties planted the seeds of their respective systems in Kansas. They founded towns: those from the free-labor states founded Lawrence, Topeka, Boston, Grasshopper Falls, Pawnee, and one or two others. Those from the slave-labor states founded Kickapoo, Doniphan, Atchison, and others on or near the Missouri River. Immediately after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, hundreds of Missourians went to Kansas and selected a tract of land, and put a mark upon it for the purpose of establishing a sort of pre-emption title to it, and at a public meeting resolved, "That we will afford protection to no Abolitionist as a settler of this territory; that we recognize the institution of slavery as already existing in this territory, and advise slaveholders to introduce their property as soon as possible." The national government appointed A. H. Reeder governor of the new territory. He arrived in October, 1854, and took measures for the election of a territorial legislature. With the close of this election (March, 1855), the struggle for supremacy in Kansas between the friends and opponents of the slave system began in dead earnest. The pro-slavery men had an overwhelming majority in the Legislature, for Missourians had gone over the border by hundreds and voted. When, in November, 1854, a delegate to Congress for Kansas was elected, of nearly 2900 votes cast, over 1700 were put in by Missourians who had no right there. At the election of the Legislature, there were only 1410 legal votes in the Territory of Kansas; but there were 6218 votes polled, mostly illegal ones by Missourians. Fully 1000 men came from Missouri, armed with deadly weapons, two cannons, tents, and other paraphernalia of war, led by Claiborne F. Jackson (Governor of Missouri in 1860), and encamped around the little town of Lawrence, and in like manner such intruders controlled every poll in the territory. Then a reign of terror was begun in Kansas. All classes of men carried deadly weapons. The illegally chosen Legislature met at a point on the border of Missouri, and proceeded to enact barbarous laws for upholding slavery in the territory. These Governor Reeder vetoed, and they were instantly passed over his veto. He was so obnoxious to the pro-slavery party that, at the request of the latter, President Pierce removed him, and sent Wilson Shannon, of Ohio, to fill his place. The actual settlers in Kansas, who were chiefly anti-slavery men, held a convention (Sept. 5, 1855), when they resolved not to recognize the laws of the illegal Legislature as binding upon them. They refused to vote for a delegate to Congress at an election appointed by the Legislature, and they called a delegate convention at Topeka on Oct. 19. At that convention Governor Reeder was elected delegate to Congress by the legal votes of the territory. On the 23d of the same month, another convention of legal voters assembled at Topeka and framed a state Constitution. It was approved by the legal vote of the territory. It made Kansas a free-labor state, and under this Constitution they asked for admission into the Union, as such. The strife between freedom and slavery was then transferred to the national capital. Reeder made a contest for a seat in Congress with the delegate chosen by the illegal votes. Meanwhile, elections had been held (Jan. 17, 1856) in Kansas under the legally adopted new state Constitution, and matters seemed very dark for the pro-slavery party in Kansas, when President Pierce, in a message to Congress (Jan. 24, 1856), represented the action of the legal voters in the territory in framing a state Constitution as rebellion. All through the ensuing spring violence and bloodshed prevailed in the unhappy territory. Seeing the determination of the actual settlers to maintain their rights, armed men flocked into the territory from the slave-labor states and attempted to coerce the inhabitants into submission to the laws of the illegally chosen Legislature. Finally, Congress sent thither a committee of investigation. The majority reported (July 1, 1856) that every election had been controlled by citizens from Missouri; that the action of the legal voters of Kansas was valid, and that the state Constitution was the choice of the majority of the people. The canvass for a new President was now in operation, and so absorbed public attention that Kansas had rest for a while. James Buchanan was elected by the Democratic party. At the beginning of his administration the Dred Scott case (which see) greatly intensified the strife between the pro-slavery and anti-slavery men, especially in Kansas. Mr. Buchanan favored the views of the pro-slavery men, and his strong support gave them, in Kansas, renewed courage. Then the opposing parties were working with energy for the admission of Kansas as a state, with opposing ends in view. The pro-slavery party, in convention at Lecompton early in September, 1857, framed a Constitution in which was a clause providing that the "rights of property in slaves now in the territory shall in no manner be interfered with," and forbade any amendments of the instrument until 1864. It was submitted to the votes of the people on Dec. 21, but by the terms of the election law passed by the illegal Legislature, no one might vote *against* that Constitution. The vote was taken, "For the Constitution *with* slavery," or "For the Constitution *without* slavery;" so, in either case, a Constitution that protected and perpetuated slavery would be voted for. Meanwhile, at an election for a territorial Legislature, the friends of free-labor were successful, and elected a delegate to Congress. The legally elected Legislature ordered the Lecompton Constitution to be submitted to the people for *adoption* or *rejection.* It was rejected by over 10,000 majority. Notwithstanding this strong popular condemnation of the Lecompton Constitution, President Buchanan sent it in to Congress (Feb. 2, 1858), wherein was a large Democratic majority, with a message in which he recommended its acceptance and ratification. In that message, referring to the opinion of Chief-justice Taney, the President said: "It has been solemnly adjudged, by the highest judicial tribunal known to our laws, that slavery exists in Kansas by virtue of the Constitution of the United States; Kansas is, therefore, at this moment, as much a slave state as Georgia or South Carolina." The Constitution was accepted by the Senate by a vote of thirty-two against twenty-five, but in the House, a substitute offered by Senator John J. Crittenden, of Kentucky, was adopted, which provided for the resubmission of the Lecompton Constitution to the citizens of Kansas. It was done, and that instrument was again rejected by 10,000 majority. The political power in Kansas was now in the hands of the opponents of slavery; and, finally, at the close of January, 1861, that territory was admitted into the Union as a free-labor state, and the thirty-fourth member of the family. During the political excitement in Kansas there was actual civil war, and some blood was shed. Early in April, 1856, armed men from Southern States, under Colonel Buford, arrived in Kansas. The United States marshal there took Buford's men into the pay of the government, and armed them with government muskets. Lawrence was again besieged (May 5), and on the 21st the inhabitants, under a promise of safety to persons and property, were induced to give up their arms to the sheriff. The invaders immediately entered the town, blew up and burned the hotel, destroyed two printing-offices, and plundered stores and houses. The free-labor party were furnished with arms from the free-labor states. Collisions occurred, and on May 26 a fight took place at Ossawatamie, in which the anti-slavery men were led by John Brown, where five men were killed. There was another skirmish at Black Jack (June 2), which resulted in the capture of Captain Pots and thirty of his men. Emigrants from the free-labor states, on their way through Missouri, were turned back by armed parties. On Aug. 14, anti-slavery men captured a fort near Lecompton, occupied by Colonel Titus with a party of pro-slavery men, and made prisoners the commander and twenty of his men. On Aug. 25 the acting-governor (Woodin) declared the territory in a state of rebellion. He and David R. Atchison, late United States Senator from Missouri, gathered a considerable force, and, on Aug. 29, a detachment sent by the latter attacked Ossawatamie, which was defended by a small band under John Brown. The latter was defeated, with the loss of two killed, five wounded, and seven made prisoners. The assailants lost five killed, and thirty buildings were burned. At the annual election at Leavenworth, a party from Missouri killed and wounded several of the anti-slavery men, burned their houses, and forced about one hundred and fifty to embark for St. Louis. J. W. Geary, who had been appointed governor, arrived in Kansas early in September, and ordered all armed men to lay down their weapons; but Missouri men, in number about 2000, and forming three regiments of artillery, marched to attack Lawrence under the command of a member of the Missouri Legislature. Geary, with United States troops, prevailed upon them to desist, and near the close of the year (1856) he was enabled to report that peace and order prevailed in Kansas.

Kansas Indians, TREATY WITH THE. In June, 1825, the Kansas Indians ceded to the United States by treaty all their lands, both within and without the limits of Missouri, excepting a reservation beyond that state, on the Missouri River, about thirty miles square, including their villages. In consideration for this cession, the United States agreed to pay $3500 a year for twenty years; to furnish them immediately with 300 head of cattle, 300 hogs, 500 fowls, three yoke of oxen, and two carts, with such farming utensils as the Indian Superintendent might deem necessary; also a blacksmith, and persons to aid and instruct them in their agricultural pursuits. This was signed by General William Clarke and twelve Kansas chiefs.

Kautz, AUGUSTUS V., was born at Baden, Germany, Jan. 5, 1828. He graduated at West Point in 1852. His parents, who came to America in the year of his birth, settled in Ohio. He was a private in the Ohio volunteers in the war with Mexico. In May, 1861, he was made a captain of cavalry, and did good service as colonel of cavalry in Kentucky, Tennessee, and Virginia. He was most active in the campaign against Petersburg and Richmond in 1864. (See *Kautz's Raids.*) Mustered out of the service in 1866, he became judge-advocate of the military division of the Gulf. In March, 1865, he was breveted major-general for "meritorious services during the Rebellion."

Kautz's Raids. When, early in May, the Army of the James went up the Appomattox, General A. V. Kautz, with three thousand National cavalry, moved from Suffolk, on the south of the James River, to cut the Weldon Railway south of Petersburg, over which Beauregard was sending troops from Charleston to assist

Lee in Virginia. Kautz struck the road at Stony Creek, some distance south of Petersburg, where he burned the railway bridge. Before he reached the road most of Beauregard's forces had passed over it, and filled the city of Petersburg with armed men. Kautz made a circuit, and joined the Nationals at Bermuda Hundred. He left camp on May 12 on another similar raid. Passing up near Drewry's Bluff, he moved on an arc of a circle by Chesterfield Court-house and struck the Richmond and Danville Railway eleven miles west of the Confederate capital. He struck it again at Powhatan; menaced the railway bridge over the Appomattox, which was strongly guarded; swept around eastward and struck the road again at Chula Station; and then, with a part of his command, he crossed to the Southside Railway at White and Black Station, while the remainder went on to the junction of the Danville and Southside roads. Turning eastward, the whole troop swept down to the North Carolina line, destroying the Weldon Road at Jarratt's Station, and, passing Prince George's Court-house, took to City Point one hundred and fifty prisoners, of whom thirteen were officers.

Kearney, LAWRENCE, United States Navy, was born at Perth Amboy, N. J., Nov. 30, 1789; died there, Nov. 29, 1868. He entered the navy in 1807, performed important services on the coast of South Carolina and adjoining states during the War of 1812–15, and after the war, in command of the schooner *Enterprise*, assisted with efficiency in ridding the West Indies and Gulf of Mexico of pirates. He also, in the *Warren*, drove the Greek pirates from the Levant in 1827, and broke up their nests. In command of the East India squadron in 1851, he secured from the Chinese authorities the recognition of the right of Americans to trade there, and the same protection and facilities to our merchants as were about being granted by treaty to Great Britain.

Kearney, PHILIP, was born in New York city, June 2, 1815; killed in battle near Chantilly, Va., Sept. 1, 1862. He studied law, but, preferring the military profession, entered the army at twenty-two years of age as lieutenant of dragoons. Soon afterwards the government sent him to Europe to study and report upon French cavalry tactics. While there he fought in the French army in Africa as a volunteer, and returned in 1840 with the cross of the Legion of Honor. Aid to General Scott (1841–44), he was made captain in the United States Army, and served on the staff of Scott in the war with Mexico, receiving great applause. Near the city of Mexico he lost his left arm in battle. After serving a campaign on the Pacific coast against the Indians, he went to Europe, and served on the staff of the French general Maurier in the Italian War (1859). He received from the French government a second decoration of the Legion of Honor. He hastened home when the Civil War broke out; was made brigadier-general of volunteers just after the battle of Bull's Run, and commanded a brigade of New Jersey troops in Franklin's division, Army of the Potomac. He commanded a division in Heintzelman's corps, and behaved gallantly during the Peninsular campaign. Kearney was made major-general of volunteers in July, 1862. He was the first to reinforce Pope, and was engaged in the battles between the Rappahannock and Washington, from Aug. 25 to Sept. 1.

PHILIP KEARNEY.

Kearney, STEPHEN WATTS, brother of Philip, was born at Newark, N. J., Aug. 30, 1794; died in St. Louis, Oct. 31, 1848. When the War of 1812–15 broke out, young Kearney left his studies at Columbia College, entered the army as lieutenant of infantry, and distinguished himself in the battle of Queenston Heights. In April, 1813, he was made captain, and rose to brigadier-general in June, 1846. He was in command of the Army of the West at the beginning of the war with Mexico, and with that army marched to California, conquering New Mexico on the way. He established a provisional government at Santa Fé, pressed on to California, and was twice wounded in battle. For a few months in 1847 he was Governor of California; joined the army in Mexico; in March, 1848, was Governor, military and civil, of Vera Cruz, and in May of the same year was made Governor of the city of Mexico. In August, 1848, he was breveted major-general.

Keith, GEORGE, was born at Aberdeen, Scotland; died rector of Edburton, Sussex, England, about 1710. He belonged to the Society of Friends, or Quakers; came to East Jersey, was surveyor-general in 1682, and in 1689 taught school in Philadelphia. He wrote and spoke much in favor of the Quakers, and visited New England in their interest; but about 1691 he established a sect who called themselves "Christian Quakers." Keith was irritable, quarrelsome, and imperious. He finally left the Quakers altogether, and took orders in the Church of England.

Kenesaw Mountains (Ga.), EVENTS NEAR. General Johnston, pursued by General Sherman, after evacuating Allatoona Pass (see *Allatoona*

Pass and Marietta), took a stand. At his back were the Big and Little Kenesaw mountains, within three miles of Marietta. With these, lying close together, Lost and Pine mountains formed a triangle. Confederate batteries covered their summits, and on the top of each Confederate signal-stations were placed. Thousands of men were busy in the forest casting up intrenchments from base to base of these rugged hills in preparation for a great struggle. Sherman advanced to Big Shanty, and there made preparations to break through the Confederate works between Kenesaw and Pine mountains. Hooker was on the right and front of his line, Howard was on his left and front, and Palmer between it and the railway. Under a heavy cannonade, the advance began, June 14, 1864. The Nationals pushed over the rough country, fighting at almost every step. That night the Confederates abandoned Pine Mountain, and took position in the intrenchments between Kenesaw and Lost mountains. Upon the latter eminence the Nationals advanced in a heavy rain-storm, and on the 17th the Confederates abandoned Lost Mountain and the long line of intrenchments connecting it with Kenesaw. Sherman continually pressed them heavily, skirmishing in dense forests, furrowed with ravines and tangled with vines. From the top of Kenesaw Johnston could see the movements of the Nationals, and from batteries on its summit could hurl plunging shot. The antagonists struggled on; and finally General Hood sallied out of the Confederate intrenchments with a strong force to break through Sherman's line between Thomas and Schofield. He was received with a terrible return blow, which made him recoil in great confusion, leaving, in his retreat, his killed, wounded, and many prisoners. This struggle is known in history as the battle of the Kulp House. This repulse inspirited the Nationals. On the 27th (June) they made a furious assault on the Confederate lines at two points south of Kenesaw to break them, separate their forces, and destroy their army. The Nationals were repulsed, with an aggregate loss of about three thousand men. Among the killed were Generals C. G. Harker and D. McCook, and many valuable officers of lower grade were wounded. The loss of the Confederates, behind their breastworks, was slight. Sherman now disposed his troops so as to seriously threaten Johnston's rear. Turner's Ferry across the Chattahoochee was menaced, and the intended effect was instantaneous. On the night of July 2 Johnston abandoned Kenesaw and all his intrenchments, and when, at dawn (July 3), the Nationals stood on the crest of that mountain, they saw the Confederates flying through and beyond Marietta towards the Chattahoochee, in the direction of Atlanta. Sherman pursued, but Johnston escaped across the Chattahoochee, after confronting his pursuers at a line of intrenchments hastily thrown up. Before the Nationals now flowed a deep and rapid stream, and on the opposite side thousands of men were piling up military works to oppose their passage. (See *Atlanta*.)

Kent Island (Chesapeake Bay), COLONY ON. In May, 1631, King Charles I. granted a license to William Clayborne "to traffic in those parts of America for which there was already no patent granted for sole trade." With the intention of monopolizing the Indian trade of Chesapeake Bay, Clayborne and his associates planted a small colony on Kent Island, situated in the centre of the Province of Maryland, soon afterwards granted to Lord Baltimore. This grant and settlement gave much trouble to the proprietor of Maryland and the settlers there under his patent. (See *Clayborne*.)

Kent, JAMES, LL.D., an eminent jurist, was born at Phillipstown, Putnam Co., N. Y., July 31, 1763; died in New York city, Dec. 12, 1847. He studied law with Egbert Benson, and began its practice in 1787 at Poughkeepsie, N. Y. He was a member of the New York Legislature from 1790 to 1793, and became professor of law in Columbia College in 1793. Deeply versed in the doctrine of civil law, he was made a master in chancery in 1796, city recorder in 1797, judge of the Supreme Court in 1798, chief-justice in 1804, and was chancellor from 1814 to 1823. After taking a leading part in the State Constitutional Convention in 1821, he again became law professor in Columbia College, and the lectures he there delivered form the basis of his able *Commentaries on the United States Constitution*, published in four volumes. He was one of the clearest legal writers of his day. In 1828 he was elected President of the New York Historical Society. He passed his later years in revising and enlarging his *Commentaries* and in giving opinions on legal subjects.

JAMES KENT.

Kenton, SIMON, a Western pioneer, was born in Fauquier County, Va., April 3, 1755; died in Logan County, O., April 29, 1836. Supposing he had killed in an affray a rival in a love affair when he was sixteen years old, he fled to the wilderness west of the Alleghany Mountains, where he was the friend and companion of Daniel Boone in many daring feats. He was in expeditions against the Indians, was captured by them, and taken to Detroit. Escaping from a British prison there in 1779, he distinguished himself in resisting the invasion of Kentucky by the British and Indians in that year. Finally, after an expedition against the barbarians on the Miami, he settled (1784) near Maysville.

SIMON KENTON.

He accompanied Wayne in his expedition in 1794. In 1805 he was seated near the Mud River, O., and was made brigadier-general of militia. In 1813 he served under Governor Shelby at the battle of the Thames (which see). Beggared by lawsuits because of defective titles to lands, he lived in penury many years. In 1824 he appeared at Frankfort, Ky., in tattered clothes, and successfully appealed to the Legislature to release the claim of the state to lands which were his. Congress afterwards allowed him a pension.

Kentucky Neutrality. The position of the inhabitants of Kentucky at the breaking-out of the Civil War was peculiar and painful. The governor had responded to the President's call for troops in insulting words, and was followed by fierce denunciations of the government policy by the *Louisville Journal*, the leading paper in the state. These were followed by a great Union meeting in Louisville on the evening of April 18, over which James Guthrie (see *Peace Convention*) and other leading politicians of the state held controlling influence. At that meeting it was resolved that Kentucky reserved to herself "the right to choose her own position; and that, while her natural sympathies are with those who have a common interest in the protection of slavery, she still acknowledges her loyalty and fealty to the government of the United States, which she will cheerfully render *until that government becomes aggressive, tyrannical, and regardless of our rights in slave property.*" They declared that the states were the peers of the national government, and gave the world to understand that the latter should not be allowed to use "sanguinary or coercive measures to bring back the seceded states." They alluded to the "Kentucky State Guard" (which see) as the "bulwark of the safety of the commonwealth, . . . pledged equally to fidelity to the United States and to Kentucky." This avowal of peculiar neutrality—of *conditional* Unionism—delighted the enemies of the Republic.

Kentucky Neutrality Violated. Early in the summer of 1861 the Governor of Kentucky declared that arrangements had been made that neither National nor Confederate troops should set foot on the soil of that state. The neutrality of Kentucky was respected many months, and so the purposes of the governor of that state and of Tennessee were promoted, for it gave them time to prepare for war. Pillow had urged the seizure of the bluff at Columbus, in western Kentucky, as an aid to him in his attempt to capture Cairo and Bird's Point, but the solemn assurance of the Confederate government that Kentucky neutrality should be respected restrained him; but on Sept. 4, General (Bishop) Polk, with a considerable force, seized the strong position at Columbus, under the pretext that National forces were preparing to occupy that place. The Confederate Secretary of War publicly telegraphed to Polk to withdraw his troops; President Davis privately telegraphed to him to hold on, saying, "The end justifies the means." So Columbus was held and fortified by the Confederates. General Ulysses S. Grant, then in command of the district and Cairo, took military possession of Paducah, in northern Kentucky, with National troops, and the neutrality of Kentucky was no longer respected. The seizure of Columbus opened the way for the infliction upon the people of that state of the horrors of war. All Kentucky, for one hundred miles south of the Ohio River, was made a military department, with General Robert Anderson, the hero of Fort Sumter, for its commander.

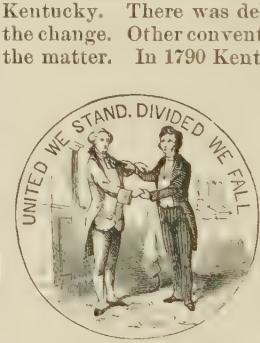
Kentucky Ordinance of Secession. General Albert Sidney Johnston, formerly an officer in the United States Army, was in command of the Confederate "Western Department," which included southern and western Kentucky, then held by the insurgents, and the State of Tennessee, with his headquarters at Nashville. Under the shadow of his power the Secessionists of Kentucky met in convention at Russellville, the capital of Logan County, Oct. 29, 1861. They drew up a manifesto in which the grievances of Kentucky were recited, and the action of the loyal Legislature was denounced. They passed an ordinance of secession, declared the state independent, organized a provisional government, chose George W. Johnson Provisional Governor, appointed delegates to the Confederate Congress at Richmond, and called Bowling Green the state capital. Fifty-one counties were represented in that "Sovereignty Convention" by about two hundred men, without the sanction of the people.

Kentucky, POSITION OF (1861). This was a border state of great importance, having a population, in 1860, of 1,155,713, of whom 225,483 were slaves. The people were strongly attached to the Union, but its governor (Beriah Magoffin) and leading politicians of his party in the state sympathized with the Secessionists. The action of Kentucky was awaited with great anxiety throughout the Union. The governor at first opposed secession, for the people were decidedly hostile to revolutionary movements in the Gulf region; yet they as decidedly opposed what the sophists called the "coercion of a sovereign state." At a state convention of "Union and Douglas men," held on Jan. 8, 1861, it was resolved that the rights of Kentucky should be maintained *in the Union*. They were in favor of a convention of the free-labor and slave-labor border states to decide upon just compromises, and declared their willingness to support the National government, unless the incoming President should attempt to "coerce a state or states." The Legislature, which assembled at about the same time, was asked by the governor to declare, by resolution, the "unconditional disapprobation" of the people of the state of the employment of force against "seceding states." On Jan. 22 the Legislature accordingly resolved that the Kentuckians, united with their brethren of the South, would resist any invasion of the soil of that section at all hazards and to the last extremity. This action was taken because the legislatures of several free-labor states had offered troops for the use of the National government in enforcing the laws in "seceding states." They decided against calling a convention, and appointed delegates to the Peace Congress. A little later the public authorities and other leading men of the state endeavored to give to it a position of absolute neutrality. (See *Kentucky Neutrality*.)

Kentucky, SETTLEMENTS IN. The precarious tenure by which places that were settled in Kentucky by Boone and others were held, while the land was subjected to bloody incursions by barbarians, was changed after George Rogers Clarke's incursions into Ohio had made the tribes there no longer invaders of the soil south of that river. The number of "stations" began to multiply. A block-house was built (April, 1779) on the site of the city of Lexington. By a law of Virginia (May, 1779), all persons who had settled west of the mountains before June, 1778, were entitled to claim four hundred acres of land, without any payment; and they had a right of pre-emption to an adjoining one thousand acres for a very small sum of money, while the whole region between the Greene and Tennessee rivers was reserved for military bounties. Settlements quite rapidly increased under this liberal Virginia land system, and fourteen years after its passage Kentucky had a population that entitled it to admission into the Union as a state.

Kentucky State Guard. This corps was organized by Governor Magoffin for the ostensible purpose of defending Kentucky—against what? Simon B. Buckner, a captain in the United States Army, and then evidently in the secret service of the Confederate government, was placed at the head of the "guard," using his position effectively in seducing large numbers of the members from their allegiance to the old flag, and in sending recruits to the Confederate army. At the same time the governor tried to induce the Legislature to appropriate $3,000,000 to be used by himself and Buckner in "arming the state." This was refused; but the Lower House approved of the governor's refusal to furnish troops to the National government. He issued a proclamation of neutrality, which not only forbade the United States and the Confederate States "invading the soil of Kentucky," but also forbade the citizens of Kentucky making "any hostile demonstrations against any of the aforesaid sovereignties." The Legislature required the "State Guard" to swear allegiance to the United States, as well as to Kentucky. As Buckner could not allow his "guard" to take this oath, it was not long before he led a large portion of them into the Confederate camp, and became a major-general in the Confederate army. Then the *Louisville Journal*, which had denounced the President's call for troops in unmeasured terms of severity, cursed the commander of the "Kentucky State Guard" as one of the worst of traitors. "You are the Benedict Arnold of the day!" it said. "You are the Catiline of Kentucky! Go, thou miscreant!" And when, in February, 1862, Buckner was made a prisoner at Fort Donelson, and sent to Fort Warren, in Boston harbor, many of those who had regarded his "State Guard" as "the bulwark of the commonwealth" were clamorous for his delivery to the civil authorities of Kentucky to be tried for treason against the state.

Kentucky, STATE OF. In 1776 Kentucky was made a county of Virginia, and in 1777 the first court was held at Harrodsburg. Conventions held at Danville in 1784–85 recommended a peaceable and constitutional separation from Virginia. In 1786 an act was passed by the Virginia Legislature complying with the desires of Kentucky. There was delay in consummating the change. Other conventions were held urging the matter. In 1790 Kentucky became a separate territory, and on June 1, 1792, it was admitted into the Union as a state. Its population at that time was about seventy-five thousand. For several years much uneasiness was felt among the people of Kentucky on account of Indian depredations and the cloudiness of the political skies, for the great questions of the free navigation of the Mississippi River and the ultimate possession of Louisiana were unsettled. These were settled satisfactorily by the purchase of Louisiana in 1803. During the War of 1812 Kentucky took an active part, sending full seven thousand men to the field; and after that war the state was undisturbed by any stirring events until the breaking-out of the Civil War in 1861. Its progress was rapid. A second constitution took effect in 1800, and continued in force until the adoption of the present one in 1850. At the beginning of the


UNITED WE STAND. DIVIDED WE FALL

STATE SEAL OF KENTUCKY.

Civil War Kentucky assumed a position of neutrality, but it was really one of hostility to the Union. The governor refused to comply with the President's requisition for troops; but Lieutenant William Nelson, of the navy, a native of the state, and then on ordnance duty at Washington, began to recruit for the National army; and towards the close of July, 1861, he established "Camp Dick Robinson," in Garrard County, for the organization of Kentucky volunteers. These flocked to this camp and to other recruiting stations. A great majority of the people were loyal to the Union, but the governor was not, and the unfortunate position of neutrality which the latter, with the Secessionists, caused Kentucky to assume brought upon her the miseries of civil war. (See *Kentucky Neutrality.*) Steps were taken for the secession of the state, and for the organization of a Confederate state government, but failed. (See *Kentucky Ordinance of Secession*, and *Kentucky, Position of.*) The state was scarred by battles, invasions, and raids, and martial law was proclaimed by President Lincoln, July 5, 1864. The civil authority was restored Oct. 18, 1865. The Legislature refused (1869-70) to ratify the Fifteenth Amendment to the national Constitution.

Kernstown, BATTLE AT. When the Army of the Potomac was transferred to the Virginia peninsula, early in 1862, it was necessary to hold the Confederates in check in the Shenandoah valley (where they were led by "Stonewall" Jackson), in order to secure Washington city. General Lander, who had struck Jackson a sharp blow at Blooming Gap (which see), had died, and was succeeded in command by General Shields. Banks was then (February, 1862) in command of the Fifth Corps. He sent Colonel Geary to reoccupy Harper's Ferry, and took command there in person late in that month. He pushed Jackson back to Winchester, where he was posted with about eight thousand men, when Johnston evacuated Manassas, early in March. Then he retired up the valley, pursued by Shields, who produced great consternation among the Secessionists. Shields found his antagonist too strong to warrant an attack, and fell back to Winchester, closely pursued by cavalry under Colonel Ashby. Banks repaired to Manassas after its evacuation, leaving Shields to guard the Shenandoah valley. Near Winchester he had nearly seven thousand men (part of them cavalry) and twenty-four guns well posted half a mile north of the village of Kernstown and two and a half miles south of Winchester. On March 22 Ashby's cavalry drove in Shields's pickets. Under cover of night, Shields pushed on some troops, under Colonel Kimball, to Kernstown. A sharp and severe battle ensued, in which Shields was badly wounded. The Confederates were repulsed at all points, and fled up the valley, closely pursued by Banks, who remained in that region to watch the insurgents, while McClellan should move on Richmond.

Kettle Creek, BATTLE OF. Nearly eight hundred North and South Carolina Tories, led by Colonel Boyd, started to join the British at Augusta in February, 1779, desolating the upper country of the latter state on the way. When within two days' march of Augusta they were attacked (Feb. 14), at Kettle Creek, by Colonel Andrew Pickens, with the militia of Ninety-six, and, after a sharp fight, were defeated. Boyd and seventy of his men were killed, and seventy-five were made prisoners. Pickens lost thirty-eight men.

Key, FRANCIS SCOTT, author of *The Star-Spangled Banner*, was born in Frederick County, Md., Aug. 1, 1779; died in Baltimore, Jan. 11, 1843. He was a lawyer and poet, and, removing to Washington, D. C., he became district attorney. A collection of his poems was published after his death. (See *Star-Spangled Banner.*)

Keyes, ERASMUS DARWIN, was born at Stockbridge, Mass., May 29, 1811. He graduated at West Point in 1832, entered the artillery, and was made assistant adjutant, with rank of captain, in 1838. Becoming captain in 1841, he was appointed instructor of artillery and cavalry at West Point in 1844. He did service against the Indians on the Pacific coast, and when the Civil War broke out he was appointed (May, 1861) colonel of infantry and brigadier-general of volunteers. At the battle of Bull's Run, in July, he commanded the First Brigade in Tyler's division. Early in 1862 he was appointed commander of the Fourth Corps of the Army of the Potomac, and won the rank of major-general of volunteers and the brevet of brigadier-general United States Army by his conduct in the peninsular campaign. He resigned May 6, 1864.

Key-stone State. A popular title for the State of Pennsylvania, supposed to have been given because of its central position among the original thirteen states at the time of the formation of the national Constitution. In an arch formed by the thirteen states Pennsylvania would, from its geographical position, form the key-stone. The early certificates of membership of the Tammany Society have an arch composed of the states, of which Pennsylvania is the key-stone.

Kickapoos, an Algonquin tribe found by the French missionaries, towards the close of the seventeenth century, on the Wisconsin River. They were great rovers; were closely allied to the Miamis; and in 1712 joined the Foxes in an attack upon Detroit, and in wars long afterwards. They were reduced in 1747 to about eighty warriors, and when the English conquered Canada in 1763 there were about one hundred Kickapoos on the Wabash. They joined Pontiac in his conspiracy, but soon made peace; and in 1779 they joined George Rogers Clarke in his expedition against the British in the Northwest. Showing hostility to the Americans, their settlement on the Wabash was desolated in 1791; but they were not absolutely subdued until the treaty at Greenville in 1795, after Wayne's decisive victory, when they ceded a part of their land for a small annuity. In the early part of the present century the Kickapoos made other cessions of territory; and in 1811 they joined Tecumtha and fought the Americans at Tippecanoe. In the War of 1812 they were the friends of the English; and afterwards a larger portion of them crossed the Mississippi and seated themselves upon a tract of land on the Osage River. Some cultivated the soil, while others went southward as far as Texas, in roving bands, plundering on all sides. For some time Texas suffered by these inroads; but in 1854 some of them, peaceably inclined, settled in Kansas, when, becoming dissatisfied, many of them went off to Mexico, where they opposed the depredations of the Apaches. Most of the tribe find a home in the Indian Territory west of Arkansas, and no longer count themselves warriors.

Kidd, WILLIAM, executed as a pirate and murderer, May 24, 1701, was a native of Scotland, and was born about 1650. He entered the merchant-marine service in his youth, and distinguished himself as a privateersman against the French in the West Indies. He was active against the pirates that infested the waters near New York, out of which port he sailed; and for his services the Assembly of the province gave him $750 in 1691. In 1695 a company for the suppression of piracy by privateering was organized in England. Among the shareholders in the enterprise were King William III., the Earl of Bellomont (afterwards Governor of Massachusetts and New York), Robert Livingston, of New York, and other men of wealth and influence. One tenth of all the booty gained by privateering was to be set aside for the king, and the rest was to be divided among the shareholders. A new ship, of 287 tons, was bought, and named the *Adventure Galley;* and at the suggestion of Livingston, who was then in England, Captain Kidd was appointed her commander and admitted as a shareholder. His commission bore the royal seal and signature. On the 3d of April, 1696, he sailed from Plymouth, and arrived at New York about the 4th of July. With his ship well provisioned, and with a crew of one hundred and fifty-four men and boys, he sailed for Madagascar, the chief rendezvous of the pirates who infested the India seas. In the course of a year or more rumors reached England that Kidd had turned pirate. At length the clamor became so loud that the royal shareholder in the enterprise and his associates perceived the necessity of taking action, and an order was issued to all the English colonial governors to cause the arrest of Kidd wherever he might be found. In the spring of 1699 he appeared in the West Indies in a vessel loaded with treasure. Leaving her in a bay on the coast of Hayti in charge of his first officer and a part of the ship's company, he sailed northward with forty men in a sloop, entered Long Island Sound, and at Oyster Bay took on board James Emott, a New York lawyer, and, landing him on Rhode Island, sent him to the Earl of Bellomont, then at Boston as Governor of Massachusetts, to inquire how he (Kidd) would be received by his partner in the enterprise. During Emott's absence Kidd had buried some of his treasure, which he brought with the sloop, on Gardiner's Island. Bellomont's answer was such that Kidd went to Boston (July 1, 1699), where he was arrested, sent to England, tried on a charge of piracy and murder, found guilty, and executed (May 24, 1701), protesting his innocence. It is admitted that his trial was grossly unfair; and it is believed that Kidd was made a scapegoat to bear away the sins of men in high places. Earl Bellomont sent to Hayti for Kidd's ship, but it had been stripped by the men in charge; but he recovered the treasure buried on Gardiner's Island; also that which Kidd had with him on the sloop, amounting in the aggregate to about $70,000. He and Livingston were then political enemies, and it is not known whether the latter got any share of the plunder.

Kieft, WILLIAM. Little is known of Kieft, the fifth Dutch Governor of New Netherland, before his appearance at Manhattan on the 28th of March, 1638. He seems to have been an unpopular dweller at Rochelle, France, where his effigy had been hung upon a gallows. De Vries, an active mariner, who knew him well, ranked him among the "great rascals" of his age. He was energetic, spiteful, and rapacious—the reverse of Van Twiller, his immediate predecessor. (See *Van Twiller.*) Kieft began his administration by concentrating all executive power in his own hands; and he and his council possessed such dignity, in their own estimation, that it became a high crime to appeal from their decision. He found public affairs in the capital of New Netherland in a wretched condition, and put forth a strong hand to bring order out of confusion. Abuses abounded, and his measures of reform almost stripped the citizens of their privileges. Dilapidated Fort Amsterdam was repaired and new warehouses for the company were erected. He caused orchards to be planted, gardens to be cultivated, police ordinances to be framed and enforced, religion and morality to be fostered, and regular religious services to be publicly conducted. A spacious stone church was built within the fort, and the Connecticut architect hung in its wooden tower Spanish bells which had been captured at Porto Rico. A more liberal policy in respect to the ownership of land (see *Patroons*) caused emigration to increase, and cavaliers from Virginia and Puritans from New England were seen listening to Dominie Bogardus in his fine pulpit in the new church. (See *Bogardus.*) All that Kieft required of new settlers was an oath of fidelity and allegiance to the States-General of Holland. The demands for new homesteads caused Kieft to purchase lower Westchester and a large portion of Long Island. The encroaching Puritans on the east and the Swedes on the Delaware gave Kieft much concern, especially the latter, for Minuit, a former Dutch governor, was at their head. Kieft protested against their "intrusion." Minuit laughed at him and disregarded his threats. Very soon the energetic character of the governor, manifested in well-doing, was as conspicuous in ill-doing. He allowed his fellow-traders with the Indians to stupefy them with rum and cheat them; and he demanded tribute of furs, corn, and wampum from the tribes around Manhattan. They paid the tribute, but cursed the tyrant. Kieft saw their power and was afraid. Some swine were stolen from colonists on Staten Island, when Kieft, seeking an excuse for striking terror to the hearts of those he had wronged, accused the Raritans of the crime, and sent armed men to chastise them. The River Indians grasped their hatchets and refused to pay tribute any longer. The hatred of all the savages was aroused. The people of New Amsterdam were alarmed, and quarrels between them and the governor were frequent and stormy. He wanted to make war on the Indians. The people refused to bear a musket or favor the crime. Unwilling to bear the responsibility, Kieft called an assembly of "masters and heads of families" in New Amsterdam to consult upon public measures. Twelve discreet men were chosen (1641) to act for them; and this was the first representative assembly in New Netherland. (See *Representative Government.*) War was deferred, and the twelve devised a plan for a municipal government for New Amsterdam. Kieft was alarmed, for he did not wish his own power abridged, and he made promises (but to be broken) of concessions of popular freedom on their giving him consent to chastise the Indians in Westchester. It was reluctantly given, when the perfidious governor dissolved them, and forbade any popular assembly thereafter. In 1643 he caused a cruel massacre of fugitive Indians at Hoboken. (See *Hoboken, Massacre at.*) A fierce war was kindled. The friendly Long Island tribes joined their injured brethren, and the Dutch colony was threatened with destruction. Help came from a Puritan, and the Indians were subdued. Kieft, despised by the colonists on whom he had brought ruin, humbly asked them to form a representative council again. The people gladly did so, for they had lost all confidence in the governor. This concession was a pitiful trick of Kieft to foil the wrath of the colonists. He neglected the advice of the popular assembly, and sought by every means to fill his own coffers with gain against a day of reckoning which he perceived was near. The representatives of the people, finding his rule unendurable, asked for the recall of Kieft before the colony should be ruined. Their prayer was heeded, and the people celebrated his departure by the firing of great guns. Some pugnacious burghers threatened the governor with personal chastisement when he should "take off the coat with which he was bedecked by the lords, his masters." The prophecy of De Vries (1643)—"The murders in which you [Kieft] have shed so much innocent blood will yet be avenged upon your own head"—was fulfilled. Kieft sailed for Holland (Aug. 16, 1647), in the ship *Princess*, with more than $100,000 of ill-gotten wealth. The vessel, by mistake, entered the Bristol channel, struck a rock, and was wrecked on the coast of Wales. Kieft was drowned.

Kilpatrick, Hugh Judson, commander of cavalry, was born near Deckertown, N. J., Jan. 17, 1836, and graduated at West Point in 1861, entering the artillery. He was wounded in the battle at Big Bethel (June, 1861), and in September was made lieutenant-colonel of cavalry. His efficient services on all occasions won for him the office of brigadier-general and brevet major-general of volunteers, and the command of a division of cavalry in the Army of the Potomac. He was very active in the campaign against Atlanta in 1864, in Sherman's march to the sea, and in his march through the Carolinas to the surrender of Johnston. For the latter campaign he was breveted major-general in the United States Army. Late in November, 1865, he was appointed envoy extraordinary to Chili.

HUGH JUDSON KILPATRICK.

Kilpatrick's Raid. On Sunday morning, Feb. 28, 1864, General Kilpatrick, with five thousand cavalry, picked from his own and the divisions of Merritt and Gregg, crossed the Rapid Anna, swept around to the right flank of Lee's army by way of Spottsylvania Court-house, and, pushing rapidly towards Richmond, struck the Virginia Central Railroad at Beaver Dam Station, where he had his first serious encounter with the Confederates, under the Maryland leader, Bradley T. Johnson, whom he defeated. Then he struck across the South Anna, cut the Fredericksburg and Richmond Railway, and on March 1st halted within three miles of Richmond. His grand object was to liberate the Union captives from Libby Prison (which see). He was now within the outer line of its defences, at which the Confederates had thrown down their arms and fled into the city. At Spottsylvania Court-house about five hundred of Kilpatrick's best men, led by Colonel Ulric Dahlgren, a dashing young officer, diverged from the main column for the purpose of striking the James River Canal above Richmond, destroying as much of it as possible, and, crossing the James River, attack the Confederate capital on the south simultaneously with the attack of Kilpatrick on the north. The object was to liberate the Union prisoners at Belle Isle, on the James River, in front of Richmond. Kilpatrick, disappointed in not hearing Dahlgren's guns, and hard pressed by the Confederates as he attempted to penetrate the second line of defences, withdrew after a sharp fight, and halted six miles from Richmond. He was pursued by the Confederates, with whom he skirmished, and returned to his place of departure. Meanwhile Dahlgren, misled by a negro guide, failed to cross the James River, but struck the outer line of fortifications on the northern side of Richmond at dark, March 2. In a conflict that ensued the Nationals were repulsed, and they retreated towards the Chickahominy, hotly pursued. Dahlgren and about one hundred of his men became separated from the rest. On the evening of the 3d the young leader, in a conflict some distance from Richmond, was shot dead, and one hundred of his men were made prisoners.

Kilpatrick's Raid near Atlanta. General Sherman, when he heard of Wheeler's raid (which see), sent Kilpatrick, with five thousand cavalry, during the night of Aug. 18, 1864, to strike the railway at West Point, and break it to Fairborn, and then to tear up the Macon road thoroughly. When he reached the Macon road, near Jonesborough, he was confronted by Ross's Confederate cavalry. These he routed, and drove through Jonesborough, and just as he began tearing up the road some cavalry came up from the south, and compelled him to desist and fly. He swept around, and again struck the road at Lovejoy's, where he was attacked by a larger force. Through these he dashed, capturing and destroying a 4-gun battery, and, sweeping around, reached headquarters on the 22d, with seventy prisoners.

King Cotton, a popular personification of the cotton-plant, a staple production of the Southern States of the American Union. Its supremacy in commerce and politics was asserted by the politicians of the cotton-growing states. "You dare not make war upon cotton; no power on earth dare make war upon it. Cotton is *King!*" said Senator James Hammond, of South Carolina. "Cotton is King!" shouted back the submissive spindles of the North. A Northern poet sang:

"Old Cotton will pleasantly reign
When other kings painfully fall,
And ever and ever remain
The mightiest monarch of all."

A senator from Texas exclaimed on the floor of Congress, just as the Civil War was kindling, "I say, Cotton is King, and he waves his sceptre not only over these thirty-three states, but over the island of Great Britain and over Continental Europe; and there is no crowned head there that does not bend the knee in fealty, and acknowledge allegiance to that monarch." This boasting was caused by the erroneous estimate by the politicians of the money value of the cotton crop compared with the other agricultural products of the United States. It was asserted that it was greater than all the latter combined. The census of 1860 showed that the wheat crop alone exceeded in value the cotton crop by $57,000,000; and the value of the combined crops of hay and cereals exceeded that of cotton over $900,000,000. The sovereignty of cotton was tested by the Civil War (1861–65). At its close a poet wrote:

"*Cotton* and *Corn* were mighty kings,
Who differed, at times, on certain things,
To the country's dire confusion;
Corn was peaceable, mild, and just,
But *Cotton* was fond of saying, 'You must!'
So after he'd boasted, bullied, and cussed,
He got up a revolution.
But in course of time the bubble is bursted,
And *Corn* is King and *Cotton*—is worsted."

King George Misled. The ministry, either blind or wicked, misled George III. into the belief that a few regiments could subdue Massachusetts, and that New York could easily be seduced to the support of the crown by immunities and benefactions. The deceived monarch, therefore, ordered letters to be written to Gage, at the middle of April, 1775, to take possession of every colonial fort; to seize and secure all military stores of every kind collected for "the rebels;" to arrest and imprison all such as should be thought to have committed treason; to repress rebellion by force; to make the public safety the first object of consideration, and to substitute more coercive measures for ordinary forms of procedure, without pausing to require the aid of a civil magistrate. Four regiments, at first destined for Boston, were ordered to New York, to assist in the progress of intrigue; and a vessel carried out six packages of pamphlets, containing a very soothing and complimentary "*Address of the People of Great Britain to the Inhabitants of America*," written by Sir John Dalrymple, at the request of Lord North. The Americans were not coaxed by this persuasive pamphlet, nor awed by the attempts to execute the sanguinary orders of Lord Dartmouth to Gage. (See *Lexington*, *Concord*, and *Bunker's Hill*.)

King George's Hatred of Dr. Franklin. Wright, in his *England under the House of Hanover*, says that, notwithstanding the king, in his speech from the throne (Dec. 5, 1783), had said, "I have sacrificed every consideration of my own to the wishes and opinions of my people. I make it my humble and earnest prayer to Almighty God that Great Britain may not feel the evils which might result from so great a dismemberment of the empire, and that America may be far from those calamities which have formerly proved, in the mother country, how essential monarchy is to the enjoyment of constitutional liberty. Religion, language, interests, affection may—and I hope will—yet prove a bond of permanent union between the two countries. To this end neither attention nor disposition shall be wanting on my part," he nevertheless detested everything American. The acknowledgment of the independence of the United States was wrung from him by dire necessity. Ever since the beginning of the troubles he had thoroughly hated Franklin personally, to whom, on account of his coolness and adroitness, he had given the name of "Arch Rebel." The king carried his prejudices so far that Sir John Pringle was driven to resign his place as President of the Royal Society in this wise: The king unjustly requested the society to publish, with the authority of its name, a contradiction of a scientific opinion of the rebellious Franklin. Pringle replied that it was not in his power to reverse the order of Nature, and resigned. The pliant Sir Joseph Banks, with the practice of a true courtier, advocated the opinion patronized by his majesty, and was appointed President of the Royal Society.

King George's War. There had been peace between France and England for about thirty years after the death of Queen Anne, during which time the colonists in America had enjoyed comparative repose. Then the selfish strifes of European monarchs kindled war again. In March, 1744, France declared war against Great Britain, and the colonists cheerfully prepared to begin the contest known in America as King George's War; in Europe, the War of the Austrian Succession. A contest arose between Maria Theresa, Empress of Hungary, and the Elector of Bavaria, for the Austrian throne. The King of England espoused the cause of the empress, while the King of France took part with her opponent. This caused France to declare war against Great Britain. The French had built the strong fort of Louisburg, on the Island of Cape Breton, after the treaty of Utrecht, and, because of its strength, it was called the Gibraltar of America. When war was proclaimed, Governor Shirley, of Massachusetts, perceiving the importance of that place in the coming contest, plans for its capture were speedily laid before the Massachusetts Legislature. That body hesitated, but the measure was finally agreed upon by a majority of only one vote. Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Connecticut furnished their proper quota of troops. New York sent artillery, and Pennsylvania provisions. Commodore Warren was in the West Indies with a fleet, and was expected to join the provincials in the expedition. After waiting some time, the colonial forces, under Sir William Pepperell, sailed (April 4, 1745) for Louisburg. Warren joined them at Canseau early in May, and on the 11th the combined land-forces, four thousand strong, debarked at Gabarus Bay, a short distance from the fortress. The first intimation the French had of danger near was the sudden appearance of this formidable armament. Consternation prevailed in the fort and the town. A regular siege was begun on the 31st of May. Other English vessels of war arrived, and the combined fleet and army prepared for attack on the 29th of June. Unable to make a successful resistance, the fortress, the town of Louisburg, and the Island of Cape Breton were surrendered to the English on the 28th. This event mortified the pride of France, and the following year the Duke D'Anville was sent with a powerful naval armament to recover the lost fortress, and to destroy English settlements along the seaboard. Storms wrecked many of his vessels, sickness swept away hundreds of his men, and D'Anville abandoned the enterprise without striking a blow. Anchoring at Chebucto (now Halifax), D'Anville died there by poison, it is believed. With the capture of Louisburg the war ended in the colonies. By a treaty made at Aix-la-Chapelle, all prisoners and property seized by either party were restored. The struggle had been costly, and fruitless of good excepting in making a revelation of the strength of the colonists.

King James and the Puritans. When King James of Scotland ascended the English throne as the successor of Elizabeth, he was regarded as a "Presbyterian king," and the Puritans expected not only the blessings of toleration and protection for themselves, but even hope for supremacy among the religionists of the realm. Soon after his accession, James called a conference of divines at Hampton Court. He was chief actor at that conference, in the rôle of "brute and mountebank." Some of the Puritan divines ranked among the brightest scholars in the land. They were greatly annoyed by the coarse browbeating of the Bishop of London and the coarser jests of the king. The venerable Archbishop Whitgift was present, and bent the supple knee of the courtier in the presence of royalty. When the vulgar king said to the Puritan ministers, "You want to strip Christ again; away with your snivelling," and much more to that effect, Whitgift, the primate, exclaimed, "Your majesty speaks by the special assistance of God's Spirit." And the Bishop of London fell upon his knees and said, "I protest my heart melts within me for joy that Almighty God, of his singular mercy, has given us such a king as, since Christ's time, has not been." This was the beginning of those royal and prelatical revilings and persecutions of the Puritans by the Stuarts and the hierarchy which drove the Puritans, in large numbers, to seek asylum in the wilds of North America.

King, JONAS, D.D., was born at Hawley, Mass., July 29, 1792; died while a missionary at Athens, Greece, May 22, 1869. He graduated at Williams College in 1816, and at Andover Seminary in 1819. For some months he was engaged in missionary work in South Carolina; and he went to Palestine in the same work in 1826, where he remained about three years. Reaching Boston in the fall of 1827, he was employed as missionary in the Northern and Middle States, and in July, 1828, he entered upon the Greek mission. A year later he married a Greek maiden, and remained in that country until his death. Before 1867 he had translated and printed, in modern Greek, five volumes of the American Tract Society's publications. He also published four volumes of his own works in that language. Mr. King was one of the most efficient workers in the missionary field, and was a remarkable man.

King Philip's War. Massasoit kept his treaty of friendship with the Plymouth Colony faithfully until his death. His eldest son, Metacomet, or Philip, resumed the covenants with the English on the death of his father and kept them inviolate a dozen years. As he saw spreading settlements reducing his domains, acre by acre, his hunting-grounds broken up, his fisheries diminished, and his nation menaced with servitude or annihilation, his patriotism was so violently aroused that he listened to his hot young warriors, who counselled war for the extermination of the white people. His

Phillip alias Metacomo
his P marke

PORTRAIT AND SIGN-MANUAL OF KING PHILIP.

capital was at Mount Hope, a conical hill, three hundred feet high, not far from the eastern shore of Narraganset Bay. There he reigned supreme over the Pokanokets and Wampanoags, and there he planned a confederacy of several New England tribes, comprising about 5000 souls. It was done secretly and with great skill. John Sassamon, who had been educated at Harvard, and was a sort of secretary for Philip, betrayed him, and the Wampanoags slew their secret enemy. For this act three of them were arrested on a charge of murder and were hanged. The anger of the nation was thereby fiercely kindled against the English, and they could not be restrained by the cautious Philip. He sent his women and children to the Narragansets for protection, and proclaimed war. He struck the first blow at Swanzey (July 4, 1675, N. S.), thirty-five miles southwest of Plymouth, when the people were just returning from public worship, on a fast-day. Many were slain or captured. The surrounding settlements were aroused. The men of Boston, horse and foot, under Major Savage, joined the Plymouth forces, and all pressed towards Mount Hope. Philip and his warriors had fled to a swamp at Pocasset (Tiverton). There he was besieged many days, but finally escaped and took refuge with the Nipmucks, an interior tribe in Massachusetts, who espoused his cause; and, with 1500 warriors, Philip hastened towards the white settlements in the distant valley of the Connecticut. Meanwhile, the little colonial army had reached the Narraganset country and extorted a treaty of friendship from Canonchet, the chief sachem of that powerful tribe. The news of this discouraged Philip, and he saw that only in energetic action was there hope for him. He aroused other tribes, and attempted a war of extermination by the secret and efficient methods of treachery, ambush, and surprise. Men in fields, families in their beds at midnight, and congregations in houses of worship were attacked and massacred. They swept along the borders of the English settlements like a scythe of death for several months, and it seemed at one time as if the whole European population would be annihilated. From Springfield north to the Vermont line the valley of the Connecticut was desolated. Twenty Englishmen sent to treat with the Nipmucks were nearly all treacherously slain (Aug. 12, 1675) near Brookfield. They fired that village, but it was partially saved by a shower of rain. Early in September (12) Deerfield was laid in ashes. On the same Sabbath-day Hadley, farther down the river, was attacked while the people were worshipping. A venerable-looking man, with white hair and beard, suddenly appeared, with a glittering sword, and led the people to a charge that dispersed the Indians, and then as suddenly disappeared. (See *Goffe, William.*) Over other settlements the scourge swept mercilessly. Many valiant young men, under Captain Beers, were slain in Northfield (Sept. 23), and others—"the flower of Essex"—under Captain Lathrop, were butchered by 1000 Indians near Deerfield. Encouraged by these successes, Philip now determined to attack Hatfield, the chief white settlement above Springfield. The Springfield Indians joined him, and with 1000 warriors he fell upon the settlement (Oct. 29); but the English being prepared, he was repulsed with

MOUNT HOPE.

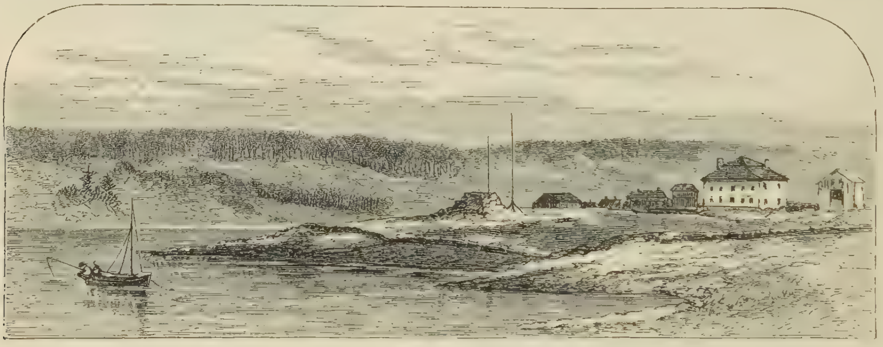
great loss. Alarmed, he moved towards Rhode Island, where the Narragansets, in violation of their treaty, received him and joined him on the war-path. Fifteen hundred men from Massachusetts, Plymouth, and Connecticut marched to chastise Canonchet for his perfidy. They found the treacherous Indians with Philip, 3000 in number, in a fort within a swamp (South Kingston, R. I.), where their winter provisions had been gathered. Before that feeble palisade the English stood on a stormy day (Dec. 19). They began a siege, and in a few hours 500 wigwams, with the provisions, were in flames. Hundreds of men, women, and children perished in the fire. Full 1000 warriors were slain or wounded, and several hundred were made prisoners. The English lost 86 killed and 150 wounded. Canonchet was slain, but Philip escaped and took refuge again with the Nipmucks. During the winter (1675–76) he vainly asked the Mohawks to join him, but tribes eastward of Massachusetts became his allies. In the spring of 1676 the work of destruction began. In the course of a few weeks the war extended over a space of almost 300 miles. Weymouth, Groton, Medfield, Lancaster, and Marlborough, in Massachusetts, were laid in ashes. Warwick and Providence, in Rhode Island, were burned, and isolated dwellings of settlers were everywhere laid waste. About 600 inhabitants of New England were killed in battle or murdered; twelve or thirteen towns were destroyed entirely, and about 600 buildings, chiefly dwelling-houses, were burned. The colonists had contracted an enormous debt for that period. Quarrels at length weakened the savages. The Nipmucks and Narragansets charged their misfortunes to the ambition of Philip, and they deserted him. Some of the tribes surrendered to avoid starvation; others went to Canada, while Captain Church, one of the most famous of the English leaders, went out to hunt and destroy the fugitives. Philip was chased from one hiding-place to another. He retired to Mount Hope (August, 1676) discouraged. A few days afterwards his wife and little son were made prisoners. He was now crushed. "My heart breaks," he said, "I am ready to die." A faithless Indian shot him a few days afterwards, and Captain Church cut off his head, and it was carried on a pole into Plymouth. His body was quartered, and his wife and little son were sold into slavery in Bermuda. So perished the last of the Wampanoag princes, and so was broken forever the power of the New England Indians. The estimated white population at that time was not more than 50,000 souls; and from the end of that war began the uninterrupted growth of New England.

King, Rufus, LL.D., was born at Scarborough, Me., March 14, 1755; died at Jamaica, L. I., April 29, 1827. He graduated at Harvard in 1777; studied law with Theophilus Parsons, at Newburyport, and in 1778 became aide-de-camp on General Glover's staff, in the expedition against the British on Rhode Island. In 1785 he was an earnest advocate of the absolute freedom of the slaves, to be secured by the operation of an act of Congress, making such freedom a fundamental principle of the Constitution. In 1786 Mr. King married a daughter of John Alsop, an opulent merchant in New York, and made that city his future residence. He and General Schuyler were chosen the first representatives of New York in the national Senate in 1789, under the new Constitution. Mr. King was a leading Federalist. From 1798 to 1804 he was American minister to Great Britain; and in 1818 he was sent to the United States Senate for the third time. He was an able leader of the opposition to the admission of Missouri under the terms of the compromise as a slave-labor state. In 1825 he accepted the appointment of minister to England, but returned in feeble health the next year.

RUFUS KING.

King, William Rufus, was born in Sampson County, N. C., April 7, 1796; died at Cahawba, Ala., April 18, 1853. He graduated at the University of North Carolina in 1803; practised law, and served in the Legislature of his state. He was a member of Congress (1810–16), and for two years (1817–19) was secretary of legation to Russia. On his return he became a cotton-planter in Alabama, and was United States Senator from 1819 to 1846, and from 1847 to 1852, being minister to France during the two years he was out of the Senate. Mr. King was elected Vice-President of the United States in 1852, but died a few weeks after his inauguration. He was a member of Congress forty years, uniformly acting with the Democratic party.

King William's War. The first inter-colonial war in America was so called because it occurred at the beginning of the reign of William and Mary, and continued seven years. The accession of these Protestant monarchs caused disaster to the more northerly English-American colonists, for, the French king having espoused the cause of James, war between England and France soon began, and extended to their respective colonies in America. When the declaration of war between the two nations reached America, the Eastern Indians were easily excited to make war by the Baron de Castine, seated at the mouth of the Penobscot (see *Castine, Baron de*), and the Jesuit missionaries among the barbarians. The recent revocation of the Edict of Nantes had kindled fiercely the fires of persecution in France (see *Edict of Nantes*), and the heat was felt in America. Through these Jesuits, the Indians were made allies of the French, and the two races were frequently found on the war-path together, accompanied by a father confessor. The Indians, remembering the treachery of Major Waldron, at Dover (see *Puritans and Indians*) fearfully slaked their thirst for vengeance there. It was the first town attacked (July 7, 1689), when the venerable Major Waldron and twenty others of the garrison were killed (see *Waldron*) and twenty-nine made captives and sold as servants to the French in Canada. Instigated by Father Thury, a Jesuit, an Indian war-party fell (Aug. 12) upon the English stockade at Pemmaquid, built by Andros, and captured the garrison. A few months later Frontenac, Governor of Canada, sent a party of three hundred French and Indian warriors from Montreal (see *Frontenac*) to penetrate the country towards Albany. On a gloomy night in the winter (Feb. 18, 1690), when the snow lay twenty inches deep in the Mohawk valley, they fell upon the frontier town of Schenectady, massacred many of the people, and burned the village. (See *Schenectady.*) Early in the spring, Salmon Falls, near Piscataqua, was surprised (March 28) and thirty of its inhabitants were killed; and the attacking party, on its way homeward, met a third party that had come from Quebec and joined them in destroying the fort and settlement at Casco, where a similar attack had been repulsed by the famous Captain Church. Other Eastern villages suffered. All the colonies were aroused by these atrocities, and the New England people resolved on speedy retaliation. In May (1690) Massachusetts fitted out an expedition under Sir William Phipps, who, with nine vessels and eight hundred men, seized Port Royal, in Acadia, and obtained sufficient plunder there to pay the expenses of the enterprise. In June, Port Royal was again plundered by English privateers from the West Indies. Then the colonies of New England and New York joined in efforts to conquer Canada. A land and naval expedition was arranged, the former commanded by a son of Governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, to go from New York by way of Lake Champlain to attack Montreal; and the latter, fitted out by Massachusetts alone, and commanded by Sir William Phipps, to attack Quebec. Phipps's armament consisted of thirty-four vessels and two thousand men. The expenses of the land expedition were borne jointly by Connecticut and New York. Both were unsuccessful. Some of Winthrop's troops, with Iroquois warriors under Colonel Schuyler, pushed towards the St. Lawrence and were repulsed (August, 1690) by Frontenac. The remainder did not go farther than the head of Lake Champlain. Phipps reached Quebec at about the middle of October, landed some of his troops near, but, finding the city too strongly fortified to warrant a siege, he returned to Boston before the winter set in. Having no chart to guide him, Phipps had been nine weeks cautiously making his way around Acadia and up the St. Lawrence. Massachusetts was compelled to issue bills of credit, or paper-money, to defray the expenses of the expedition. (See *Bills of Credit.*) Fierce forays by the French and Indians continued along the New England frontiers. The English were held up to the Indians by the Jesuits not only as enemies, but as heretics, upon whom it was a Christian duty to make war. The Indians were encouraged, too, to make forays for the capture of women and children, for whom they found a ready market, as servants, in Canada. About one hundred persons were killed or made captive (July 28, 1694) at Durham, ten miles from Portsmouth. Two years later Baron de Castine and a large force of French and Indians captured the garrison at Pemmaquid. Haverhill, thirty-three miles from Boston, was attacked (March, 1697), and forty persons were killed or made captive; and during the ensuing summer more remote settlements suffered greatly. This distressing



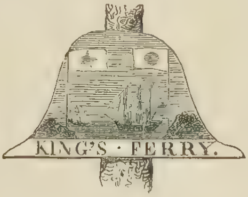
OLD FORT FREDERICK AT PEMMAQUID.

warfare was closed the same year by the treaty of Ryswick, Sept. 20, 1697.

Kingcraft and Republicanism. Notwithstanding Louis XVI. yielded to his ministers in the matter of assisting the Americans, he hated republicans, and could hardly endure the presence of Franklin, while Queen Maria Antoinette admired him. Lord Stormont, the English ambassador at Paris, said that the king would sometimes break out into a passion when he heard of help furnished to the Americans. In April and May, 1777, Joseph II., of Austria, was six weeks in Paris. He was silent in conversation on American affairs, or took sides against them, a position then unpopular in Paris. One day he excused himself to a lady who was a friend of the Americans by saying: "You know, madam, I am a king by trade." He would not permit a visit from Franklin and Deane, nor consent to meet them in his walks.

King's (now Columbia) **College**, one of the higher institutions of learning established in the English-American colonies. In 1746 an act was passed by the Colonial Assembly of New York for raising £2250, by lottery, "for the encouragement of learning and towards the founding of a college." The sum was increased in 1751, and intrusted to ten trustees, one of whom was a Presbyterian, two were of the Dutch Reformed Church, and seven were Episcopalians. Rev. Samuel Johnson, of Stratford, Conn., was invited, in 1753, to become president of the proposed institution, and a royal charter constituting King's College was granted Oct. 31, 1754. The organization was effected in May, 1755. The persons named in the charter as governors of the college were the Archbishop of Canterbury, the principal civil officers of the colony, the principal clergymen of the five denominations of Christians in the city of New York, and twenty private gentlemen. The college opened July 17, 1754, with a class of eight, under Dr. Johnson, sole instructor, in the vestry-room of Trinity Church. The corner-stone of the college building was laid Aug. 23, 1756, on the block now bounded by Murray, Church, and Barclay streets and College Place. It faced the Hudson River and "was the most beautifully situated of any college in the world." The first commencement was on June 21, 1758, when about twenty students were graduated. In 1767 a grant was made in the New Hampshire Grants of twenty-four thousand acres of land, but it was lost by the separation of that part of Vermont from New York. (See *New Hampshire Grants.*) In 1762 Rev. Myles Cooper was sent over by the Archbishop of Canterbury to become a "fellow" of the college. He was a strong loyalist, and had a pamphlet controversy with young Alexander Hamilton, one of his pupils. Cooper became president of the college, and so obnoxious were his politics that the college was attacked by the "Sons of Liberty" and a mob in New York on the night of May 10, 1775, and he was obliged to flee for his life. Rev. Benjamin Moore (afterwards bishop of the diocese) succeeded him. The college was prepared for the reception of troops the next year, when the students were dispersed, the library and apparatus were stored in the City Hall, and mostly lost, and the building became a military hospital. About six hundred of the volumes were recovered thirty years afterwards in a room in St. Paul's Chapel, when none but the sexton knew of their existence. In 1784 regents of a state university were appointed, who took charge of what property belonged to the institution and changed its name to Columbia College, which it still retains. There was no president for several years. In 1787 the original charter was confirmed by the State Legislature, and the college was placed in charge of twenty-four trustees. On May 21, 1787, William Samuel Johnson, LL.D., son of the first president, was chosen to fill his father's place, and the college started on a prosperous career. A new charter was obtained in 1810. A medical and law school was established, and in 1828 the Hon. James Kent delivered a course of law lectures in the college that formed the basis of his famous *Commentaries.* The college occupied the original site until 1857, when it was removed to its present location, between Madison and Fourth avenues and Forty-ninth and Fiftieth streets. The College of Physicians and Surgeons constitutes the medical department of Columbia College. Connected with it is also a "School of Mines." It has had eleven presidents from 1754 to 1876.

King's Ferry, The. Between Stony Point and Verplanck's Point, on the Hudson River, just below the lower entrance to the Highlands, was an important crossing-place, known as the King's Ferry. It was by this ferry that the great route from the Eastern to the Middle States crossed the Hudson. It was defended by two forts—Stony Point on the west side and Fort Lafayette, at Verplanck's Point, on the east. Sir Henry Clinton resolved to seize this ferry and its defences. On the return of the expedition of Matthews and Collier from Virginia, Sir Henry ascended the Hudson with the same squadron and six thousand soldiers. He landed his troops on both sides of the river (May 31, 1779), a few miles below the forts. The works on Stony Point were unfinished, and, on the approach of the British, were abandoned. Cannons were placed on its outer works and brought to bear on the fort at Verplanck's Point, which, invested on the land side, was compelled to surrender (June 1), after a spirited resistance. So the direct route across the river from the Eastern States was closed for a short time.


KING'S · FERRY.

OLD SIGN.

King's Mountain, Battle on (1780). Major Patrick Ferguson was sent by Cornwallis to embody the Tory militia among the mountains west of the Broad River. Many profligate men joined his standard, and he crossed the Broad River at the Cherokee Ford (Oct. 1, 1780) and encamped among the hills of King's Mountain, near the line between North and South Carolina, with about fifteen hundred men. Several corps of Whig militia, under colonels Shelby, Sevier, Campbell, and others, united to oppose Ferguson, and on the 7th of October they fell upon his camp among a cluster of high, wooded, gravelly hills of King's Mountain. A very severe engagement ensued, and the British forces were totally defeated. Ferguson was slain, and three hundred of his men were killed or wounded. The spoils of victory were eight hundred prisoners and fifteen hundred stand of arms. The loss of the Americans was twenty men. The event was to Cornwallis what the defeat of the British near Bennington was to Burgoyne. Among the prisoners were some of the most cruel Tories of the western Carolinas, who had executed the severe orders of Cornwallis. Ten of them, after a trial by "drum-head court-martial," were hung on the limb of a great tulip-tree. On the spot where Ferguson fell, a small monument was erected to commemorate the event and to the memory of some of the patriots killed in the battle. The annihilation of Ferguson's corps crushed the spirits of the loyalists.

VIEW AT KING'S MOUNTAIN BATTLE-GROUND.

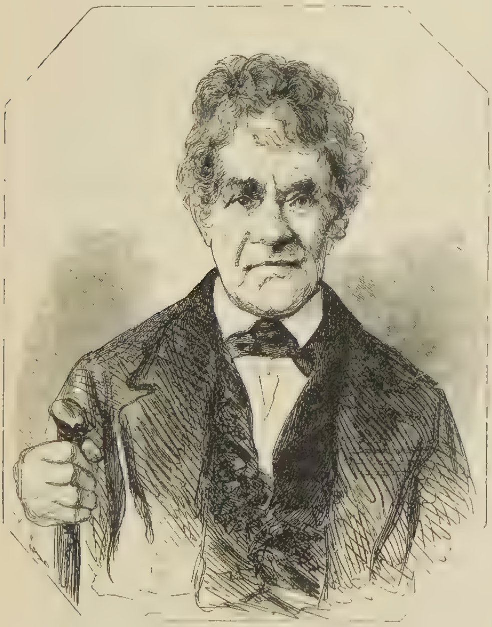
MONUMENT ON KING'S MOUNTAIN.

King's Mountain, Effects of the Battle on. The effect of the defeat of the British was similar upon the movements of Cornwallis to that of the battle of Bennington on the fate of Burgoyne. It changed the aspects of the war in the South. It awed the Tories and encouraged the Whigs. The mustering of forces beyond the mountains to oppose his movements took Cornwallis by surprise. It quickened the North Carolina Legislature into more vigorous action, and it caused a general uprising of the patriots of the South, and suddenly convinced their oppressor that his march through North Carolina to the conquest of Virginia was not to be a mere recreation. Met by North Carolinians at Charlotte, he was compelled to fall back to the Catawba, and his experience in that winter campaign was marked by great perplexities and disasters. (See *King's Mountain, Battle on*, and *Guilford, Battle at.*)

King's Province. In 1683 a new royal commission was named for the settlement of boundary disputes between Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Plymouth. Its members being principally selected from Massachusetts and Connecticut, Rhode Island objected to them as not disinterested; and when they proceeded to hold a session within the disputed territory, the Rhode Island Assembly met near by and forbade them to "hold court" within the jurisdiction of the province. The commission adjourned to Boston, and reported to the king (1686) that the Narraganset country (the southwestern continental half of the present State of Rhode Island) belonged to Connecticut; this domain was called the King's Province for a while, but was under the jurisdiction of Joseph Dudley, the temporary royal governor of Massachusetts. He proceeded to organize there an independent government, and changed the names of the towns. (See *Consolidation of Connecticut and New Haven.*)

Kingston, Burning of (1777). Sir Henry Clinton's success in capturing forts Clinton and Montgomery emboldened him to send a marauding expedition up the Hudson to make a diversion in favor of Burgoyne, hoping thereby to draw many troops from the army of Gates to defend the exposed country below. Early on the morning after the capture of the forts (Oct. 7, 1777), the boom and chain were severed, and a flying squadron of light armed vessels under Sir James Wallace (see *Gaspee, Affair of the*), bearing the whole of Sir Henry's land-force, went up the river to devastate its shores. Sir Henry wrote a despatch to Burgoyne on a piece of tissue-paper, saying, "We are here, and nothing between us and Gates," and enclosing it in a small, hollow bullet, elliptical in form, gave it to a messenger to convey to the despairing general. (See *Clinton's Despatch.*) The messenger was arrested in Orange County as a spy. He swallowed the bullet, which an emetic compelled him to disgorge. The message was found and the spy was hanged. The marauding force, meanwhile, spread havoc and consternation along the shores. The Legislature of the newly organized State of New York were then in session at Kingston, Ulster Co. The marauders went thither and burned the village (Oct. 7), the Legislature having escaped with their papers. Then they crossed over to the village of Rhinebeck Flats, and after destroying much property there, went up to Livingston's Manor and applied the torch. There they heard of Burgoyne's defeat, when the marauders hastened to their vessels and returned to New York. So ended the efforts to carry out the plan of the British ministry (which see).

Kinnison, DAVID, last survivor of the Boston Tea-party (which see), was born at Old Kingston, near Portsmouth, R. I., Nov. 17, 1736; died in Chicago, Feb. 24, 1851, at the age of 115 years. With a few neighbors, at Lebanon, Conn. (where he was a farmer), he went to Boston to assist in destroying the tea destined for that port. During the war for independence he was in active service, in the latter part of which he was a prisoner among the Indians more than a year and a half. He lived in different places until the breaking-out of the War of 1812–15, during which he was engaged in the military service of his country. He went to Chicago in 1845. Mr. Kinnison married three times, and was the father of twenty-eight children. He learned to read when he was past sixty years of age, and, until within four years of his death, he earned his living by the work of his own hands.



DAVID KINNISON.

Kirkland, SAMUEL, missionary to the Indians, was born at Norwich, Conn., Dec. 1, 1744; died at Clinton, Oneida Co., N. Y., Feb. 28, 1808. He graduated at Princeton in 1765. At the school of Rev. E. Wheelock, he learned the Mohawk language, and, by sojourns among the Senecas, their language also. After the affair at Lexington, the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts requested him to use his influence to secure either the friendship or neutrality of the Six Nations (which see). He was instrumental in attaching the Oneidas to the patriot cause. He labored with that nation as a missionary of religion and patriotism during the war, when the other tribes of that confederacy, through the influence of Brant and the Johnsons, had taken the opposite side. He accompanied Sullivan in his expedition against the Senecas in 1779. Mr. Kirkland was the founder of Hamilton College. Having been granted by the government a tract of land two miles square in the present town of Kirkland, Oneida Co., he removed there in 1789.

SAMUEL KIRKLAND.

Kitchen Cabinet. An appellation in common use during the administration of President Jackson, of which Francis P. Blair and Amos Kendall were the recipients. Blair was the editor of *The Globe*, the organ of the administration, and Kendall was one of its principal contributors. These two men were frequently consulted by the President as confidential advisers. To avoid observation when they called on him, they entered the President's dwelling by a back door. On this account the Opposition party, who believed the advice of these two men caused Jackson to fill nearly all the offices with Democrats, after turning out the incumbents, called them in derision the "Kitchen Cabinet."

Kittanning, DESTRUCTION OF. In consequence of repeated injuries from the white people of Pennsylvania, the Delawares had become bitterly hostile in 1756. They committed many depredations, and early in September Colonel John Armstrong marched against the Indian town of Kittanning, on the Alleghany River, about forty-five miles northeast from Pittsburg. He approached the village stealthily, and fell upon the barbarians furiously with about three hundred men at three o'clock in the morning (Sept. 8, 1756). The Indians refusing the quarter which was offered them, Colonel Armstrong ordered their wigwams to be set on fire. Their leader, Captain Jacobs, and his wife and son were killed; many were destroyed in their burning houses, and those who were slain were scalped. Between thirty and forty Indians were destroyed, and eleven English prisoners were released.

Knights of the Golden Circle. These were men banded for the overthrow of the government of the United States. They were a secret society, and were first organized for action in the slave-labor states. They were pledged to assist in the accomplishment of the designs of those who were intent upon the establishment of an empire within the limits of the Golden Circle (which see). It was the soul of the filibustering movements in Central America and Cuba from 1850 to 1857 (see *Nicaragua*); and when these failed, the knights concentrated their energies for the accomplishment of their prime object—the destruction of the Union and the perpetuation of slavery. The subordinate organizations were called "castles." When the secession movement began, these knights became specially active in Texas. When the disloyal Peace faction made its appearance in the North, an alliance between the leading members of it and the Knights of the Golden Circle was formed, and the "order" became very numerous and formidable in some of the free-labor states, especially in the West. The writer, in New Orleans, in April, 1861, heard a New York journalist tell a group of Secessionists that he belonged to a secret order in that city, 50,000 strong, who would sooner fight for the South than for the North. An army chaplain was told by a Confederate officer, just before the Draft Riot in New York (which see), "You will be surprised at the number of friends we have in your very midst; friends who, when the time comes, will destroy your railroads, your telegraph-wires, your government stores and property, and thus facilitate the glorious invasion [Lee's] now breaking you in pieces." At about that time the knights in the West held a meeting at Springfield, Ill. (June 10, 1863), when it was resolved to make the draft a pretext for revolution, and measures were accordingly adopted. It was arranged that New York should take the initiative. The plan was for each state to assume its "independent sovereignty." The government having failed to suppress the insurrection, the Union was dissolved into its original elements, each of which was left at liberty to form any new combination. Morgan's Raid in Indiana and Ohio (which see) was a part of the plan of that revolution. It was supposed that the Knights of the Golden Circle and the members of the peace faction would rise and join him by thousands. In this he was mistaken.

Knowlton, THOMAS, was born at West Boxford, Mass., Nov. 30, 1740; died Sept. 16, 1776. He was a soldier of the French and Indian War, and assisted in the reduction of Havana in 1762. He was in the Ashford militia at Lexington, April 19, 1775, and was selected as one of the fatigue party to fortify Bunker's Hill. In action there he fought bravely. A regiment of light infantry, which formed the van of the American army at New York, was commanded by him, and he was commissioned lieutenant-colonel of a regiment of rangers selected from the Connecticut troops. He fell in the battle of Harlem Plains, and his character was eulogized by Washington in general orders.

Knox, HENRY, was born in Boston, July 25, 1750; died at Thomaston, Me., Oct. 25, 1806. He was of Scotch-Irish stock. Young Knox became a thriving bookseller in Boston, and married Lucy, daughter of Secretary Flucker. He belonged to an artillery company when the Revolution began, and his skill as an engineer artillerist on the staff of General Artemas Ward attracted the attention of Washington. In November (1775) he was placed in command of the artillery, and was employed successfully in bringing cannons from captured forts on Lake Champlain and on the Canadian frontier to Cambridge, for the use of the besieging army. Knox was made a brigadier-general in December, 1776, and was the chief commander of the artillery of the main army throughout the whole war, being conspicuous in all the principal actions. Knox was one of the court of inquiry in Major André's case; was in command at West Point after hostilities had ceased, and arranged for the surrender of New York. At Knox's suggestion, the Society of the Cincinnati (which see) was established. He was Secretary of War before and after Washington became President of the United States (1781–1795), and when he left office he settled at Thomaston, where he administered the most generous hospitality. Swallowing a chicken-bone caused his death. General Knox was frequently called into civil life.

HENRY KNOX.

Knoxville, SIEGE OF (1863). In making efforts to purge East Tennessee of Confederates, Burnside scattered his forces considerably. Perceiving this, Bragg sent Longstreet to the valley of East Tennessee with a strong force to seize Knoxville and drive out the Nationals. He advanced swiftly and secretly; and on Oct. 20 (1863) he struck a startling blow at Burnside's outposts at Philadelphia, on the railway southwest of Loudon. Burnside, perceiving his peril, concentrated his forces at Knoxville, behind his intrenchments there. The chief of these was an unfinished work on a hill commanding the southwestern approaches to the town. Longstreet followed rapidly. Wheeler and Forrest, with their cavalry, dashed up to the heights on which this work was situated to seize the hill, and on Nov. 16 attacked the Nationals there, where General W. P. Sanders, of Kentucky, was in command. The National troops on the right were driven from a ridge they occupied, and Longstreet made his headquarters near the bank of the Holston River, less than a mile from the works to be assailed. In this attack General Sanders was killed, and the National loss besides was about one hundred men. Then Longstreet's cavalry were sent to cut off Burnside's supplies and line of retreat, and Knoxville was closely invested. Longstreet believed starvation would soon compel Burnside to surrender. He was mistaken. The latter made sorties from his strong intrenchments. Finally Longstreet threw a force (Nov. 25) across the Holston to seize the heights south of the river that commanded Knoxville. In a sharp conflict that ensued the Confederates were defeated, but they seized a knoll lower down, and planted a battery on it that commanded the fort at Knoxville. At that moment Longstreet received news of Bragg's defeat at Missionaries' Ridge (which see), and he well knew that troops from Grant would soon be upon his rear. So he determined to storm Knoxville at once, before aid could reach Burnside. At the same time he received some reinforcements. At eleven o'clock on a dark and stormy Saturday night (Nov. 28) Longstreet proceeded to assail the principal work, called Fort Sanders. He drove in the National advance and seized the rifle-pits, and the next morning opened a furious cannonade, which was soon followed by a rush of the Confederates, with tremendous yells, to storm the fort. They were the flower of Longstreet's army. The Nationals had formed a net-work of wire from stump to stump in front of the fort, and in this the storming-party became fearfully entangled and bewildered, while the guns of the fort, double shotted, made havoc in their ranks. The assailants finally gained the ditch and attempted to scale the parapet, and one officer reached the summit and planted a Mississippi flag there, but instantly his dead body and the flag fell into the ditch. Very soon three hundred of the assailants in the ditch surrendered, and the assault ceased. Heavy columns of National troops were now approaching Longstreet's rear, under Sherman, commanded by Granger, Howard, Davis, and Blair. Longstreet, perceiving his peril, raised the siege (Dec. 3), and retreated towards Virginia.

Knyphausen (Baron), DODO HENRY, Hessian commander, was born in Alsace in 1730; died in Berlin, Prussia, May 2, 1789. He began his military career in the service of the father of Frederick the Great. He arrived in America in June, 1776, and was first engaged in battle here in that of Long Island in August following. (See *German Mercenaries.*) Knyphausen was in the battle of White Plains; assisted in the capture of Fort Washington, which was named by its captors Fort Knyphausen; was conspicuous in the battle of Brandywine in 1777, and in Monmouth in 1778; and commanded an expedition to Springfield (which see) in June, 1780. In the absence of Sir Henry Clinton he was in command of the city of New York.

Kosciuszko, THADDEUS, was born in Lithuania, Poland, Feb. 12, 1756; died at Soleure, Switzerland, Oct. 16, 1817. He was of noble descent, and was educated at the military academy at Warsaw; also in France at the expense of the Polish government. He entered the Polish army as captain, but an unhappy passion for the daughter of the Marshal of Lithuania caused him to leave his country and offer his services to the Americans. He arrived in 1776, with a note of introduction and recommendation to Washington by Dr. Franklin. "What do you seek here?" inquired the chief. "I come to fight as a volunteer for American independence," answered Kosciuszko. "What can you do?" asked Washington. "Try me," was the quick reply. He entered Washington's military family (Oct. 18, 1776) as colonel of engineers. He planned the fortified camp of General Gates at Bemis's Heights in 1777, and was the principal engineer in constructing the works at West Point, on the Hudson. Attached to Greene's army in the South, he was the engineer in the siege of Ninety-six (which see) in June, 1781. For his services in the Continental army he received the thanks of the Congress, the Order of the Cincinnati, and the brevet of brigadier-general. Returning to Poland, he fought against the Russians under Poniatowski in 1792; but the Polish patriots were defeated, and Kosciuszko retired to Leipsic. Another rising of the Poles occurred in 1794, when Kosciuszko was placed at the head of the insurgents as dictator, and with five thousand peasants, armed mostly with scythes, he routed nearly twice that number of Russians at Raclawice, April 4. Committing the conduct of a provisional government to a national council, he marched against his enemies. In Warsaw he was besieged by a combined army of Russians and Prussians. These, after several bloody conflicts, were compelled

THADDEUS KOSCIUSZKO.

by the Polish chief to raise the siege. Austria had joined the assailants of the Poles, and with an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men fell upon and crushed them (Oct. 10) at Maciejowice. Kosciuszko fought gallantly, and fell covered with wounds, uttering the sadly prophetic words, afterwards fulfilled, *Finis Poloniæ!* He was made captive, and was imprisoned at St. Petersburg until the accession of the Emperor Paul, who set him at liberty, and offered Kosciuszko his own sword. It was refused, the Polish patriot saying, "I have no need of a sword, since I have no country to defend." In 1797 he visited the United States, where he was warmly welcomed, and received, in addition to a pension, a grant of land by Congress. He resided near Fontainebleau, in France; and when Bonaparte became emperor in 1806, he tried to enlist Kosciuszko in his schemes in relation to Poland. Kosciuszko refused to lend his services except on condition of a guarantee of Polish freedom. He went to live at Soleure in 1816, where he was killed by a fall from his horse over a precipice. The remains of this true nobleman of Poland lie beside those of Sobieski and Poniatowski in the cathedral church at Cracow. An elegant monument of white marble was erected to his memory at West Point by the cadet corps of 1828, at a cost of $5000.

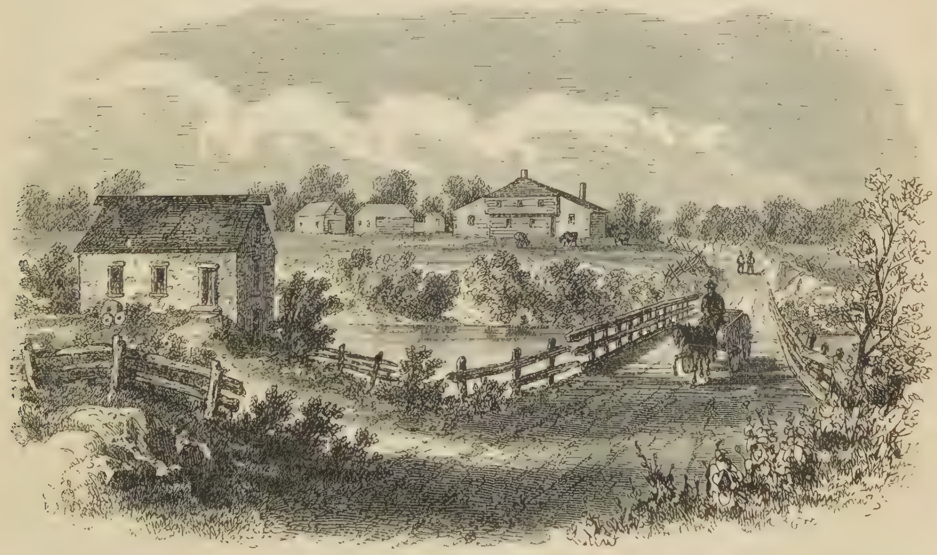
Kossuth at the National Capital. Louis Kossuth, the exiled governor of Hungary, arrived at Washington at the close of December, 1851. He was received by two United States Senators and the marshal of the district. The Secretary of State (Daniel Webster) waited upon him; so also did many members of Congress. On the 31st he was presented to President Fillmore by Mr. Webster, who received him cordially. On Jan. 5, 1852, he was introduced to the Senate. He entered the Senate chamber accompanied by Senators Cass and Seward. General Shields introduced him. The Senate adjourned, and the members all paid their personal respects to the distinguished exile. He then visited the House of Representatives, where he was warmly received by the speaker and most of the members. Then he was introduced to each member personally, and presented to an immense crowd of ladies and gentlemen who had assembled. A congressional banquet was given him at the National Hotel, at which W. R. King, President of the Senate, presided, Kossuth and Speaker Boyd being on his right hand, and Secretary Webster on his left. On that occasion Kossuth delivered one of his most effective speeches. Mr. Webster concluded his remarks with the following sentiment: "Hungarian independence, Hungarian control of her own destinies, and Hungary as a distinct nationality among the nations of Europe." After Kossuth's departure there were debates in Congress on propositions for the United States to lend material aid to the people of Hungary, struggling for national independence; but the final determination was that the United States should not change its uniform policy of neutrality in favor of Hungary. The cordial reception of Kossuth everywhere, and the magnetic power of his eloquence over every audience, were gratifying and wonderful. A contemporary wrote: "The circumstances attending the reception of Kossuth constituted one of the most extraordinary spectacles the New World had ever yet beheld."

Kossuth's Visit to the United States. In February, 1848, the French people drove Louis Philippe from the throne of France and formed a temporary republic. A revolutionary spirit rapidly spread its influence over Europe, and in a few months almost every country on the Continent was in a state of political agitation. The monarchs made many concessions to the people. Hungary attempted to cast off the yoke of Austria, but did not succeed because of the crushing weight of a Russian army acting for the oppressor. Louis Kossuth, Governor of Hungary, always led the patriots in their struggle for freedom. He was one of the most extraordinary men of his age. On the failure of the revolutionary movements in 1849, he took refuge in Turkey. The Austrian government demanded his extradition. The United States and England interfered, and he was allowed to depart into exile, with his family and friends. The United States government sent the war-steamer *Mississippi* to bring him hither, and early in the autumn of 1851 he embarked for this country. While in exile in Turkey and in prison, he employed his time in studying living languages, and he was enabled to address the people of the West in the English, German, French, and Italian languages. He went to Great Britain, and made a tour through the most populous cities of the kingdom. He arrived at New York Dec. 5, 1851, accompanied by his wife and Mr. and Mrs. Pulszky. Here he addressed public meetings and deputations in various Northern cities, and in all his speeches he showed a most intimate knowledge of American history and institutions. His theme was a plea for sympathy and substantial aid for his country, Hungary. He wished to obtain the acknowledgment of the claims of Hungary to independence, and the interference of the United States and Great Britain, jointly, in behalf of the principle of non-intervention, which would allow the nations of Europe fair play in their renewed struggle for liberty. He constantly asserted that grand principle that one nation has no right to interfere with the domestic concerns of another, and that all nations are bound to use their efforts to prevent such interference. The government of the United States, to which he appealed, assuming its traditional attitude of neutrality in all quarrels in Europe, declined to lend aid, excepting the moral power of expressed sympathy. Kossuth called for private contributions in aid of the struggle of his people for independence, and received more assurances of sympathy than dollars, for there seemed to be a reaction in Europe, and the chance for Hungarian independence appeared more remote than ever. He was received with great distinction at Washington by the President and Congress, and returned to Europe in July, 1852.

L.

La Borde, MAXIMILIAN, son of a French emigrant from Bordeaux, was born in Edgefield District, S. C., in 1804. In 1820 he graduated at the South Carolina College and began the study of law, but soon abandoned it and entered the South Carolina Medical College, graduating in 1826. For thirteen years he practised the healing art in Edgefield, occasionally representing his district in the Legislature. In 1836 he was editor of the *Edgefield Advertiser*, and two years later he was elected Secretary of the State of South Carolina. His fine scholarship attracted public attention, and in 1842 La Borde was called to the chair of logic and belles-lettres in his *alma mater*. He accepted the position, and in 1845 he was transferred to the chair of metaphysics. His method of imparting knowledge was chiefly oral, but, to assist others who preferred the use of text-books, he published a manual on physiology in 1855, which became very popular in the schools of the South. He published an elaborate *History of the South Carolina College, with Sketches of its Presidents and Professors*.

Lacey, JOHN, born in Bucks County, Penn., Feb. 4, 1755; died at New Mills, N. J., Feb. 17, 1814. He was of Quaker descent, but patriotically took command of a volunteer company, and became a captain in Wayne's regiment, with which he served in Canada. Becoming a lieutenant-colonel of militia, he joined Potter's brigade at Whitemarsh, with about four hundred men. Before he was twenty-three years old he was made a brigadier-general, and was engaged in harassing duty while the British had command of Philadelphia. After the evacuation of that city by the British, he left the military life and became active in the civil service of his state, being a member of the Pennsylvania Assembly in 1778, and of the Council in 1779. He again entered the military service, and from August, 1780, to October, 1781, he was active at the head of a brigade of militia. Removing to New Jersey, he was for many years a county judge and a member of the Legislature.



LA COLLE MILL AND BLOCK-HOUSE.

La Colle Mill, BATTLE AT. In the winter of 1813–14 an American force under General Wilkinson was encamped at French Mills (now Fort Covington), in Franklin County, N. Y. (See *Expedition down the St. Lawrence*.) Early in 1814 a large portion of this force was withdrawn. A part were marched to Plattsburg. Soon afterwards (Feb. 28, 1814) a party of British soldiers advanced and destroyed some stores which the Americans had left behind. This invasion alarmed the whole frontier. Late in March, General Wilkinson attempted another invasion of Canada. He advanced up the western shore of Lake Champlain to the Canada frontier (March 30, 1814) with about four thousand picked men. They soon encountered British pickets, and drove them back. In the afternoon the Americans came in sight of La Colle Mill, a heavy stone structure, its windows barricaded with timbers, through which were loop-holes for musketry. The British garrison at the mill consisted of only about two hundred regulars, under Major Hancock. The advance of Wilkinson's troops was commanded by Colonel Isaac Clark and Major Forsyth. (See *Ogdensburg*.) The artillery was under Captain McPherson, and the reserves were commanded by General Alexander Macomb. Following Clark and Forsyth was Colonel Miller's regiment of six hundred men. Aware that reinforcements for the British were near, Wilkinson ordered an immediate attack. The fire upon the stone citadel was harmless, while the whole American line was exposed to a galling fire. For a while the fight was desperate, when Major Hancock made a sortie from the mill, and after a furious contest they were driven back. Reinforcements came to the garrison, and after a conflict of two hours Wilkinson was compelled to withdraw and abandon the invasion of Canada. The affair at La Colle Mill drew upon him so much obloquy and ridicule that he soon resigned his command and called for a court-martial.

Laconia, the name given by Gorges and Mason to the portion of New England granted to them, extending from the Merrimack to the Kennebec, and from the ocean to the St. Lawrence. The proprietors induced several merchants to join them in their adventure, and sent out a colony of fishermen, a part of whom settled at the mouth of the Piscataqua, now Portsmouth, N. H. Others settled on the site of Dover, eight miles farther up the river. The Laconia Company did not prosper, and the towns were little more than fishing-stations. (See *New Hampshire.*)

La Corne (Chevalier), PIERRE, was an active Canadian officer from 1720 to 1759, and had great influence over the Indians in connection with the Jesuit missionaries. His intimate knowledge of the Indian language gave him great power, and he was one of the most formidable enemies of the English in Nova Scotia.

Ladd, WILLIAM, was born at Exeter, N. H., May 10, 1778; died at Portsmouth, N. H., April 9, 1841. He graduated at Harvard in 1797; became an active champion of peace, and took an active part in organizing the "American Peace Society," of which he was for many years president. He wrote many essays in favor of peace, and edited the *Friend of Peace* and *Harbinger of Peace* newspapers, devoted to the cause. He went so far as to deny the right to maintain defensive war.

Lafayette at Barren Hill. To restrain British foragers and marauders, who were plundering the country for some distance around Philadelphia in the spring of 1778, Washington sent out from Valley Forge General Lafayette with about two thousand one hundred men and five pieces of artillery, to cut off all communication between Philadelphia and the country, and to obtain information concerning a rumored intention of the British to evacuate that city. Lafayette crossed the Schuylkill, and took post at Barren Hill, about half-way between Valley Forge and Philadelphia, occupying the Lutheran church there as headquarters. General Howe sent General Grant to make a secret night march to gain the rear of the marquis (May 20), and the next morning Howe marched with about six thousand men, commanded by Clinton and Knyphausen, to capture the young Frenchman and send him to England. The marquis outgeneralled the British, though they surprised him, and escaped across the Schuylkill. Howe was disappointed, for he was about to depart for England under a partial cloud of ministerial displeasure, and he hoped to close his career in America by some brilliant act.

LUTHERAN CHURCH, BARREN HILL.

Lafayette at the Tomb of Washington. Between Washington and Lafayette there had grown up a strong mutual affection during their intercourse in the scenes of the old war for independence. When at the seat of government in October, 1824, while on a visit to the United States, the marquis was conducted to Mount Vernon by George Washington Parke Custis, the adopted son of Washington, with whom George W. Lafayette had lived in the mansion of the great patriot while Lafayette was an exile from France and in a prison. He was conveyed from the capital in a barge, accompanied by his son, John C. Calhoun, Secretary of War, and Mr. Custis, and at the shore at Mount Vernon he was received by Lawrence Lewis, Washington's favorite nephew, and the family of Judge Bushrod Washington, who was then absent on official business. After visiting the mansion, where, forty years before, he took his last leave of the beloved patriot, the company proceeded to the tomb (the old one, on the brow of the hill), where Custis presented the marquis with a ring containing a lock of Washington's hair. He received it with emotion. The door of the vault was opened, and there were displayed the leaden caskets which contained the coffins of Washington and his wife, decorated with flowers. Lafayette entered, kissed the casket, and reverently retired.

Lafayette at Versailles. After a short winter passage from Boston to Brest, in February, 1779, Lafayette joined his family and friends in his native land. His offence in sailing for America in defiance of the king's command was atoned for by a week's exile to Paris, and confinement in the house of his father-in-law. He was then received at Versailles, when the king gently reprimanded him, while the queen eagerly sought information concerning America from his own lips. His fame made him the admired of court society as well as of the populace of the French capital. The young marquis observed with alarm that everybody was talking of peace, while America was struggling with armed champions of royalty, and he felt that the independence of the colonies was in peril. With great earnestness he pleaded for aid for the Americans, and was successful. (See *French Forces* and *French Fleet.*)

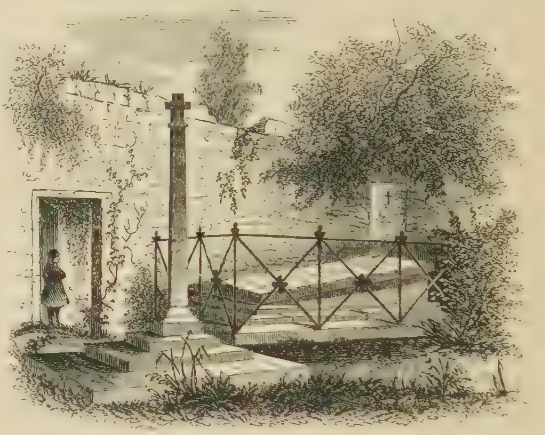
Lafayette in Virginia. Benedict Arnold led a corps of British and Tories into Virginia early in 1781, to plunder and distress that state. To afford the Virginians assistance, Lafayette was sent with a considerable body of troops, principally drafts from the New England States, and, in conjunction with Generals Wayne and Steuben, soon drove Cornwallis—who succeeded Arnold and Phillips (which see) in invading Virginia—first across the James River to Portsmouth, and thence to Yorktown.

Lafayette, LAST VISIT OF, TO THE UNITED STATES. On the 26th of January, 1824, the Senate of the United States entertained the following resolutions: "The Marquis de Lafayette having expressed his intention to revisit this country, *Resolved,* That the President be requested to communicate to him the assurances of grateful and affectionate attachment still cherished for him by the government and people of the United States. *And be it further Resolved,* That whenever the President shall be informed of the time when the marquis may be ready to embark, a national ship (with suitable accommodations) be employed to bring him to the United States." The two houses passed a joint resolution of similar tenor, and he was invited to come as the nation's guest. He declined the offer of a ship-of-the-line for his conveyance to this country. With his son, George Washington Lafayette, and his secretary, he sailed from Havre for New York, where he arrived Aug. 15, 1824. In the space of about eleven months he made a tour of about five thousand miles through the United States, visiting the principal portions, and was everywhere received with great enthusiasm. His journey was almost like a continued triumphal procession. Congress, "in consideration of his important services and expenditures during the American Revolution," voted him $200,000 in cash and a township of land; and when he was ready to depart for France, an American frigate, named, in compliment to him, *Brandywine* (his first battle in the Revolution having occurred on Brandywine Creek, Penn.), was sent by the United States government to convey him back. On his arrival at Havre, the greatness of the American Republic, which he had just left, and the littleness of the restored Bourbon dynasty, were brought in conspicuous contrast. A great concourse of people gathered to do him honor on his return were dispersed by the police.

Lafayette (Marquis de), MARIE JEAN PAUL ROCH YVES GILBERT MOTIER, was born at Cavanac, Auvergne, France, Sept. 6, 1757; died in Paris, May 19, 1834. Left an heir to an immense estate at the age of thirteen years, he received the best education that could be obtained, and at sixteen married a granddaughter of the Duke de Noailles. He entered the army as a captain of dragoons, and in the summer of 1776 he heard of the struggles of the English-American colonies. He immediately resolved to aid them, and, secretly fitting out a vessel at his own expense, he sailed for America in company with Baron de Kalb and ten or twelve other foreign military officers who came to seek service in the Continental army, and landed near Georgetown, S. C., April 19, 1777. They travelled by land to Philadelphia, where Lafayette immediately addressed a letter to Congress, asking leave to serve as a volunteer in the Continental army without pay. In consideration of his zeal and his illustrious family and connections, that body gave him the commission of major-general (July 31, 1777), and Washington invited him to become a member of his military family. He joined the Continental army near a house on Neshaminy Creek in August. At that time he was less than twenty years of age. From that time until the close of the Revolution he was the bosom friend of the commander-in-chief and the untiring and effective champion of the patriot cause in the field and at the court of his native country. He was ever ready to defend the honor of the Americans. In 1778 he challenged Lord Carlisle, one of the British commissioners, to fight a duel. (See *Manifesto of British Commissioners.*)

LAFAYETTE IN 1777. (From a French print.)

When the Americans had secured peace and independence for their country, he returned to France, and was made a major-general in the French army. In 1784 he again visited the United States, and was everywhere received with tokens of affection and respect. He became a member of the Notables at Paris in 1787, when he boldly demanded the convocation of the States-General, consisting of three orders—namely, the clergy, nobility, and commons—representatives of the whole nation. They had not met since 1614, a period of one hundred and seventy-three years. The king (Louis XVI.) convened them on May 6, 1789. There were 308 ecclesiastics, 285 nobles, and 621 deputies of the third estate, or the "common people." In July Lafayette was appointed commander-in-chief of the National Guard. When the abolition of titles was decreed, he dropped his, and was known only as General Lafayette. He resigned his command in 1790, and in 1792 commanded one of the armies sent to guard the frontiers of France against the forces of monarchs alarmed by the republican demonstrations in France. When the fierce Jacobins seized power the conservative Lafayette was denounced and his arrest decreed. He crossed the frontier, intending to take refuge in Holland. The Austrians seized him, and confined him in a dungeon five years. For a long time no intelligence of him reached his friends. Meanwhile his wife had been imprisoned at Paris during the "Reign of Terror," but had been set at liberty on the downfall of Robespierre. She hastened to Vienna, obtained a personal interview with the emperor, and gained permission to share the captivity of her husband. Great exertions were made in Europe and America to obtain his release, but in vain, until Bonaparte, at the head of an army, demanded his release. He was set at liberty Aug. 25, 1797. Towards the end of 1799 he returned to his estate of La Grange, forty miles from Paris. Bonaparte tried to bribe him with offered honors to enter public life again as senator. He refused with disdain; and when the vote for making Bonaparte first consul for life was taken, Lafayette voted *no*, and told the ambitious general so in a letter, which ended their intercourse. When Bonaparte became emperor, Lafayette took a seat in the Chamber of Deputies; and this stanch champion of constitutional government refused the offered bawble of a peerage. After the battle of Waterloo, touched with sympathy for the fallen monarch, he offered him facilities for escaping to America; but the emperor, who could not forgive Lafayette's former opposition, refused to accept the offer, and became a prisoner on St. Helena. In the French legislature Lafayette's voice was always in favor of liberal measures. In 1824 the Congress of the United States requested President Monroe to invite Lafayette to America as a guest of the Republic. He came, but declined the offer of a ship. With his son and a private secretary, he landed in New York (Aug. 15, 1824), visited in succession the whole twenty-four states, and was everywhere received with demonstrations of love and respect. He would have been received with equal respect and enthusiasm by his own people on his return had not the government interfered. During the revolution of 1830, that drove Charles X. from the throne, Lafayette was made commander-in-chief of the National Guard, in which capacity he did great public service. He sacrificed his own republican preferences for the sake of peace and order, and placed Louis Philippe on the throne. He died the acknowledged chief of the constitutional party on the Continent of Europe. He received a magnificent public funeral, when his remains were conveyed to their resting-place in the cemetery of Pigpers, a private burial-ground of several families of the nobility of Paris, back of the gardens of what was once a nunnery, but a boarding-school for young ladies in 1850. The monument is about eight feet square, and composed of dark sandstone, with appropriate inscriptions in French. The cross seen in the picture stands over the grave of another.

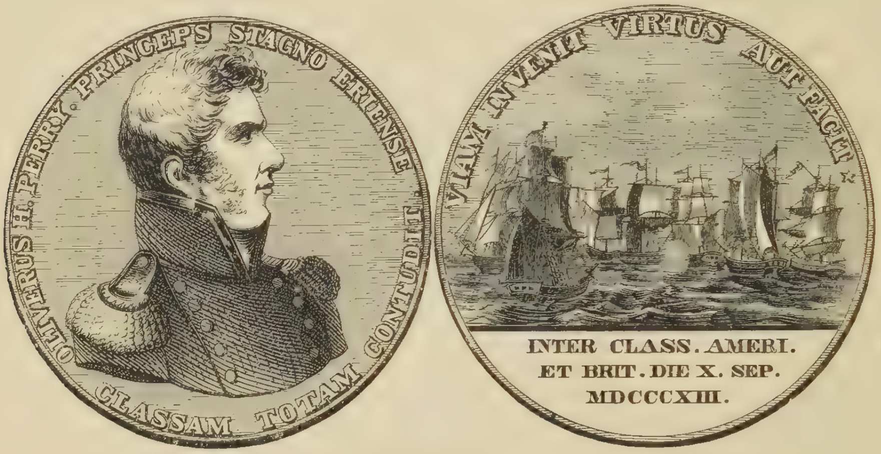

LAFAYETTE'S TOMB.

Lafayette's Voyage to America. When Lafayette and other French officers were ready to embark for America (1777), he was informed that the credit of the Continental Congress was so low that it could not furnish them a transport. The young enthusiast replied, "Then I will purchase one myself." He bought and secretly freighted a vessel, called the *Victory*, to carry himself, the veteran Baron de Kalb, and ten or twelve other French officers across the Atlantic. While the vessel was in preparation for sailing, he made a visit to England, where he was invited to visit the navy-yards. Too honorable to inspect the armaments of a people whose armies he was about to fight against, he declined, but thought it a good joke to be introduced to their king. He was then only nineteen years of age. The *Victory* sailed first to a Spanish port, where Lafayette received orders from the king to give up his expedition; but he disobeyed, and sailed for America. The women of Paris applauded his heroism; the queen gave him tokens of her admiration; the people extolled him for his strong enthusiasm in a good cause; and to his young wife, who was about to become a mother a second time, he wrote from the *Victory:* "From love to me, become a good American; the welfare of America is closely bound up with the welfare of mankind."

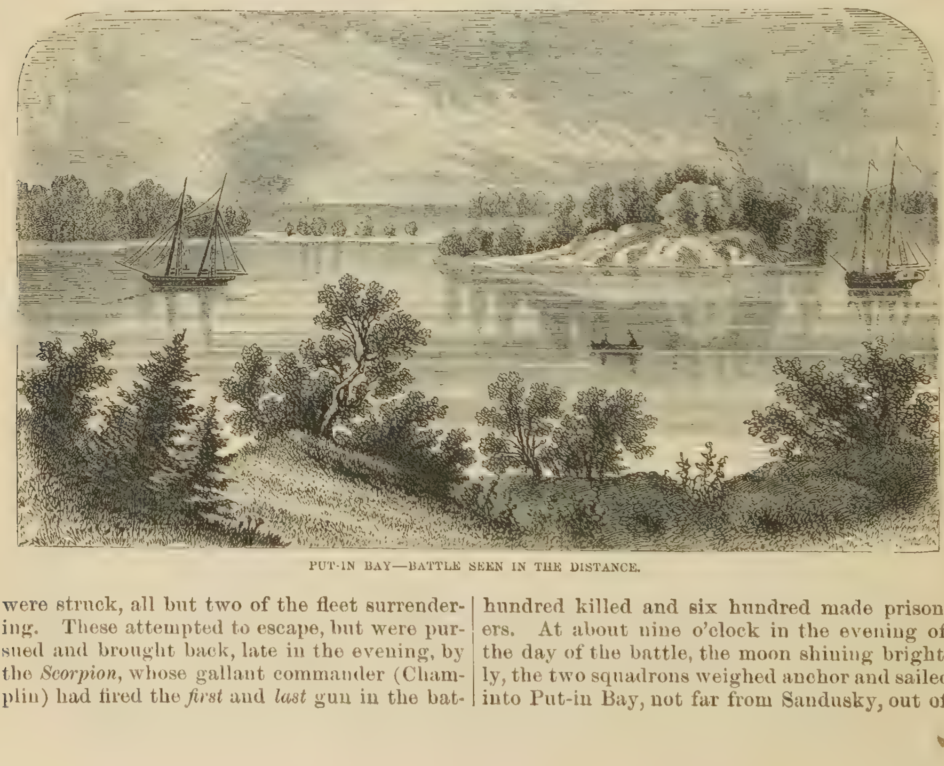
Lafitte and the Baratarians. After the English had captured the Island of Guadeloupe, French privateersmen lost their last rendezvous in the West Indies, and soon found refuge in Barataria Bay, just west of the mouths of the Mississippi River. They had adopted the flag of the then new insurgent Republic of Carthagena, and professed to cruise under that flag against the Spaniards; but, like the old Buccaneers (which see), they made very little discrimination in their captures. These semi-pirates found a market at New Orleans for their plunder, which was smuggled in and sold at very low prices. The leader of this band of outlaws in 1814 was Jean Lafitte, a shrewd Frenchman, who had been called the "Pirate of the Gulf." He and his band had been outlawed by legal proceedings, though his crimes were not against humanity—only violations of the revenue and neutrality laws of the United States. To these marauders a message was sent by the unwise commander of the British Gulf squadron from Pensacola, with a proclamation of his intentions to conquer Louisiana, and offering to take these Baratarians into the British service, with rank and pay for Lafitte and other chief leaders if they would join in an attack on New Orleans. When this invitation was put into the hands of Lafitte, he feigned compliance; but as soon as the bearer had departed he called his followers around him, on the border of the sea, and said, in substance, "Comrades, I am an adopted citizen of the United States, and will never violate the confidence placed in me by serving the enemies of this country. We have been outlawed; perhaps we deserve it by our irregularities. No matter; I am ready to serve my adopted country, and ask you to join me. What say you, comrades?" His brawny followers threw up their hats and exclaimed, "We will! we will!" And they were afterwards accepted as volunteers in the defence of New Orleans. Lafitte immediately sent the despatches received from the British commander to the Governor of Louisiana; and so the people were forewarned of danger.

Lafitte, Jean, was born in France about 1780; died, some suppose, at sea in 1817; others, at Sisal, Yucatan, in 1826. In 1813–14 he was at the head of a band of smugglers, with their headquarters at Barataria Bay. (See *Lafitte and the Baratarians.*) After the War of 1812–15 his subsequent career is very obscure; but it is believed that he obtained a privateer's commission from either New Granada or Mexico, and formed a settlement on the site of Galveston, Texas—a settlement of outlaws—which was broken up by a naval force under Lieutenant Kearney in 1821.

Lake Erie, Battle of. Commodore Perry, anxiously waiting for men to man his little fleet at Erie, was partially gratified by the arrival there of one hundred men from Black Rock, under Captain Elliott, and early in August, 1813, he went out on the lake before he was fairly prepared for vigorous combat. On the 17th of August, when off Sandusky Bay, he fired a signal-gun for General Harrison, according to agreement. Harrison was encamped at Seneca, and late in the evening of the 19th he and his suite arrived in boats and went on board the flagship *Lawrence*, where arrangements were made for the fall campaign in that quarter. Harrison had about eight thousand militia, regulars and Indians, at Camp Seneca, a little more than twenty miles from the lake. While he was waiting for Harrison to get his army ready to be transported to Fort Malden, Perry cruised about the lake. On a bright morning, Sept. 10, the sentinel watching in the main-top of the *Lawrence* cried, "Sail, ho!" It announced the appearance of the British fleet, clearly seen in the northwestern horizon. Very soon Perry's nine vessels (see *American Fleet on Lake Erie*) were ready for the enemy. At the mast-head of the *Lawrence* was displayed a blue banner, with the words of Lawrence, the dying captain, in large white letters, "Don't give up the Ship." (See *Perry's Battle-flag.*) The two squadrons slowly approached each other. The British squadron was commanded by Commodore Robert H. Barclay, who fought with Nelson at Trafalgar. His vessels were the ship *Detroit*, 19 guns, and 1 pivot and 2 howitzers; ship *Queen Charlotte*, 17, and 1 howitzer; schooner *Lady Prevost*, 13, and 1 howitzer; brig *Hunter*, 10; sloop *Little Belt*, 3; and schooner *Chippewa*, 1, and 2 swivels. The battle began at noon, at long range, the *Scorpion*, commanded by young Sailing-master Stephen Champlin, then less than twenty-four years of age, firing the first shot on the American side. As the fleets grew nearer and nearer, hotter and hotter waxed the fight. For two hours the *Lawrence* bore the brunt of battle, until she lay upon the waters almost a total wreck—her rigging all shot away, her sails cut into shreds, her spars battered into splinters, and her guns dismounted. One mast remained, and from it streamed the national flag. The deck was a scene of dreadful carnage, and most men would have hauled down their flag. But he was hopeful in gloom. His other vessels had fought gallantly, excepting the *Niagara*, Captain Elliott, the stanchest ship in the fleet, which had kept outside, and was unhurt. As she drew near the *Lawrence*, Perry resolved to fly to her, and, renewing the fight, win the victory. Putting on the uniform of his rank, that he might properly receive Barclay as his prisoner, he took down his broad pennant and the banner with the stirring words, entered his boat with his brother (fourteen years of age), and, with four stout seamen at the oars, he started on his perilous voyage, anxiously watched by those he had left on the *Lawrence*. Perry stood upright in his boat, with the pennant and banner partly wrapped about


OLIVERUS H. PERRY. PRINCEPS STAGNO ERIENSE
CLASSAM TOTAM CONTUDIT.
VIAM INVENIT VIRTUS AUT FACIT
INTER CLASS. AMERI.
ET BRIT. DIE X. SEP.
MDCCCXIII.

THE PERRY MEDAL.



PUT-IN BAY—BATTLE SEEN IN THE DISTANCE.

him. Barclay, who had been badly wounded, informed of Perry's daring, and knowing the peril of the British fleet if the young commodore should reach the decks of the *Niagara*, ordered big and little guns to be brought to bear on the little boat that held the hero. The voyage lasted fifteen minutes. Bullets traversed the boat, grape-shot falling in the water near covered the seamen with spray, and oars were shivered by cannon-balls, but not a man was hurt. Perry reached the *Niagara* in safety. Hoisting his pennant over her, he dashed through the British line, and eight minutes afterwards the colors of the enemy's flag-ship were struck, all but two of the fleet surrendering. These attempted to escape, but were pursued and brought back, late in the evening, by the *Scorpion*, whose gallant commander (Champlin) had fired the *first* and *last* gun in the battle of Lake Erie. Assured of victory, Perry sat down, and resting his naval cap on his knee, wrote to Harrison, with a pencil, on the back of a letter, the famous despatch: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." The name of Perry was made immortal. His government thanked him, and gave him and Elliott each a gold medal. The Legislature of Pennsylvania voted him thanks and a gold medal; and they gave thanks and a silver medal to each man who was engaged in the battle. The Americans lost twenty-seven killed and ninety-six wounded. The British loss was about two hundred killed and six hundred made prisoners. At about nine o'clock in the evening of the day of the battle, the moon shining brightly, the two squadrons weighed anchor and sailed into Put-in Bay, not far from Sandusky, out of which the American fleet had sailed that morning. The last survivor of the battle of Lake Erie was John Norris, who died at Petersburg, Va., in January, 1879.

Lake Ontario, OPERATIONS UPON, IN 1812. Commodore Isaac Chauncey was in command of a little squadron of armed schooners, hastily prepared, on Lake Ontario late in 1812. The vessels were the *Oneida* (his flag-ship), *Conquest*, *Growler*, *Pert*, *Scourge*, *Governor Tompkins*, and *Hamilton*. He sailed from Sackett's Harbor (Nov. 8) to intercept the British squadron, under Commodore Earl, returning to Kingston from Fort George, on the Niagara River, whither they had conveyed troops and prisoners. Chauncey took his station near the False Ducks, a group of islands nearly due west from Sackett's Harbor. On the afternoon of Nov. 9 he fell in with Earl's flagship, the *Royal George*. He chased her into the Bay of Quinté, where he lost sight of her in the darkness of night. On the following morning (Nov. 10) he captured and burned a small armed schooner, and soon afterwards espied the *Royal George* making her way towards Kingston. Chauncey gave chase with most of his squadron (which had been joined by the *Julia*), and followed her into Kingston harbor, where he fought her and five land-batteries for almost an hour. These batteries were more formidable than he supposed. A brisk breeze having arisen, and the night coming on, Chauncey withdrew and anchored. The next morning the breeze had become almost a gale, and Chauncey weighed anchor and stood out lakeward. The *Tompkins* (Lieutenant Brown), the *Hamilton* (Lieutenant McPherson), and *Julia* (Sailing-master Trant) chased the *Simcoe* over a reef of rocks (Nov. 11), and riddled her so that she sunk before she reached Kingston. Soon afterwards the *Hamilton* captured a large schooner from Niagara. This prize was sent past Kingston with the *Growler* (Sailing-master Mix), with a hope of drawing out the *Royal George;* but Chauncey had so bruised her that she was compelled to haul on shore to keep from sinking. A number of her crew had been killed. The wind had increased to a gale on the nights of the 11th and 12th, and during the night of the 12th there was a snow-storm. Undismayed by the fury of the elements, Chauncey continued his cruise, for his heart was set on gaining the supremacy of the Lakes. Learning that the *Earl of Moira* was off the Real Ducks islands, he attempted to capture her. She was on the alert and escaped, but a schooner that she was convoying was made captive. On the same day Chauncey saw the *Royal George* and two other armed vessels, but they kept out of his way. In this short cruise he captured three merchant-vessels, destroyed one armed schooner, disabled the British flagship, and took several prisoners, with a loss, on his part, of one man killed and four wounded. Among the latter was Sailing-master Arundel, commander of the *Pert*, who was badly injured by the bursting of a cannon. He would not leave the deck, and was knocked overboard and drowned.

Lake Ontario, OPERATIONS UPON, IN 1813. After the capture of Fort George (which see), Chauncey crossed the lake, looked into York, and then ran for Kingston without meeting a foe. He retired to Sackett's Harbor, where he urged forward the completion of a new corvette, the *General Pike*, 26 guns. She was launched June 12, 1813, and placed in command of Captain Arthur Sinclair. It was late in the summer before she was ready for a cruise. Meanwhile, the keel of a fast-sailing schooner was laid by Eckford at Sackett's Harbor, and named the *Sylph*, and a small vessel was kept constantly cruising, as a scout, off Kingston, to observe the movements of the British squadron there. This little vessel (*Lady of the Lake*) captured the British schooner *Lady Murray* (June 16), laden with provisions, shot, and fixed ammunition, and took her into the Harbor. Sir James L. Yeo was in command of the British squadron on the lake. He made a cruise westward, and on the 7th of July appeared with his squadron off Niagara. Chauncey and Scott had just returned from the expedition to York (which see). Chauncey immediately went out and tried to get the weather-gauge of Sir James. He had thirteen vessels, but only three of them had been originally built for war purposes. His squadron consisted of the *Pike*, *Madison*, *Oneida*, *Hamilton*, *Scourge*, *Ontario*, *Fair American*, *Governor Tompkins*, *Conquest*, *Growler*, *Julia*, *Asp*, and *Pert*. The British squadron now consisted of two ships, two brigs, and two large schooners. These had all been constructed for war, and were very efficient in armament and shields. The belligerents manœuvred all day, and when at sunset a dead calm fell, they took to sweeps. When darkness came, the American squadron was collected by signal. The wind finally freshened, and at midnight was blowing a fitful gale. Suddenly, a rushing sound was heard astern of most of the fleet, and it was soon ascertained that the *Hamilton* and *Scourge* had disappeared. They had been capsized by a terrible squall, and all of the officers and men, excepting sixteen of the latter, had perished. These two vessels carried nineteen guns between them. All the next day the squadrons manœuvred for advantage, and towards evening Chauncey ran into the Niagara River. All that night the lake was swept by squalls. On the morning of the 9th, Chauncey went out to attack Sir James, and the day was spent in fruitless manœuvres. At six o'clock on the 10th, having the weather-gauge, Chauncey formed his fleet in battle order, and a conflict seemed imminent; but his antagonist being unwilling to fight, the day was spent as others had been. Towards midnight there was a contest, when the *Growler* and *Julia*, separating from the rest of the fleet, were captured. Returning to Sackett's Harbor, Chauncey prepared for another cruise with eight vessels. Making but a short cruise, on account of sickness prevailing in the fleet, he remained in the Harbor until Aug. 28, when he went out in search of his antagonist. He first saw him on Sept. 7, and for a week tried to get him into action, but Sir James strictly obeyed his instructions to "risk nothing." On the 11th, Chauncey bore down upon Sir James off the mouth of the

Genesee River, and they had a running fight for three hours. The *Pike* was somewhat injured, but the British vessels suffered most. The latter fled to Kingston, and Chauncey went into Sackett's Harbor. On the 18th he sailed for the Niagara for troops, and was chased by Yeo. After a few days Chauncey crossed over to York with the *Pike, Madison,* and *Sylph,* where the British fleet lay, when the latter fled, followed by the American vessels in battle order. The baronet was now compelled to fight or stop boasting of unsatisfied desires to measure strength with the Americans. An action commenced at a little past noon, and the *Pike* sustained the desperate assaults of the heaviest British vessels for twenty minutes, at the same time delivering destructive broadsides upon her foes. She was assisted by the *Tompkins,* Lieutenant Finch; and when the smoke of battle floated away, it was found that the *Wolfe* (Sir James's flag-ship) was too much injured to continue the conflict any longer. She pushed away dead before the wind, gallantly protected by the *Royal George.* A general chase towards Burlington Bay immediately ensued. Chauncey could doubtless have captured the whole British fleet, but a gale was threatening, and there being no good harbors on the coast, if he should be driven ashore certain capture by land troops would be the consequence. So he called off his ships and returned to the Niagara, where he lay two days while a gale was skurrying over the lake. The weather remaining thick, after the gales Sir James left Burlington Bay for Kingston. Chauncey was returning to Sackett's Harbor, whither all his transports bearing troops had gone, and at sunset, Oct. 5, when near the Ducks, the *Pike* captured three British transports—the *Confiance, Hamilton* (the *Growler* and *Julia* with new names), and *Mary.* The *Sylph* captured the cutter *Drummond* and the armed transport *Lady Gore.* The number of prisoners captured on these five vessels was two hundred and sixty-four. Among the prisoners were ten army officers. Sir James remained inactive in Kingston harbor during the remainder of the season, and Chauncey was busied in watching his movements and assisting the army in its descent of the St. Lawrence. (See *Expedition down the St. Lawrence.*) He did not, however, sufficiently blockade Kingston harbor to prevent marine scouts from slipping out and hovering near Wilkinson's flotilla on the St. Lawrence.

Lake Ontario, OPERATIONS UPON, IN 1814. Commodore Chauncey was unable to accomplish much with his squadron during 1814. Early in the season he was taken sick, and in July his squadron was blockaded at Sackett's Harbor, and it was the last of that month before it was ready for sea. On the 31st, Chauncey was carried, in a convalescent state, on board the *Superior* (his flag-ship), and the squadron sailed on a cruise. It blockaded the harbor of Kingston, and Chauncey vainly tried to draw out Sir James Yeo for combat. At the close of September, Chauncey was informed that the *St. Lawrence,* pierced for one hundred and twelve guns, which had been built at Kingston, was ready for sea, when the commodore prudently raised the blockade and returned to Sackett's Harbor. The *St. Lawrence* sailed in October with more than a thousand men, accompanied by other vessels of war; and with this big ship Sir James was really lord of the lake. The Americans determined to match the *St. Lawrence,* and at Sackett's Harbor the keels of two first-class frigates were laid. One of them was partly finished when peace was proclaimed, early in 1815. She may yet (1880) be seen, housed over on the stocks, in the same condition as when the builders then left her, nearly seventy years ago. Chauncey expected that Yeo would attack his squadron in the harbor, but he did not; and when the lake was closed by ice, the war had ended on the northern frontier.

Lake State. A name popularly given to Michigan, which borders upon the four lakes Superior, Huron, Michigan, and Erie. It is sometimes called the "Wolverine State," from its formerly abounding with wolverines.

Lamar, MIRABEAU B., was born at Louisville, Ga., Aug. 16, 1798; died at Richmond, Texas, Dec. 19, 1859. In 1835 he went to Texas, and commanded the cavalry in the battle of San Jacinto, which secured the independence of the province. He was attorney-general and secretary of the new state, and was elected its first vice-president in 1836, then holding the rank of major-general. He was president from 1838 to 1841, and in 1846 he joined General Taylor in the invasion of Mexico. In 1858 he published the *Columbus Inquirer,* a "state rights" journal. Just previous to his death he was United States minister to Nicaragua and Costa Rica.

Lamar's Plan of a Southern League of States. Lucius Q. C. Lamar, a member of Congress from Mississippi, proposed as early as November, 1860, a plan for a Southern Confederacy. He proposed that the State of Mississippi should, after passing an ordinance of secession, "consent to form a federal union with all the slave-labor states, the Territory of New Mexico, and the Indian Territory west of Arkansas, under the name and style of the United States of America." It proposed to continue in force all treaties and laws of the United States so far as they applied to Mississippi until the new confederation should be organized. It provided that the governor of Mississippi should perform the functions of president of the new United States within the limits of that state, and that all public officers should remain in place until the new government should be established. It was proposed that the accession of nine states should give effect to the proposed ordinance of confederation, when it should be the duty of the governor of Mississippi to order an election of congressmen and presidential electors. This scheme was proposed many weeks before the Mississippi ordinance of secession was passed, and Lamar remained in the national Congress until Jan. 12, 1861. For his zeal in the secession cause, he was rewarded with the office of diplomatic agent of the Confederates at the Russian court.

Lamb, JOHN, an artillery officer in the Revolution, was born in New York city, Jan. 1, 1735; died there, May 31, 1800. Lamb was one of the most active of the Sons of Liberty (which see), and when the war for independence began he entered the military service. He was in command of the artillery in Montgomery's expedition into Canada, and during the siege of Quebec (Dec. 31, 1775) he was wounded and made prisoner. The following summer, as major of artillery, he was attached to the regiment of Knox; and he was commissioned colonel of the New York Artillery Jan. 1, 1777. After doing good service throughout the war, he ended his military career at Yorktown. At about the close of the war he was elected to the New York Assembly; and Washington appointed him (1789) collector of the customs at the port of New York, which office he held until his death.

JOHN LAMB.

Lancaster, TREATY OF. At Lancaster, Penn., a treaty was made in 1744 between the commissioners of Maryland and Virginia and the deputies of the Iroquois Confederacy, which, since their union with the Tuscaroras of North Carolina, had been called the Six Nations. That treaty provided for the cession of all lands that were and should be claimed by the Indians within the province of Virginia, for the consideration of about $2000. Their claimed lands in Maryland were, in like manner, confirmed to Lord Baltimore, with definite limits. Thus did Great Britain at once acquire and confirm its claims to the basin of the Ohio, and, at the same time, secure protection to its northern frontier.

Land Companies. After the treaty at Fort Stanwix (which see), the banks of the Kenawha, flowing north at the foot of the great Alleghany ridge into the Ohio, began to attract settlers, and application was soon made to the British government by a company, of which Dr. Franklin, Sir William Johnson, Walpole (a wealthy London banker), and others were members, for that part of the newly acquired territory north of the Kenawha, and thence to the upper Ohio. They offered to refund the whole amount (about $50,000) which the government had paid the Indians (see *Treaty at Fort Stanwix*), and proposed the establishment of a new and separate colony there. This project was approved by Lord Hillsborough, Secretary of State for the colonies, and the ministry finally agreed to it, but the troubles between the parent government and her children in America, then rapidly tending towards open war, prevented a completion of the scheme. Such was the origin of the "Walpole," or "Ohio Company," the "Vandalia Company," and the "Indiana Company," founded on a cession said to have been made by the Indians at the Treaty of Fort Stanwix. These schemes of land speculators were dissipated by the same cause that arrested the completion of the Walpole scheme.

Land Grants in Aid of Internal Improvements. Millions of acres of the public lands of the United States have been granted to aid in the construction of roads, canals, and railways; and also for educational and other purposes. The first acts of Congress for the purpose of internal improvements were two for the new State of Ohio, which became laws on April 30, 1802, and March 3, 1803, respectively. Previous to that there had been donations of land in favor of various deserving persons. The grants to the inhabitants of Ohio were for the purpose of laying out public roads leading to the Ohio River. Other grants were made from time to time for improvements in the Northwest until 1824, when (May 26) Congress authorized the State of Indiana to construct a canal, giving the right of way, with ninety feet of land on each side thereof. Nothing was done under the act; but in 1827 (March 2) two acts were passed, giving to Indiana and Illinois respectively certain lands in aid of the construction of canals, the first to connect the navigation of the Wabash River with the waters of Lake Erie, and the second to connect the waters of the Illinois River with those of Lake Michigan. A quantity of land equal to one half of five sections in width on each side of the canals was granted, reserving to the United States each alternate section. It was not an absolute grant of land in fee, for, under certain restrictions, the states had a right to sell the awards, and from the proceeds they were to repay the government. On the same day (March, 1827) there was granted to Indiana a certain strip of land formerly held by the Potawatomie Indians, the proceeds of the sale thereof to be applied to building a road from Lake Michigan, via Indianapolis, to some convenient point on the Ohio River. March 3, 1827, a grant was made to Ohio of two sections of land along the entire line of a road to be constructed from Sandusky to Columbus. May 23, 1828, a grant of 400,000 acres of the "relinquished lands" in certain counties in Alabama was made in aid of the improvement of the Tennessee and other rivers in that state. In this grant we find the first provision for indemnity in case the grant was not full by reason of prior sales or disposals by the government. Similar grants were made from time to time for like purposes. March 2, 1833, the State of Illinois was authorized to apply the lands granted by the act of March 2, 1827, for canal purposes to the construction of a railway instead. This was the first act looking to the construction of a railway through the assistance of land donations. The railroad system was then in its infancy. The state did not avail itself of the privilege, but subsequently built a canal. March 2, 1835, a grant was made to aid the construction of a railway in Florida. Sufficient was given for the way—thirty feet of land on each side—and the right to take and use the timber for one hundred yards on each side for the construction and repairs of the road. This was the first grant of the right of way for a railroad, the previous grant having been for a canal. July 2, 1836, an act granted the right of way through such portions of the public lands as remained unsold—not to exceed eighty feet in width—to the New Orleans and Nashville Railroad Company. This road was never completed. Next came a grant to East Florida and other railroads which were never constructed. March 3, 1837, a grant was made to the Atchafalaya Railroad and Banking Company in Louisiana similar to that to the New Orleans and Nashville Railroad. Aug. 8, 1846, an act granted lands in aid of improvements of the Des Moines River in Iowa, and the Fox and Wisconsin rivers in Wisconsin. These rivers, when improved, were to remain highways for the United States government forever, free from toll. The grant to the then Territory of Iowa for the improvement of the Des Moines River led to long discussions as to the extent of the grant, and to many legal decisions. Finally, on March 22, 1858, the consent of Congress was given to apply a portion of the grant to the construction of a railway. The rivers were not improved, but the railway was constructed — the Keokuk, Fort Des Moines, and Minnesota Railroad. Sept. 20, 1850, a grant was made to the State of Illinois of every alternate section of land, designated by even numbers, for six sections in width, on each side of a railroad and branches thereof. This road, which was built, is known as the Illinois Central. Although this was not the first concession of land to a railway corporation, it granted specific sections instead of one half of a certain number of sections, and may be considered the initiatory measure of the system since adopted in making grants in favor of railways. On June 10, 1852, a donation was made to the State of Missouri for the construction of certain railroads therein, now known as the Hannibal and St. Joseph, and the Missouri Pacific, south branch. This grant was similar in character and extent to that of the Illinois Central. In this, as in the case of the Illinois Central, there was a provision for the reimbursement of the United States for all the land sold. Feb. 9, 1853, an act made a similar grant to Arkansas. June 29, 1854, an act granted aid to Minnesota for constructing a railroad from the southern line of that then territory, via St. Paul, to its eastern line, in the direction of Lake Superior. For this purpose there were given each alternate section of land, designated by odd numbers, for six sections in width on each side of said road. This act was repealed in August following. At various times in 1856 grants of land for similar purposes were made to the states of Iowa, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Mississippi. On March 3, 1856, a grant was made to Minnesota. All of these grants made in 1856 and 1857 were similar to that given to Missouri in 1852. July 1, 1862, the "Union Pacific Railroad Company" was created for the purpose of constructing and maintaining a railroad and telegraph line from the Missouri River to the Pacific Ocean. They were granted the right of way through the public lands to the extent of two hundred feet in width on each side of the line of the road, together with the necessary ground for stations, buildings, etc. They were also granted in aid of the construction of the road every alternate section of public land to the amount of five alternate sections a mile on each side of the road, excepting mineral lands and all lands already disposed of or reserved. Several other roads were provided for on the same conditions, which are now known as the Central Pacific, Central Branch of the Union Pacific, Kansas Pacific, and Sioux City and Pacific. It was a grant of ten miles of land on each side of the road. By an act approved July 2, 1864, instead of five, ten sections were granted, making the area twenty miles on each side of these roads. The term mineral land was construed not to mean coal or iron. By the same act a grant of twenty miles of land was made to the Burlington and Missouri River Railroad Company for the construction of a road from the Missouri River to some point not farther west than the one hundredth meridian west longitude, to connect with the Union Pacific Road. March 3, 1864, a grant of land was made to the State of Kansas to assist in constructing railroads within its borders, afterwards known as the Atcheson, Topeka, and Santa Fé; Leavenworth, Lawrence, and Galveston; and Missouri, Kansas, and Texas railroads. In May, 1864, similar grants were made to the states of Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Iowa, and others soon followed to Arkansas, Missouri, Alabama, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, and Kansas. The North Pacific Railroad Company was created July 1, 1864, with grants similar to those of the Union Pacific, excepting double the extent of land, through the territories. July 27, 1866, grants were made to the Atlantic and Pacific, and the Southern Pacific, on terms similar to those of the Union Pacific. March 3, 1869, land grants were made to the Denver Pacific Railway; and by act of March 3, 1871, similar grants were made to the Southern Pacific (branch line), and Texas and Pacific. Many of the grants made in the earlier years of the system were enlarged, but only four grants have been declared forfeited. About twenty grants have "lapsed" by reason of non-compliance with the terms of the granting acts. The aggregate amount of land granted is more than 215,000,000 acres, but the amount made available is not more than 187,000,000 acres. By the aid of these grants about 15,000 miles of railroad have been built. Their benefits have extended to all parts of the country, and cannot be estimated by values; and they have dispelled all ideas looking to a removal of the seat of government from Washington. (See *Seat of Government, Removal of.*)

Land Speculations. There was a vast public domain, which, in consequence of the Revolution, had passed into the hands of particular states, much of which had been ceded to the United States at the time of the organization of the government under the national Constitution. The adoption of that instrument, and the consequent revival of prosperity, created vast land speculations. At that time much of the public lands of the states had been disposed of. Massachusetts retained much of her possessions of wild lands in Maine, while her more valuable tracts in western New York, obtained by compromise, had all passed into the hands of individuals. Of the 7,000,000 acres owned by New York, exclusive of lands yielded to Massachusetts, 5,500,000 acres had been disposed of at a single sale in 1791 for about $1,000,000. One individual had purchased 3,500,000 acres at the rate of eight cents an acre, payable in five annual instalments, without interest. A large portion of this land was covered by the sterile rocks of the Adirondack Mountains. Almost all of the large tracts of land which the confiscation of the proprietary estates had cast into the hands of Pennsylvania had been bought up by land speculators. The unlocated land warrants of Virginia and North Carolina were sufficient to cover the public lands within their limits, together with all the ceded portions of Kentucky and the territory south of the Ohio. The voracious speculators turned to the lands claimed by Georgia west of the Chattahoochee River, and between that stream and the Mississippi. This great domain was occupied by Indians, whose original title to the land was never conveyed away; but the Legislature of Georgia, assuming the validity of the claim of their state, sold the pre-emption right to a vast portion of that tract to speculators, who proceeded to sell out, at a great advance, to individuals and companies in the Middle States and New England. The profits thus obtained stimulated others to undertake like enterprises, while influences alleged to have been exercised on the legislators of Georgia perhaps suggested operations upon Congress by similar means. In 1795 Messrs. Randall and Whitney, the first a citizen of Maryland and the second of Vermont, in conjunction with some Indian traders at Detroit, formed a scheme for obtaining from Congress, for the sum of $500,000, the right to purchase of the Indians 20,000,000 acres on the peninsula of Michigan, to be divided into forty shares. Some members of Congress had been offered shares in the speculation on condition that they should aid the speculators in their scheme, to be ultimately purchased if they did not choose to retain them. Overtures were made to Giles, of Virginia, and others. Randall boasted that he had already secured thirty members. Giles, believing a large majority of them were Federalists, resolved to keep silence and detect them by their votes; but another member, unwilling innocent persons should so suffer, revealed the scheme publicly to the House. Randall was arrested, and was put upon his trial for attempting to corrupt the members of the House. His defence was that he had been misunderstood. He was found guilty of a high contempt, and was sentenced to be reprimanded by the speaker. He was held in custody a few days, when he was released on payment of fees. A little later in the session a difficulty growing out of the Georgia land speculations occurred in the House. A memorial to Congress to do nothing recognizing the validity of the sale of the Indian lands until an investigation could be effected had been sent to Baldwin, a representative of Georgia. Senator Gunn, from that state, deeply interested in the speculation, claimed the right to see the memorial before its presentation, and to have the names of the signers. Baldwin refused. Gunn sent him a challenge through Frelinghuysen, of New Jersey, who was also concerned in the speculation. Baldwin laid the challenge before the House, and Gunn and Frelinghuysen, adjudged guilty of a breach of privilege, were compelled to address letters of apology to the House.

Landed Property in Virginia. In 1615 Governor Dale procured the important privilege for the people of Virginia of holding landed property by a stable tenure. The farmers then did not possess the land they cultivated by a tenure of common socage, but enjoyed it as tenants at will of the crown. Now to every adventurer into the colony, and to his heirs, were granted fifty acres of land, and the same quantity for every person imported by others.

Lander, FREDERICK WEST, was born at Salem, Mass., Dec. 17, 1822; died at Paw Paw, Va., March 2, 1862. He studied civil engineering, and was employed by the government in conducting explorations across the continent. He made two surveys to determine the practicability of a railroad route to the Pacific. In the last, he alone of all the party returned alive. He surveyed and constructed a great overland wagon-road, which had been recently completed when the Civil War broke out, when he was employed on secret missions to the South. On the staff of General McClellan he was very active in the vicinity of the Upper Potomac. In a skirmish at Edwards's Ferry, after the disaster at Ball's Bluff (which see), he was wounded in the leg. In January, 1862, he was on active duty, and repulsed a large Confederate force at Hancock, Va. Before his wound was healed he made a brilliant dash (Feb. 14, 1862) on Blooming Gap (which see), for which the Secretary of War gave him special thanks. His health was evidently giving way, and he applied for temporary relief from military duty; but, impatient, he prepared to make another attack on the Confederates, when he suddenly died from congestion of the brain.

Landing of the Pilgrims, TIME OF THE. The spot chosen by a party of explorers for the permanent landing-place of the passengers on the *Mayflower* was selected about the 20th of December, 1620, where New Plymouth was built. From about the middle of December until the 25th the weather was stormy, and the bulk of the passengers remained on the ship, while some of the men built a rude shelter to receive them. On the 25th a greater portion of the passengers went on shore to visit the spot chosen for their residence, when, tradition says, Mary Chilton and John Alden, both young persons, first sprang upon Plymouth Rock from the boat that conveyed them.

Lane, HENRY S., was born in Montgomery County, Ky., Feb. 24, 1811. Removing to Indiana, he was there admitted to the bar, and was a member of the Legislature in 1837. He served one term in Congress (1841–43), and was lieutenant-colonel of volunteers in the war with Mexico. In 1860 he was elected governor of Indiana, but, being chosen United States Senator, he soon afterwards resigned the governorship. Mr. Lane served in the Senate a full term of six years.

Lane, JAMES H., brother of the preceding, was born at Lawrenceburg, Ind., June 22, 1814; died at Leavenworth, Kan., July 11, 1866. He was admitted to the bar in 1840; served as a volunteer in the war with Mexico, commanding a brigade at Buena Vista (which see); and, in 1848, was elected lieutenant-governor of Indiana. He served one term in Congress; settled in Kansas, and was chosen its first United States Senator. He served well during the Civil War, and was again elected United States Senator in 1865.

Lane, JOSEPH, was born in Buncombe County, N. C., Dec. 14, 1801. Going early to Indiana, he engaged in business there, and was frequently a member of the Legislature between 1822 and 1846. He served in the war against Mexico, in which he gained distinction, rose to the rank of brigadier-general, and was breveted major-general. In 1848 he was appointed governor of Oregon Territory, organized its government, was its delegate in Congress from 1851 to 1859, and United States Senator from 1859 to 1861. He was again governor in 1863. Mr. Lane was nominated for Vice-President in 1860 on the Democratic ticket, with John C. Breckinridge.

Lane, SIR RALPH, was sent from England with Sir Richard Grenville, by Sir Walter Raleigh, to be governor of Virginia, in 1585. Born in Northamptonshire, England, about 1530; died in Ireland in 1604. He was son of Sir Ralph Lane, and Maud, daughter of Lord Parr, uncle of Catharine Parr, one of the queens of Henry VIII. He was equerry in the court of Queen Elizabeth, and commanded troops in Ireland, first in 1569, and again in 1583–84. After his return from Virginia he was colonel in the expedition of Norris and Drake against Portugal in 1589, and in 1591 was mustermaster-general in Ireland. He was knighted by the lord-deputy in 1593. Lane's administration as governor of Virginia was fruitless of any good. By following the example of Grenville he exasperated the Indians. Had he been kind and wise the colony might have prospered; but he and his followers were greedy for gold, and only Harriott the historian acted like a sensible Christian. (See *Harriott, Thomas.*) Lane had the gold fever severely, and all trusted more to fire-arms than to friendship to secure the good-will of the Indians. Sometimes the latter were treated with cruelty, and a flame of vengeance was kindled and kept alive. The Indians deceived the English with tales of gold-bearing regions near, and that the source of the Roanoke River was among rocks near the Pacific Ocean, where the houses were lined with pearls. Lane explored, found himself deceived, and returned. The Indians, who wanted to have the English dispersed in the forest, so as to exterminate them in detail, were discomfited. They looked with awe upon the English with fire-arms, and, believing more were coming to take their lands away from them, they determined to slay them. Lane, satisfied that there was a wide-spread conspiracy against the colony, struck the first blow. He invited King Wingina and his principal chiefs to a friendly conference. They came, confidingly, without weapons. At a preconcerted signal Lane and his followers fell upon and murdered the king and his companions. Thenceforth both parties stood on the defensive. The condition of the English became desperate. Their supplies became exhausted, and none could be got from the natives; only from the woods and waters could food be obtained. The colony was on the verge of starvation and despair, when Sir Francis Drake, returning from a raid upon Spanish towns, came to Roanoke Island. In his ship the colonists gladly embarked for England. (See *Grenville, Sir Richard*, and *Drake, Sir Francis.*)

Langdon, JOHN, LL.D., was born at Portsmouth, N. H., in 1739; died Sept. 18, 1819. He was a successful merchant, and took an early and active part in the events preceding the outbreak of the war for independence. He was a member of the Continental Congress (1775–76), but in June, in the latter year, he resigned his seat and became navy agent. He was speaker of the Assembly, and was ready to make any reasonable sacrifice to promote the cause. When means were needed to support a New Hampshire regiment, he gave all his "hard money," pledged his plate, and applied to the same purpose the proceeds of seventy hogsheads of tobacco. He furnished means for raising a brigade of the troops with which Stark gained the victory at Bennington. He was active in civil affairs, also, all through the war, serving in the Continental Congress and his State Legislature. In 1785 he was President of New Hampshire, and in 1787 was one of the framers of the national Constitution. He was governor of his state in 1788, and again from 1805 to 1811. He was United States Senator from 1789 to 1801. Mr. Langdon declined the office of Secretary of the Navy (1811) and of Vice-President of the United States (1812).

Langhorne Letter, THE. A renegade Scotchman named Callender had appeared in Philadelphia as a writer in opposition to Washington's administration. Just after Monroe's return from France, he published a volume called *A History of the United States for* 1796, in which he grossly libelled Hamilton and abused Washington and his administration. For the apparent purpose of obtaining a knowledge of the effects of this abuse upon Washington's mind, and of drawing from him something of which advantage might be taken, a letter was addressed to him (Sept. 23, 1796), dated Warren, Albemarle Co., Va., and signed "John Langhorne," condoling with him on the aspersions on his character, but suggesting that he ought not to allow them to disturb his peace. The name of the writer was fictitious. Without suspecting this, Washington, with his usual courtesy, replied to the letter, saying that he deplored the attacks on the government, but that as to himself, personally, he had a consolation within which protected him against the venom, and, in spite of the malignity of his enemies, his mind remained tranquil. Washington's reply to Langhorne was taken out of the post-office by a messenger from Monticello, Jefferson's residence, and investigations made by John Nicholas, a member of the opposition party, but a warm personal friend of the ex-President, cast suspicion on Mr. Jefferson as the writer ("John Langhorne"). The correspondence ended with Washington's answer, for the penetration of the writer perceived that nothing was to be drawn from that mode of attack. Nicholas afforded such evidence that Washington believed his first Secretary of State had written it, "with a view to effect some nefarious purpose."

Lanman, JOSEPH, United States Navy, was born in Connecticut, July 18, 1810, and entered the navy in 1825. He was made captain in 1861, and commodore in August, 1862. He commanded the frigate *Minnesota* in the North Atlantic Squadron, in 1864–65, and had the command of the second division of Porter's squadron in both attacks on Fort Fisher (which see). He commanded a squadron on the coast of Brazil from 1869 to 1871. In December, 1867, he was made rear-admiral.

La Salle, ROBERT CAVELIER DE, a French explorer, was born at Rouen in November, 1643; died in Texas, March 19, 1687. In early life he became a Jesuit, and thereby forfeited his patrimony. He afterwards left the order, and went to Canada as an adventurer in 1666. From the Sulpicians, seigneurs of Montreal, he obtained a grant of land and founded Lachine. Tales of the wonders and riches of the wilderness inspired him with a desire to explore. With two Sulpicians, he went into the wilds of western New York, and afterwards went down the Ohio River as far as the site of Louisville. Governor Frontenac became his friend, and in the autumn of 1674 he went to France bearing a letter from the governor-general, strongly recommending him to Colbert, the French premier. Honors and privileges were bestowed upon him at the French court, and he was made Governor of Fort Frontenac, erected on the site of Kingston, at the foot of Lake Ontario, which he greatly strengthened, and gathered Indian settlers around it. He had very soon a squadron of four vessels on the lake, engaged in the fur-trade, and Fort Frontenac was made the centre of that traffic, in which he now largely engaged and sought the monopoly. Conceiving a grand scheme of explorations and trade westward, perhaps to China, he went to France in 1678 and obtained permission to execute it. He was allowed to engage in explorations, build forts, and have the monopoly of the trade in buffalo-skins, during five years, but was forbidden to trade with tribes accustomed to take furs to Montreal. Henri de Tonti, a veteran Italian, joined him, and, with thirty mechanics and mariners, they sailed from Rochelle in the summer of 1678, and reached Fort Frontenac early in the autumn. De Tonti was sent farther west to establish a trading-post at the mouth of the Niagara River. He proceeded, also, to build a vessel above the great falls for traffic on Lake Erie, and named it the *Griffin*. (See *Griffin, The.*) It was launched in the summer of 1679, and in August La Salle sailed with De Tonti through the chain of lakes to Green Bay, in the northwestern portion of Lake Michigan. Creditors were pressing him with claims, and he unlawfully gathered furs and sent them back in the *Griffin* to meet those claims. Then he proceeded, with his party, in canoes, to the mouth of the St. Joseph River, in southwestern Michigan, where he established a trading-house and called it Fort Miami. Ascending the St. Joseph, he crossed to the Kankakee, and paddled down it until he reached an Illinois village, and, in January, 1680, he began the establishment of a trading-post on the site of the present Peoria, Ill., which he called Fort Crèvecœur. Disappointed in the failure of the *Griffin* to make a return voyage with supplies, he put De Tonti in command of the fort and despatched Hennepin and Acau to explore the Illinois to its mouth and the Mississippi northward. (See *Hennepin, Louis.*) With five companions, La Salle started back for Canada, and from the mouth of the St. Joseph he crossed Michigan to a river flowing into the Detroit, and thence overland to Lake Erie. From its western end he navigated it in a canoe to Niagara, where he was satisfied that the *Griffin* had perished somewhere on the lakes. He also heard of the loss of a ship arriving from France with supplies. Settling as well as he could with his creditors, La Salle, with a fresh party of twenty-three Frenchmen and eighteen New England Indians, with ten women and children, began a return journey to Fort Crèvecœur, with supplies. De Tonti had been driven away by an attack on the Illinois settlement of the Iroquois. The desertion of his men had compelled him to abandon the fort and return to Green Bay. La Salle and his party went down the Illinois to its mouth, when he returned to gather his followers and procure means for continuing his explorations. Late in December, 1681, he started from Fort Miami with his expedition, coasted along the southern shore of Lake Michigan, ascended the Chicago River, crossed to the Illinois, descended to the Mississippi, and went down that stream until it separated into three channels, which he explored to the Gulf of Mexico. La Salle named the great stream River Colbert, in compliment to his patron at the court of France. (See *Mississippi River.*) De Tonti explored the great middle channel. (See *Tonti, Henri de.*) Then the whole company assembled at a dry spot near the Gulf, and there prepared a cross and a column, affixing to the latter the arms of France and this inscription: "LOUIS THE GREAT, KING OF FRANCE AND NAVARRE, APRIL 9, 1682." He also buried there a leaden plate, with a Latin inscription. (See *Proces Verbal.*) The whole company then signed a *proces verbal*, in the following order: La Métarie (notary), De la Salle, P. Zenobe (Récollet missionary), Henri de Tonti, François de Bousvoudet, Jean Bourdon, Sieur d'Autray, Jacques Cauclois, Pierre You, Giles Mencret, Jean Michel (surgeon), Jean Mas, Jean Duglignon, Nicholas de la Salle. La Salle formally proclaimed the whole valley of the Mississippi and the region of its tributaries a part of the French dominions, and named the country Louisiana, in compliment to the king. So was first planted the germ of the empire of the French in that region, which flourished in the eighteenth century. La Salle ascended the Mississippi the next year, and returned to Quebec in November, leaving Tonti in command in the West, with directions to meet him at the mouth of the Mississippi the following year. Then he proceeded to France and proposed to the government a settlement in Louisiana and the conquest of the rich mining country in northern Mexico. A patent was granted him, and he was made commandant of the vast territory from the present State of Illinois to Mexico, and westward indefinitely. With two hundred and eighty indifferent persons, he sailed from France, Aug. 1, 1684, with four ships; but disputes between Beaujeu, the navigator of the squadron, and La Salle proved disastrous to the expedition. Touching at Santo Domingo, they entered the Gulf of Mexico, and, by miscalculations, passed the mouth of the Mississippi without knowing it. La Salle became satisfied of this fact, but Beaujeu sailed obstinately on, and finally anchored off the entrance to Matagorda Bay. The colonists debarked, but the store-ship containing most of the supplies was wrecked. Beaujeu, pleading a lack of provisions, deserted La Salle, leaving him only a small vessel. He cast up a fort, which he called St. Louis, and attempted to till the soil; but the Indians were hostile. Some of the settlers were killed, others perished from disease and hardship, and, after making some explorations of the country, the party, at the end of the year, was reduced to less than forty souls. Leaving half of them, including women and children, La Salle set out, at the beginning of 1688, to make his way to the Illinois. His party consisted of his brother, two nephews, and thirteen others, some of whom were sullen and ripe for revolt. Penetrating the present domain of Texas to the Trinity River, revolt broke out, and the two ringleaders killed La Salle's nephew, in a stealthy manner; and when the great explorer turned back to look for him, they shot him dead. Nearly all of those who were left at Fort St. Louis were massacred by the Indians, and the remainder fell into the hands of the Spaniards, sent to drive out the French. La Salle, lured by tales of an abundance of precious metals in New Mexico, had penetrated that country, with a few followers, before leaving Fort St. Louis, but he was disappointed.

Las Casas, BARTOLOMÉ DE, was the first apostle to the American Indians. (See *Eliot, John.*) Born at Seville, Spain, in 1474; died in Madrid, in July, 1566. His father was a companion of Columbus in his two earlier voyages, and in the second one he took this son, then a student at Salamanca, with him. Bartolomé—or Bartholomew—accompanied Columbus on his third and fourth voyages, and, on his return, entered the Order of the Dominicans, that he might become a missionary among the natives of the new-found islands of the West. He went to Santo Domingo, and was there ordained a priest in 1510, and gave the name to the island in compliment to his order. Las Casas was chaplain to Velasquez when the latter conquered Cuba, and did much to alleviate the sufferings of the conquered natives. (See *Cuba.*) In 1515 he went to Spain to seek redress for them, and found a sympathizer in Cardinal Ximenes, who became Regent of Spain the following year, and sent out three monks to correct abuses. Their services were not satisfactory, and, returning to Spain, Las Casas was appointed "Universal Protector of the Indies." Seeing the few negroes who were in Santo Domingo and Cuba growing robust while laboring under the hot sun, he proposed the introduction of negro slaves to relieve the more effeminate natives. This benevolent proposition gave rise to a lucrative traffic (see *Slave-trade*) and a perversion of the purpose of Las Casas, and he obtained from Charles V. a grant of a large domain on the coast of Venezuela, for the purpose of collecting a colony under his own guidance. This project failed, and in 1527 he proceeded to labor as a missionary among the Indians in Nicaragua, Guatemala, Mexico, and Peru. To reward him for his benevolent labors, his king appointed him Bishop of Cuzco — a rich see; he declined it, but accepted that of Chiapa, in Mexico. The Spaniards were offended by his zeal in behalf of the Indians, and an officer of the Spanish court undertook to justify the conduct of the Spaniards towards the natives. Las Casas, in self-defence, wrote a work upon the natives, which contained many particulars of the cruelties of the Spanish colonists. It was translated into several European languages, and increased the hostilities of the colonists and offended the Church. He returned to Spain in 1551, after about fifty years of benevolent missionary labor, and passed the remainder of his days in a convent at Valladolid. There he completed his *General History of the Indies*, which has never been published, and several other works, in Latin and Spanish.

Last Bloodshed in the Revolution. Some Americans, led by Captain Wilmot, a brave and daring young officer, were engaged in the duty of covering John's Island, near Charleston, in September, 1782. He was always impatient of inaction, and often crossed the narrow strait or river to harass British foraging parties on the island. While on one of these excursions, in company with Kosciuszko (which see), he fell into an ambuscade and was killed. This, it is believed, was the last life sacrificed in battle in the old war for independence.

Last Conflict of the Civil War. On May 11, 1865, Colonel T. H. Barrett, of the Sixty-second United States Colored Infantry, was in command of the National forces at Brazos Santiago, Texas. He sent three hundred men to the mainland, under Lieutenant-colonel Bronson, to attack some Confederates on the Rio Grande. The principal object of the Confederates was to procure horses for mounting the cavalry. Early on the morning of the 13th they attacked and drove the Confederates and seized their camp and some horses. Bronson fell back, when he was reinforced, and the Nationals, under the lead of Colonel Barrett, made another attack, drove off their adversaries, and destroyed their post. The Nationals pursued the Confederates. Resting, they were attacked by a heavy body of Confederates, cavalry and artillery, under the command of General Slaughter. The Rio Grande was on Barrett's left. He had no artillery, and was compelled to fall back, fighting. He lost forty-eight men, made prisoners. The United States colored troops formed a line a mile in length, protecting both flanks of the Nationals, and resisted every attempt of the Confederate cavalry to penetrate it. So ended the battle of Palmetto Ranche, the last conflict of the Civil War in the field. It was about sunset, May 13, 1865, when the Sixty-second Colored Infantry fired the last volley in the Civil War. In that war, which resulted in the destruction of negro slavery in our Republic, the first blood shed was that of a negro (see *Pennsylvanians in Baltimore*); they were negro troops who first entered the Confederate capital as victors (see *Richmond, Evacuation of*), and they were negro troops who fired the last shot in the war which emancipated them from bondage.

Last Conflict of the Revolution. The 25th of November was appointed for the evacuation of the city of New York by the British. The latter claimed the right of occupation until noon. Early in the morning Mrs. Day, who kept a boarding-house in Murray Street, near the Hudson River, ran up the American flag upon a pole at the gable end of her house. Cunningham, the notorious British provost-marshal, hearing of it, sent an order for her to pull down the flag. She refused, and at about nine o'clock he went in person to compel her to take it down. He was in full dress, in scarlet uniform and powdered wig. She was sweeping at the door. He ordered her to take down the flag. She refused. He seized the halyards to haul it down himself, whereupon the spunky Whig lady fell upon him with her broom. She made the powder fly out of his wig and finally beat him off. This was the last conflict of the war.

Last Executions of Quakers in Boston. In 1660 and 1661 the last executions of Quakers occurred in Boston. Mary Dyer (which see), the wife of a citizen of Providence, who was not a Quaker, visited those who were in prison in Boston for conscience' sake, after she had once been banished. Her return incurred the penalty of death, and she was led out to execution by hanging, on Boston Common, with two men (Robertson and Stevenson). On the scaffold she was reprieved for the day, on the earnest petition of her son, who promised to persuade her to leave the colony. She went home with him to Rhode Island, under a sentence of banishment, but soon returned to visit Friends in prison. She was arrested, and, the next day, under a strong guard of soldiers, and with the beating of drums to drown her voice, she was taken to the Common and hanged. Her husband had pleaded most piteously for her life, as one "most dearly beloved." But the magistrates and ministers were deaf to every appeal for mercy. The next year William Leddra, who had been banished, returned, and was hanged. These persecutions caused an amazing addition to the number of converts to Quakerism. The same year monthly meetings were established in several places in New England, and not long afterwards quarterly meetings were organized. On hearing of the death of Leddra, Charles II. sent an order to Endicott to stop the persecutions and to send all accused persons to England for trial. This order was sent by the hand of Samuel Shattuck, a banished Quaker, who appeared before Governor Endicott with his hat on. The incensed governor was about to take the usual brutal steps to send him to prison, after ordering an officer to remove Shattuck's hat, when the latter handed the magistrate the order from the throne. Endicott was thunderstruck. He handed back Shattuck's hat and removed his own in deference to the presence of the king's messenger. He read the papers, and, directing Shattuck to withdraw, simply remarked: "We shall obey his majesty's commands." A hurried conference was held with the other magistrates and ministers. They dared not send the accused persons to England, for they would be swift witnesses against the authorities of Massachusetts; so they ordered William Sutton, keeper of the Boston Jail, to set all the Quakers free. So ended their severe persecution in New England; but the magistrates continued for some time to whip Quaker men and women, half naked, through the streets of Boston and Salem, until peremptorily forbidden to do so by the king.

Last Royal Governor in Maryland. Maryland was disposed to be very conservative on the question of independence. Its Convention voted (May 20, 1776) that it was not necessary to suppress every exercise of royal authority. But several intercepted letters, written by Governor Eden, which had just come to light, caused Congress to recommend his arrest. The Baltimore Committee volunteered in the matter, but became involved, in consequence, in a collision with the Provincial Convention. A committee of that body reported, on investigation, that the governor, in his correspondence with the British ministry, had not acted in a hostile character; but, at the same time, it was voted to signify to

Governor Eden that the public safety and quiet required him to leave the province, which he did.

Latitudinarian Church. Some Independents attempted to establish a "Latitudinarian" Church at Weymouth in 1639, on the principle of admitting to membership all baptized persons, without either requiring a profession of faith or relation of experience. The theocratic government of Boston, zealous for the preservation of the purity of the faith, promptly suppressed this movement. The intended pastor (Lenthall) was forced to make a humble apology, and soon found it expedient to take refuge in Rhode Island. Several laymen who had been active in the matter were heavily fined; one was whipped, and one was disfranchised.

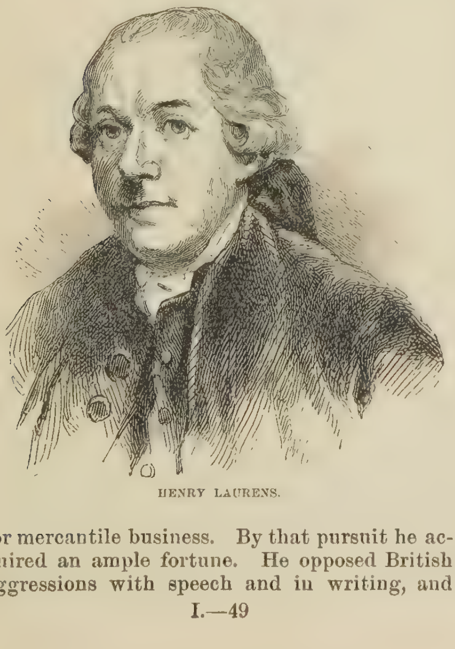
Latitudinarians in New England. A new school of divines sprang up among Protestants towards the close of the 16th century, who attempted the delicate task of reconciling reason with revelation. They rejected the authority of tradition. They declared against superstition on the one hand, and enthusiasm on the other, but were tolerant towards those who dissented from them. They were, in fact, Low Churchmen with Arminian principles. These principles had penetrated Massachusetts at the beginning of the 18th century, as evinced by the organization of the Brattle Street Church in Boston. Their practice of what was denominated the "half-way covenant"—of admitting to the holy communion all persons not immoral in their lives; indeed, to all the privileges of church-membership—shocked the Mathers and others; and when, presently, Harvard College passed under the control of this new party, theocracy in New England expired, and the absolute reign of theological rule was at an end. The result on the intellectual history of New England was important. (See *Latitudinarian Church.*)

La Tour in Acadia. When Acadia, or Nova Scotia, was returned to the French (1632), it was apportioned into provinces, under proprietary governors. To Razillé, commander-in-chief, was granted the southern portion of the peninsula, and one of his lieutenants was Charles La Tour, to whom was assigned a large portion of the territory. He and Seigneur D'Aulnay Charissy (another lieutenant), who controlled a section extending westward to the Kennebec River, were both engaged in trade, and bitter quarrels arose between them, on account of mutual (alleged) infringements of rights. After the death of Razillé, D'Aulnay, an unscrupulous man, attempted to assume control of the whole country. He was a Roman Catholic; La Tour was a Protestant. Through the powerful influence at court of Cardinal Richelieu, the king revoked the commission of La Tour, and ordered his arrest. The latter denied the allegations of D'Aulnay, and refused to submit to arrest. With five hundred men in vessels, D'Aulnay appeared off the mouth of the St. John River, in the spring of 1643, and blockaded La Tour in his fortified trading-house. A ship was daily expected from Rochelle, with a company of one hundred and forty emigrants, and might fall into the power of the blockading squadron. La Tour managed to give to the vessel intimations of danger, and under cover of night he and his wife were conveyed on board of her, and sailed for Boston, to seek the aid of the colony of Massachusetts in defence of their rights. La Tour was permitted by Governor Winthrop to fit out a small naval and military force at Boston. He chartered five vessels, mounting forty pieces of cannon, and procured eighty volunteers for the land-service and fifty sailors. When the armament appeared, D'Aulnay raised the blockade, and sought refuge under the guns of his own fort at Port Royal, where two of his vessels were wrecked. La Tour would have captured that stronghold, had not the New-Englanders left him before their term of service had expired. D'Aulnay sent a protest to Winthrop against this violation of neutrality, and a copy of the order for La Tour's arrest. A treaty of peace was concluded in 1644. Meanwhile the intrepid Madame La Tour was in England, obtaining supplies for her husband's fort. On her return, she was landed at Boston instead of the St. John, as agreed upon. She brought action against the captain of the vessel, and recovered $10,000 damages, with which she purchased supplies and munitions of war for the fort. It was put in a condition for a vigorous defence. During the temporary absence of her husband, D'Aulnay laid siege to it. Madame La Tour conducted an effective defence, attacking and disabling a frigate and killing or wounding thirty-three of the assailants. The baffled D'Aulnay was compelled to retire, greatly mortified. La Tour, meanwhile, continued to receive stores and munitions from New England, notwithstanding the treaty of neutrality. In reprisal, D'Aulnay seized and confiscated a Boston vessel, and this source of supply for La Tour was cut off. In the spring of 1647 D'Aulnay, hearing that La Tour and most of his men were absent from his fort, again besieged it. Madame La Tour determined to hold it to the last extremity. For three days the assailants were kept at bay. On Easter Sunday a treacherous Swiss sentinel allowed the assailants to enter the outer works. The brave woman rushed to the ramparts with her handful of soldiers, and would have repulsed the besiegers had not D'Aulnay, fearing the disgrace of another defeat at the hands of a woman, offered her honorable terms of capitulation. Anxious to save the lives of her little garrison, Madame La Tour yielded, when the perfidious D'Aulnay violated his solemn pledge. He caused every man of the garrison to be hung save one, whom he made the executioner of his comrades. The ruffians compelled the twice-betrayed Madame La Tour to witness these executions, with a rope around her own neck. D'Aulnay pillaged the fort of all the property, amounting to $50,000, and retreated to Port Royal. La Tour was a ruined man, and wandered in exile on the shores of Newfoundland and in the wilds around the southern shores of Hudson's Bay. These disasters broke the heart of his brave wife, and she died. Retributive justice brought about changes in favor of La Tour. Four years after his property was wasted, D'Aulnay died in debt and disgrace. La Tour now came back from the wilderness, vindicated his character before his sovereign, was made lieutenant-governor of Acadia, and again recovered his fort at St. John. He married the widow of his rival, and inherited his shattered estate, and prosperity once more smiled upon the Huguenot; for his claim to extensive territorial rights in Acadia, by virtue of Sir William Alexander's grant to his father, was recognized in 1656. He soon afterwards died. Acadia had then passed once more into the hands of the English.

Laudonnière, René Goulaine de, leader of a French colony in Florida. He first came to America in 1562, with Ribault. In the spring of 1564, Laudonnière sailed for America with three ships to assist the first colony, but landed in Florida. (See *Huguenots in America.*) In the onslaught made upon the French colony by the Spaniards, Laudonnière escaped. (See *Ribault.*)

Laurance, John, was born in Cornwall, England, in 1750; died in New York in November, 1810. He came to New York in 1767, where he was admitted to the bar in 1772, and married the daughter of General McDougall, on whose staff he served. He was also in Washington's military family. He was judge-advocate at the court of inquiry in Major André's case; was a member of Congress in 1785–86; State Senator in 1789; and member of the new Congress from 1789 to 1793. He was also Judge of the United States District Court of New York from 1794 to 1796, and of the United States Supreme Court from 1796 to 1800.

Laurens, Henry, was born in Charleston, S. C., in 1724; died there, Dec. 8, 1792. He was of Huguenot descent, and was educated in London for mercantile business. By that pursuit he acquired an ample fortune. He opposed British aggressions with speech and in writing, and pamphlets which he published displayed remarkable legal ability. He was engaged in a military campaign against the Cherokees. In 1770 he retired from business, and went to Europe the next year to superintend the education of his sons; and in England he did what he could to persuade the government to be just towards the Americans. On his arrival at Charleston, late in 1774, he was chosen President of the Provincial Congress and of the Council of Safety. In 1776 he was sent as a delegate to Congress, and was president of that body for a little more than a year from Nov. 1, 1777. He received the appointment of minister to Holland in 1779, and on the voyage across the Atlantic he was captured by the British, and was confined in the Tower of London about fourteen months, suffering so much that his health was permanently impaired. In December, 1781, he was appointed one of the commissioners to negotiate for peace with Great Britain. In November, 1782, he signed a preliminary treaty at Paris, with Franklin and Jay, when he returned home, and passed the remainder of his life in agricultural pursuits. In accordance with an injunction in his will, the body of Mr. Laurens, at his death, was wrapped in cloths and burned—the first act of cremation in America.



HENRY LAURENS.

Laurens, Henry, Capture and Imprisonment of. A plan for a commercial treaty between the United States and Holland was unofficially proposed to William Lee (September, 1778) by Van Berkel, pensionary of Amsterdam. It was submitted to the Congress, approved, and Henry Laurens was commissioned minister-plenipotentiary to the States-General of Holland to negotiate. He finally sailed in the Congress packet *Mercury*, and on the 3d of September, 1780, she was captured by the frigate *Vesta* off the banks of Newfoundland. Mr. Laurens cast his papers overboard, but they were recovered by a sailor, and the minister was taken to London. After an examination before the Privy Council, Mr. Laurens was committed to the Tower on a charge of high-treason, where he was kept in close confinement more than a year. He was cruelly deprived of pen, ink, and paper, and the converse of friends. Twice he was approached with offers of pardon and liberty if he would serve the ministry, and each time the offer was indignantly rejected by him. He was finally released, and at the request of Lord Shelburne he went to France, to assist in negotiations then making for peace. Among his papers recovered from the sea was the plan for a treaty with Holland; also several letters which disclosed the existing friendship of the States-General for the Americans. The British ministry were irritated by these documents, and the subsequent refusal of Holland to disclaim the act of Van Berkel, and Great Britain declared war against that republic. (See *Holland and Great Britain.*)

Laurens, Henry, Petition of. While on his way to Holland, in 1780, as United States minister-plenipotentiary, Henry Laurens was captured by a British ship of war, carried to London, and confined in the Tower for fourteen months, where, at first, he was treated with much harshness. He had been president of Congress, and was a notable prisoner. On Dec. 1, 1781, Mr. Laurens addressed a petition to the British House of Commons, dated "Tower of London," in which he stated that he had for many years, at the peril of his life and fortune, labored to preserve and strengthen the friendship between Great Britain and her colonies; that he had never excited animosity on either side; that he deprecated the events that brought on the war; that, in its progress, he extended every act of kindness in his power to loyalists as well as to British prisoners of war; that he was captured on the American coast, and on Oct. 4, 1780, was committed to the Tower, being then dangerously ill; that meanwhile he had suffered under a degree of rigor almost, if not altogether, unparalleled in modern British history; that from long confinement and the want of proper exercise, and other obvious causes, his bodily health was greatly impaired, and that he was then in a languishing state; and he prayed for enlargement under proper restrictions and conditions. This petition was presented to the House in the form in which it came from Mr. Laurens's hand, it having been written with a lead-pencil. He was soon afterwards released, but his rigorous imprisonment had so undermined his constitution that he never afterwards enjoyed good health.

Laurens, JOHN, son of Henry, born in South Carolina in 1753; died Aug. 27, 1782. Liberally educated in England, he returned to his native state just as the war for independence was kindling (1775), when he entered the army as an aid to Washington, and frequently acted as secretary. Expert in the French and German languages, he was Washington's chief medium of communication with the foreign officers in the service. He was a patriotic and brave soldier under all circumstances, and was devoted to the commander-in-chief. On one occasion he challenged General Charles Lee for speaking disparagingly of the chief. They fought, and he severely wounded Lee with a pistol-ball. In the battles at the Brandywine and Germantown Laurens was particularly distinguished; and afterwards, at Savannah and at Charleston and Yorktown, he performed prodigies of valor. At the latter place he was conspicuous at the storming of a battery, and was the first to enter it and receive the sword of the commander. For months his indefatigable activity caused the confinement of the British in Charleston; and finally, at the very close of the struggle, he too carelessly exposed himself in a trifling skirmish near the Combahee, S. C., and was slain. In the autumn of 1780, when the finances of the United States were exhausted, he was sent to France to solicit a loan. While earnestly pressing his suit with Vergennes, the French minister, one day, that gentleman said that the king had every disposition to favor the United States. This patronizing expression kindled the indignation of the young diplomatist, and he replied, with emphasis, "Favor, sir! The respect which I owe to my country will not admit the term. Say that the obligation is mutual, and I will acknowledge it. But, as the last argument I shall offer to your excellency, the sword which I now wear in defence of France as well as my own country, unless the succor I solicit is immediately accorded, I may be compelled, within a short time, to draw against France as a British subject." This had the desired effect, for France dreaded the subjugation of the colonies, or a reconciliation with the mother country. Presently a subsidy of $1,200,000, and a further sum as a loan, were granted. The French minister also gave a guarantee for a Dutch loan of about $2,000,000.

Lauzun (Duke de), ARMAND LOUIS DE GOUTANT, was born in Paris, April 15, 1747; died Dec. 31, 1793. He had led an expedition successfully against Senegal and Gambia in 1779, and came to America with Rochambeau in 1780, in command of a force known as "Lauzun's Legion," with which he took part in the siege of Yorktown. Returning to France, he became a deputy of the nobles in the States-General, and in 1792 was general-in-chief of the Army of the Rhine. In 1793 he commanded the Army of the Coasts of Rochelle. He did good service for his employers in the French Revolution; but when he persistently requested leave to resign his commission, the irritated leaders sent him to the scaffold, where he was beheaded.

DUKE DE LAUZUN.

Law against Witchcraft. Among the "Fundamentals" of Massachusetts was a law against witchcraft, which made its practice punishable with death. This law was fortified by a declaration of Scripture—"Thou shalt not suffer a witch to live." (See *Salem Witchcraft.*) There was, however, near the close of the seventeenth century, a growing spirit of doubt in New England concerning the reality of much of the supernaturalism which held so prominent a place in Puritan theology. To combat this rising incredulity, Increase Mather published a book of *Remarkable Providences* in 1684, in which were enumerated, among other things, all the supposed cases of witchcraft which had hitherto occurred in New England, with arguments to prove their reality. Five years later the superstitious Cotton Mather published a book entitled *Memorable Providences relating to Witchcraft*, which did much to produce that horrible event in New England history known as "Salem Witchcraft" (which see). Against public opinion and the teachings of common-sense, Cotton Mather maintained publicly his belief in the reality of witchcraft. (See *Harvard College Circular.*)

Law, COMMON. In all the states, either by constitutions or by legislative enactments, the English common law, and all those English statutes hitherto recognized and acted upon in the colonies, respectively, were made the basis of state jurisprudence. The common law of England has been defined as that part of the laws which have grown up from usage as distinguished from acts of Parliament or other legislative bodies. For example: A man in New York agreed to pay twelve shillings a day to any man employed in a certain business. Some of the men worked twelve and a half hours out of the twenty-four. It was held that these men were entitled to fifteen shillings a day, because common usage had established ten hours as a day's work at that particular business. The term common law has been applied to all such laws, statutory or customary, as were administered in the most ancient or common law courts. In this sense, in a limited degree, it is commonly understood in the United States. The general course has been, besides adopting the common law of England, to re-enact English statutes which had been sanctioned by colonial legislation and which it was deemed important to retain.

Law of Inheritance. A matter of great importance to several of the colonies was settled in Connecticut in 1729. There was a law of that colony (also in the rest of New England, as well as in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware) admitting daughters to share with sons as joint heirs, and distributing the lands among all the children equally, except a double share to the eldest son. On the appeal of John Winthrop, great-grandson of the first governor of Massachusetts, from the Superior Court in Connecticut to the King in Council, this law was set aside. This threatened infinite confusion and uncertainty concerning land titles in those colonies and in the settlement of all landed estates. Agents were sent to England, who obtained a reversal of this decision and a confirmation of the Connecticut law.

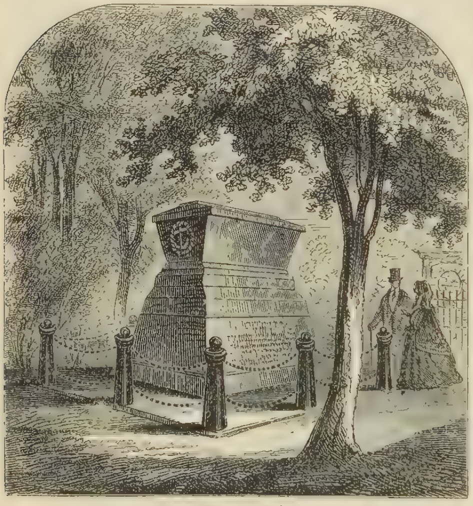
Law Reports. The State of Connecticut set the example of requiring the judges to give, in writing, the reasons of their decisions. Kirby's reports, published in 1789, containing the Connecticut cases from 1785 to 1788, were the first of a series of American law reports, of which we have now several hundred volumes.

Lawrence, CAPTAIN JAMES, REFUSAL TO VOTE THANKS TO. Through the influence of the Peace Faction (which see) in Massachusetts, the Senate of that state passed a resolution (June 15, 1813) which Mr. Grundy denounced as "moral treason." The Legislature had passed resolutions of thanks to Hull, Decatur, and Bainbridge, and a proposition was submitted for a similar vote to Lawrence for his gallantry in the capture of the *Peacock.* A committee of the Senate, of which Josiah Quincy was chairman, reported adversely to it, and a preamble and resolution were accordingly adopted. The former declared that similar attentions already given to military and naval officers engaged in a like service had "given great discontent to many of the good people of the commonwealth, it being considered by them as an encouragement and excitement to the continuance of the present unjust, unnecessary, and iniquitous war." The resolution was as follows: "*Resolved*, as the sense of the Senate of Massachusetts, that, in a war like the present, waged without justifiable cause, and prosecuted in a manner which indicates that conquest and ambition are its real motives, it is not becoming a moral and religious people to express any approbation of military or naval exploits which are not immediately connected with a defence of our sea-coast and soil." Captain Lawrence had then been dead ten days, slain on board his ship, the *Chesapeake*, in action with the *Shannon.* (See *Chesapeake and Shannon.*)

Lawrence, JAMES, U.S.N., was born at Burlington, N. J., Oct. 1, 1781; died on board the *Chesapeake* (see *Chesapeake and Shannon*), June 5, 1813. His father was a lawyer and distin-

JAMES LAWRENCE.

guished loyalist during the old war for independence. James entered the navy as a midshipman Sept. 4, 1798, and in the spring of 1802 he was promoted to lieutenant. In the schooner *Enterprise* he took a distinguished part in the destruction of the frigate *Philadelphia* (which see) in the harbor of Tripoli. In 1810 he was promoted to master-commander; and on Feb. 24, 1813, the *Hornet*, of which he was commander, fought and conquered the British brig *Peacock* (see *Hornet and Peacock*), which sunk before all the prisoners could be taken out of her. In March, 1813, he was commissioned captain in the United States Navy, and took command of the frigate *Chesapeake* in May. On the 1st of June the *Chesapeake* fought the frigate *Shannon*, and was beaten. Captain Lawrence was mortally wounded, and died at Halifax, N. S., four days afterwards. His remains were conveyed to New York, where a public funeral was held. The remains were then buried in Trinity Church burying-ground, and soon after the war the corporation of New York erected an elegant marble monument over the grave. It became dilapidated in time, and in 1847 the corporation of Trinity Church caused the remains to be removed to a place near the southeast corner of the church, a few feet from Broadway, and a mausoleum of brown freestone to be erected there in commemoration of both Lawrence and his lieutenant, Ludlow.


LAWRENCE AND LUDLOW'S MONUMENT.

Laws and Penalties in Virginia (1611). The magistrates of Virginia were furnished with a code of civil laws in 1611 which were intended to completely regulate the morals and moods of the colonists. The pains and penalties were definite and severe. The penalty of death was to be inflicted for blaspheming God; for speaking "maliciously and impiously" of the Holy Trinity; for deriding the Holy Scriptures; for treacherous words against the king; for murder; for adultery, or for rape, whether of white or Indian; for perjury; for trading with the Indians without license; for embezzlement of the public goods; for desertion of the colony; for treason against its rulers; for aiding theft; for robbing a garden; for wilfully pulling up a flower or root when set to weeding; for gathering grapes or plucking ears of corn, whether belonging to a private person or the public. The profane swearer was to have a bodkin thrust through his tongue for the second offence, and for the third, death. For absence from public worship or violating the Sabbath the penalty was deprivation of a week's allowance; second offence, public whipping; and for a third offence, death. For slandering the public officers or speaking evil of the colony the penalty was whipping; and for a third offence, death. The penalty for disobeying magistrates and unworthily treating a minister or preacher was a public whipping three times, and being compelled to ask forgiveness of the congregation on three successive Sundays. For killing any domestic animal—even one's own—without permission, was a capital crime in the principal; and his assistant was to lose his ears and be branded in the hand. Those who did not keep their houses neat and clean, and their bedsteads three feet from the ground, or who cast foul water into the streets of Jamestown, were subjected to trial by court-martial. A tradesman who neglected his business was sent to the galleys for four years, if he persisted in the offence. If any one failed to appear at appointed work at the beat of the drum morning and afternoon, or left his work before the hour appointed, he was laid, with head and feet together, all night upon the ground; whipped for the second offence; and for the third time sent to the galleys. He who failed to render to his minister an account of his faith, or refused to take advice from him in matters of religion, was whipped daily until he repented of his obduracy. And the minister who failed to read publicly, on every Sabbath-day, these laws and ordinances was deprived for a week of his allowance from the public store. The military code was still more severe.

Law's Bubble, a speculative scheme in which grants of land in Louisiana were involved. John Law, of Edinburgh, established a bank in France (1716), which, by royal authority (1719), became the receiver of the revenues of the kingdom. To it was attached a "Mississippi Company," which had grants of land in Louisiana, from the proceeds of the planting and commerce of which immense profits were expected. The shares of the bank soon rose to twenty times their par value, but fell as suddenly (1720). There was no bottom to the matter, and wide-spread financial distress and ruin followed the bursting of Law's "bubble."

Laws of Connecticut. The first body of laws for the commonwealth of Connecticut was compiled by Roger Ludlow, at the request of the General Court. This labor was begun in 1646, and completed in 1649. It comprised a complete collection of all the Connecticut laws then in force and many provisions borrowed from Massachusetts. Like the Justinian code, it was divided into titles and laws. These laws were printed at Cambridge in 1672.

League of States. The United States, under the control of the Articles of Confederation, was simply a league of commonwealths, marked by tokens of an inherent tendency to dissolution. Its first attempt to exercise the functions of sovereignty was a signal failure, and the beginning of a series of failures. The executive powers of the General Congress were wholly dependent on the will and caprice of thirteen distinct legislatures, swayed by sectional interests and moved by sectional jealousies. The league failed, for the same reasons, to establish commercial relations with Great Britain and other governments. The inherent weakness of the new government was palpable to every attentive observer. It was perceived that the inchoate republic was not a *nation*. In a well-written pamphlet, Lord Sheffield declared his belief that the ruin of the league would be speedy, because anarchy and confusion would follow as a consequence of the independence of the states. He advised against sending a diplomatic representative of Great Britain to our seat of government. He said, "If the American states choose to send consuls, receive them, and send a consul to each state, and this is the whole that is necessary." He regarded the league, composed, as was claimed, of petty sovereignties, as unworthy of the dignified title of nation, and predicted that they would soon become penitent suppliants at the feet of the king for pardon and restoration as colonies. Such was the tendency when the proposition for a convention to amend the Articles of Confederation was called. The adoption of the national Constitution averted the catastrophe.

Lear, Tobias, was born at Portsmouth, N. H., Sept. 19, 1762; died in Washington, D. C., Oct. 10, 1816. He graduated at Harvard in 1783, and became private secretary to Washington in 1785. The latter remembered Mr. Lear liberally in his will. In 1801 he was American Consul-general in Santo Domingo, and from 1804 to 1812 he held the same office at Algiers. Mr. Lear was an accountant in the War Department at the time of his death.

Learned, Ebenezer, was born in 1727; died at Oxford, Mass., April 1, 1801. He was a captain in the French and Indian War, and hastened to Cambridge with militia on the day after the affair at Lexington. His health failed, and he wished to retire from the service in 1776, but he was retained; and in the battle of Stillwater (see *Bemis's Heights*) he commanded the centre of the American army, with the rank of brigadier-general. His health still declining, he retired from the army March 24, 1778. He was then with the army at Valley Forge. In 1795 his name was placed on the pension list.

Le Bœuf, Fort. On June 18, 1763, Fort Le Bœuf was attacked by the Indians. The gallant commander kept the assailants at bay until near midnight, when the Indians set the block-house on fire. The commander and the garrison escaped to the woods, the Indians supposing they had perished in the flames that laid the fort in ashes. (See *Pontiac's War.*)

Ledyard, John, was born at Groton, Conn., in 1751; died at Cairo, Egypt, Jan. 17, 1789. He was educated at Dartmouth College for a missionary to the Indians, and spent several months among the Six Nations. Having a resistless desire for travel, he shipped at New London as a common sailor, and from England accompanied Captain Cook in his last voyage around the world as corporal of marines. He vainly tried to set on foot a trading expedition to the northwest coast of North America, and went to Europe in 1784. He started on a journey through the northern part of Europe and Asia and across Behring's Strait to America in 1786–87. He walked around the whole coast of the Gulf of Bothnia, reaching St. Petersburg in the latter part of March, 1787, without money, shoes, or stockings. He had journeyed fourteen hundred miles on foot in less than seven weeks. Thence he went to Siberia, but was arrested at Irkutsk in February, 1788, conducted to the frontiers of Poland, and there dismissed with an intimation that if he returned into Russia he would be hanged. The cause of his arrest was the jealousy of the Russian-American Trading Company. Going back to London, Ledyard accepted an offer to engage in the exploration of the interior of Africa. He left England in June, 1788, and at Cairo, Egypt, was attacked by a bilious disease which ended his life. There is a life of John Ledyard in Sparks's *American Biography.*

Ledyard, William, was born at Groton, Conn., in 1738; died there, Sept. 6, 1781. He was cruelly murdered by men of a marauding expedition under Arnold. (See *Fort Griswold.*)

Lee (Charles) **and Independence.** General Charles Lee, having received his $30,000 indemnity from Congress (see *Lee, Demands of*), was anxious for peace. At Annapolis, on his way north, he promised to use his great influence in bringing about a reconciliation, and whenever he found willing and sympathizing listeners in Pennsylvania and New Jersey he was free in his denunciation of the Americans for continuing the contest. He was decidedly opposed to independence. At Princeton, in a communication to Congress, he proposed to that body to authorize an offer to open a negotiation with Lord Howe on his own terms. Finding that he could not persuade the Americans to submit to become slaves, he performed treasonable acts with a hope of accomplishing his ends. (See *Treason of General Lee.*) He wrote to Congress from Perth Amboy (Oct. 12, 1776) that Howe would not attack Washington, but would infallibly proceed against Philadelphia; and he sought to weaken the Continental army by dividing it, by inducing Congress to order Washington to send a part of his army to Trenton. At that very moment Howe was moving against Washington.

Lee, Ann, founder of the society of celibates called Shakers in the United States. She was born in Manchester, England, Feb. 29, 1736; died at Watervliet, N. Y., Sept. 8, 1784. A cook in a public institution, she married a blacksmith named Stanley. In 1758 she joined the Shakers in England. The society had just been formed by James and Jane Wardley, Quakers. About 1770 she began to "prophesy" against the wickedness of marriage as the "root of all human depravity," and resumed her maiden name of Lee. She came to America with some followers in 1774, and in 1776 they established themselves at Niskayuna, near Watervliet, or West Troy, where she was the recognized leader of the sect. Being opposed to war, she was suspected of being a British emissary, and, being charged with high-treason, was imprisoned at Albany and Poughkeepsie until released by Governor Clinton in 1777, when she returned to Watervliet, and there her followers greatly increased. During a religious revival in New Lebanon (since in Columbia County, N. Y.) in 1780 many persons were converted to the doctrines of Ann Lee, and the now flourishing Society of Shakers of New Lebanon was founded. She and some of her followers made missionary tours into New England with considerable success from 1781 to 1783, and so greatly were her spiritual gifts manifested that she was acknowledged a mother in Christ — the incarnation of the feminine essence of God. She was called "Mother Ann."

Lee, Arthur, LL.D., was born in Westmoreland County, Va., Dec. 20, 1740; died Dec. 14, 1792. Educated in Europe, and taking the degree of M.D. at Edinburgh in 1765, he began practice in Williamsburg, Va. He afterwards studied law in England, and wrote political essays that gained him the acquaintance of Dr. Johnson, Burke, and other eminent men. He was admitted to the bar in 1770, and appointed the alternative of Dr. Franklin as agent of the Massachusetts Assembly, in case of the disability or absence of the latter. For his services to that state he received four thousand acres of land in 1784. In 1775 Dr. Lee was appointed London correspondent of Congress, and in 1776 he was one of the commissioners of Congress sent to France to negotiate for supplies and a treaty; but the ambition of Lee produced discord, and his misrepresentations caused one of the commissioners—Silas Deane (which see)—to be recalled. He returned to America in 1780. Deane's character has since been vindicated. Lee was subsequently a member of Congress, of the Virginia Assembly, a commissioner to treat with the Northern Indians, and a member of the Treasury Board from 1785 to 1789, when he retired from public life. He was patriotic, but of a jealous and melancholy temperament.

Lee, Arthur, Mischievous Intermeddling of. When France determined to acknowledge the independence of the United States, Spain agreed to advance money equal in amount to that to be furnished by France. It was to be sent to the United States from Havana. When Lee, who was equally disliked at Madrid and Versailles, heard of this, he talked and wrote so much about it that the Spanish government, which wished to avoid a rupture with England, took the alarm, and receded from its determination. (See *Diplomacy of the Revolution.*) Lee's constant interference in the public affairs of the Americans abroad, and his jealousy of American agents employed by Congress, produced disaster and disappointment where success was attainable.

Lee, Charles, was born at Dernhall, Cheshire, England, in 1731; died in Philadelphia, Oct. 3, 1782. He was the son of a British officer, and entered the army at a very early age, having held a commission when eleven years old. At twenty he was a lieutenant in the Forty-fourth Regiment, and accompanied the troops sent to America in 1754, where he saw considerable service during the ensuing six years. His regiment participated in the battle on the Monongahela, where Braddock was defeated. That was Lee's first practical experience of warfare. He served in the campaigns from 1756 to the conquest of Canada in 1760, when he returned to England with a captain's commission, and was promoted to major of the One-hundred-and-third Regiment, which was disbanded in 1763, and Lee continued a major on half-pay until 1772, when he was made lieutenant-colonel on half-pay. He had served with distinction in Portugal, but was not promoted in rank, probably because of the sharpness and volubility of his tongue concerning the shortcomings of his superior officers. On visiting the Continent after he was put on the half-pay list, he was made an aide-de-camp of King Stanislaus of Poland. He went to England in 1766, where he failed in his attempts to obtain promotion, and returned to Poland, where he was made a major-general, and afterwards served a short time in the Russian army. Finally, Lee made his way to America, where he claimed to be the author of the *Letters of Junius* (which see). Lee was boastful, restless, impulsive, quarrelsome, egotistical, ironical in expression, and illiberal in his judgment of others. His restlessness caused the Mohawks, who adopt-

CHARLES LEE.

ed him, to give him a name signifying "boiling water." He espoused the cause of the American republicans, and when the Continental army was organized he was chosen second major-general under Washington, which he accepted on condition that the Congress should advance him $30,000 as indemnity for any losses he might sustain by confiscation of his property in England. Through his boasting he became extremely overrated by the Americans of all classes. He was simply an unprincipled and utterly selfish soldier of fortune. His censoriousness, and his jealousy of Washington, whose position he aspired to, made him very mischievous, and finally he played the part of a traitor to the cause, without actual discovery of proof (though always suspected) until a few years ago. (See *Treason of General Lee*.) Made a prisoner in New Jersey late in 1776, he was not exchanged until early in 1778. His bad behavior at the battle of Monmouth in June of that year caused him to be tried by a court-martial, when he was sentenced to suspension from command in the army for one year. The Congress confirmed the sentence. He retired to his estate in Virginia, where he wrote *Queries, Political and Military*, the design of which was to cast a slur upon the character and military conduct of Washington. In a rude cabin of one apartment and little furniture he lived "more like a hermit than a citizen of the world," surrounded by his dogs and his books. Just as his time of suspension had expired he heard that Congress was about to deprive him of his commission, when, in a fit of anger, he wrote an abusive letter to the President, and his immediate dismission from the army was the consequence. Wearied of solitude, he visited Philadelphia in the fall of 1782, with a view to making sale of his estate. There he was attacked by fever, and died within five days, exclaiming in his last moments, "Stand by me, my brave grenadiers!" In his will, General Lee, after bequeathing his "soul to the Almighty and his body to the earth," directed that his remains should not "be buried in any church or church-yard, or within a mile of any Presbyterian or Anabaptist meeting-house; for," he said, "since I have resided in this country, I have kept so much bad company when living that I do not choose to continue it when dead." He was buried in Christ Church-yard, Philadelphia, with military honors.

Lee, Charles, in New York. Isaac Sears, an active "Son of Liberty" in New York, failing in obtaining official preferment, repaired to the camp at Cambridge, to make complaint of the prevalence of Toryism in New York, and the supineness of the Provincial Convention. He found a ready listener in General Lee. That officer requested Washington to detach him from the army, that he might collect volunteers in Connecticut to secure New York from an expected attack by Sir Henry Clinton, and to expel the Tories. After some hesitation, Washington complied. As soon as he entered upon the duties, he showed his contempt alike of the instructions of Washington and of the civil authorities. He railed at Congress, but worked energetically until he had raised two regiments in Connecticut—a larger body of men than he had ever commanded before. With about fifteen hundred men he marched upon New York, without intimating his designs to any one. This offended the pride of the colony, and awakened jealousy. He scoffed at the idea of being bound either by Congress or local civil authority. The Committee of Safety sent a request to Lee that the Connecticut troops might not pass the border till the purpose of their coming should be explained. Lee sneered at the request as "wofully hysterical," and as a sign of cowardice, and he made a ranting boast of what he should do if the British should attack the town. Lee entered the city on Feb. 4, just after the ships that bore Clinton and his troops anchored near it. There was a general flight of the inhabitants from the city. Lee's presence with Connecticut troops proved of great value, for Clinton, who, undoubtedly, had intended to seize New York, sailed away for the Carolinas. This lucky turn in affairs gave Lee much credit. He was lauded by everybody, and a demand which he made upon the New York Congress for $2500 was granted. This was requited by revilings from the lips of this military charlatan. Washington was reading his character thoroughly, and had already spoken of him as "violent and fickle." The Continental Congress instructed him to put the city of New York in the best possible state of defence. This he chose to construe as giving him unlimited authority, and he persecuted suspected persons without stint. When the New York Convention rebuked him, he said, "When the enemy is at the door, forms must be dispensed with." On the eve of his departure for the South, he gave orders to a Connecticut officer "to secure the whole body of professed Tories on Long Island." This order was resented by the Legislature of New York as a usurpation of the rights of a free people, and the Continental Congress condemned and reversed it.

Lee, Exploits of the. Washington conceived that the readiest way to obtain supplies for the army was the fitting-out of armed vessels for intercepting those sent from England to Boston. He caused six armed schooners to be fitted out for this purpose, which cruised off the New England coasts. One of these, the *Lee*, Captain Manley, captured (Nov. 29, 1775) the brig *Nancy*, an ordnance vessel from Woolwich, containing a large brass mortar, several pieces of brass cannon, a large quantity of small-arms and ammunition, and an abundance of things for the use of camps and artillery. Within ten days afterwards the *Lee* captured three British store-ships and a brig from Antigua laden with rum. In less than five days after the last-mentioned capture several other store-ships fell into the hands of Manley, and so the Continental army was supplied and the British army in Boston was distressed.

Lee, Francis Lightfoot, signer of the Declaration of Independence, and brother of Richard Henry and Arthur Lee (which see), was born at Stratford, Westmoreland Co., Va., Oct.

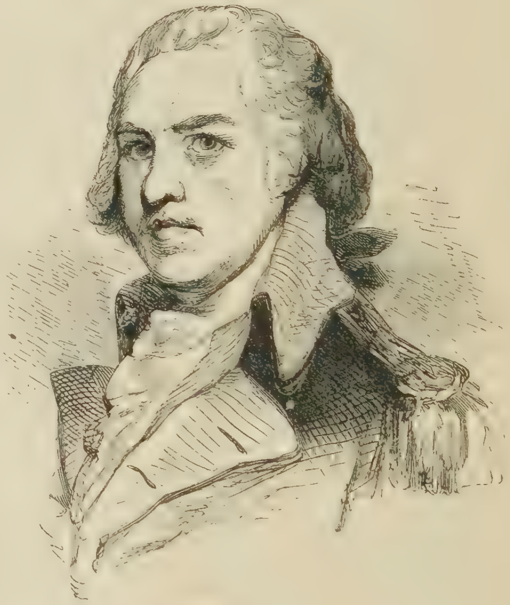
14, 1734; died in Richmond, Va., in April, 1797. In 1765 he was a member of the Virginia House of Burgesses, and held that position until 1772. He was in the Continental Congress from 1775 to 1779, and was active and efficient in framing the "Articles of Confederation" (which see). He was afterwards a State Senator. Mr. Lee and his wife died of pleurisy at almost the same time.

Lee, GENERAL CHARLES, AMERICANS DECEIVED IN. Through false pretensions, as well as misrepresentations and misapprehensions, the Americans had unbounded confidence in Charles Lee, and many were in favor of making him commander-in-chief of the Continental army at the time Washington was appointed. Indeed, he expected the honor, and was disappointed and surprised because he did not receive it. He had been in military training from his boyhood, and represented himself as well versed in the science of war. He was better understood in England. "From what I know of him," wrote Sir Joseph Yorke, then British minister at the Hague, "he is the worst present which could be made to any army." And so he proved to the Americans. He was selfish in the extreme. He had left the English army because he "saw no chance of being provided for at home." Soured against his government, he had sought employment anywhere as a mere military adventurer. He venerated England, and declared it to be "wretchedness itself, not being able to herd with the class of men [the English] to which he had been accustomed from infancy." He was continually seeking intimate relations with British officers — writing to Burgoyne, Sir Henry Clinton, and others — while ostensibly fighting against them in favor of the American cause. Even while disobedient, quarrelsome, and inefficient, the Americans did not lose faith in him, nor suspected that in his movements during the flight of the army under Washington from the Hudson to the Delaware (1776), and in his movements at the battle of Monmouth, he was seeking to betray them. But such was undoubtedly the case. (See *Treason of General Lee.*)

Lee, GENERAL CHARLES, AT CHARLESTON. When, in June, 1776, the British were about to attack Fort Sullivan, in the harbor of Charleston, Lee, who had been sent south to take command of troops there, went to the fort, and, after a brief inspection, declared it not tenable for "half an hour." It was "a slaughter-pen." He proposed to Governor Rutledge to withdraw the garrison from the fort without striking a blow. Rutledge refused, and Lee contented himself with giving several orders for preparing for a retreat. A better soldier than he commanded the garrison. It was the brave and calm Colonel Moultrie, who was unmoved by the evidences of alarm in the mind of the boastful Lee. Had the will of the latter prevailed, the fort, city, and province would undoubtedly have fallen into the hands of the enemy. Did Lee wish such an event? (See *Treason of General Lee.*)

Lee, GENERAL CHARLES, DEMANDS OF. Lee, with his usual insincerity and boastfulness, claimed for himself the glory which belonged to Moultrie and his little garrison of repulsing the British at Charleston (June 28, 1776); and he used this undeserved reputation in extorting from Congress, in advance, indemnity for any possible forfeiture of property in England because of his relations to the "rebels" in America. There was still a belief in the minds of the Americans of his superior genius and great ability as a military commander, whose favor it was essential to secure. With this impression, John Rutledge, Governor of South Carolina, fearing ill consequences from offending him, acknowledged his great services to that state in saving it from invasion, actually recommended the Congress to comply with Lee's demands, and consented to ask for "the enthusiast" the sum of $30,000, which was granted.

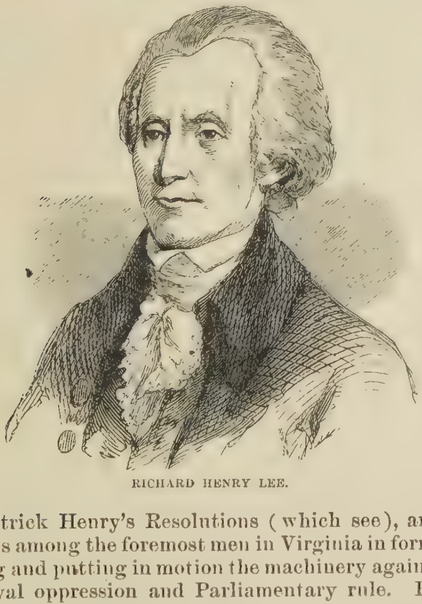
Lee, HENRY ("Legion Harry"), was born in Westmoreland County, Va., Jan. 29, 1756; died on Cumberland Island, Ga., March 25, 1818. He graduated at Princeton in 1773. His mother was Mary Bland, the "lowland beauty," whose charms inspired Washington, in his youth, with the "tender passion." He was a captain in Bland's cavalry in 1776, and joined the main army in September, 1777. "Lee's Legion" was one of the most active and efficient of the cavalry corps of the Continental army, and it was Washington's body-guard in the battle of Germantown. In 1778 he was made a major, in independent command, first of two companies of horse, and then of three, with a small body of infantry. With these he surprised the British post at Paulus's Hook in July, 1779. (See *Paulus's Hook.*) With the commission of lieutenant-colonel, he joined General Greene in the South,



HENRY LEE.

and was active and efficient in the Southern campaigns. Soon after the battle of Eutaw Spring (which see) Major Lee retired from the service, married, and settled at Stratford. He was a delegate in Congress in 1786, and advocated the adoption of the national Constitution in the Virginia Convention. Lee was in the Virginia Legislature; and when militia were called out to suppress the Whiskey Insurrection (which see), he was placed in command of them. He was in Congress at the time of Washington's death, and was appointed by that body to deliver the funeral oration in Philadelphia. While he was in a debtor's prison he wrote his *Memoirs of the War in the Southern Department of the United States.* Lee was in Baltimore at the time of the newspaper riot, in 1814, and in his endeavors to suppress it received injuries from which he never recovered. He was much beloved by Washington for his many noble qualities; and Greene said, "No man, in the progress of the Southern campaign, had equal merit with Lee."

Lee, RICHARD HENRY, signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born at Stratford, Westmoreland Co., Va., Jan. 20, 1732; died at Chantilly, Va., June 19, 1794. The names of himself and five brothers (Philip Ludwell, Thomas Ludwell, Francis Lightfoot, William, and Arthur) are conspicuous on the pages of our national history. Richard Henry was educated in England, and returned to America at the age of nineteen. In 1756 he was appointed justice of the peace, and entered the Virginia House of Burgesses in 1757, where he was ever distinguished as a debater and a clear political writer. Mr. Lee supported the famous Patrick Henry's Resolutions (which see), and was among the foremost men in Virginia in forming and putting in motion the machinery against royal oppression and Parliamentary rule. He was a delegate to the First Congress (1774), was a member of all the leading committees, and wrote the memorial of Congress to the people of British America. In 1775 he wrote the second address of Congress to the people of Great Britain; and from his seat in that body, in June, 1776, he offered the famous resolution which declared the English-American colonies to be "free and independent states." (See *Independence.*) It is said that his speech on that occasion was a brilliant display of eloquence. Leaving Congress in June, 1777, he was again in that body in 1778–80, 1784–85, and 1786–87. In 1784 Mr. Lee was chosen President of Congress, but retired at the end of the year. Mr. Lee was opposed to the national Constitution, because it superseded state supremacy, but he was a supporter of Washington's administration, and was United States Senator from Virginia from 1789 to 1792.



RICHARD HENRY LEE.

Lee, ROBERT EDMUND, was born at Stratford, Westmoreland Co., Va., June 19, 1807; died at Lexington, Va., Oct. 12, 1870. He graduated at the Military Academy, West Point, second in his class, in 1829. His father was Henry Lee ("Legion Harry"), the brave leader of mounted men in the Revolution. His mother was a Carter. Entering the engineer corps, he became captain in July, 1838, and was chief-engineer of General Wool's brigade in the war with Mexico. At the close of that war he had earned three brevets—major, lieutenant-colonel, and colonel; and he was a great favorite with General Scott. From Sept. 3, 1852, to March 3, 1855, he was superintendent of the Military Academy at West Point. In the latter year he was promoted to lieutenant-colonel of cavalry, and in March, 1861, to colonel. Accepting the doctrine of state supremacy (which see) when Virginia passed an ordinance of secession, in April, 1861, Lee went "with his state," and, abandoning his flag, went to Richmond, accepted (April 22, 1861) the command of the forces in that commonwealth, and resigned his commission in the National army. In accepting the office of commander of the Virginia forces, he said, "Trusting in Almighty God, an approving conscience, and the aid of my fellow-citizens, I devote myself to the aid of my native state, in whose behalf alone will I ever draw my sword." Circumstances caused him to abandon that resolu-

ROBERT EDMUND LEE.

tion, and he drew his sword in defence of all the slave-labor states. Lee's services had always been very acceptable to his government. He was an officer of fine culture, a soldier brave and discreet, and an engineer of great skill. He had superintended the construction and repairs of the fortresses at the entrance to the harbor of New York after 1841, and was a member of the board of engineers of the Atlantic coast defence. He had married, in 1832, Mary, daughter of G. W. P. Custis, the adopted son of Washington, and by her, in 1857, he became possessor of the estate of Arlington House, opposite Georgetown, on the Potomac, and the "White House" estate, on the Pamunkey. He was in command of a regiment of cavalry in Texas in 1860, and towards the close of that year he obtained leave of absence and returned home, where he was when appointed to the command of the Virginia forces. For a while he did not have a separate command in the field, and for more than a year did not fill any important place in the Confederate army. He was nominally superintendent of fortifications at Richmond and elsewhere, and was the military adviser of President Jefferson Davis and of the Confederate Secretary of War. When General J. E. Johnston was wounded (May 31, 1862), in the battle of Seven Pines, near Richmond, the command of the Confederate Army of Northern Virginia was given to Lee, June 3, and on the 26th of that month he began the series of conflicts before Richmond known as the Seven Days' Battles. Lee's military services during the Civil War are set forth under different heads in other portions of this work. He was finally compelled to resign his army to General Grant at Appomattox Court-house, April 9, 1865, on most generous terms for himself and his followers. He had been appointed general-in-chief of the Confederate armies in February preceding. After the war he retired to private life, refusing even to attend public gatherings of any kind. In October, 1865, he accepted the Presidency of Washington College (now called "Washington and Lee College"), at Lexington, Va. He held that position until his death. On the evening of Sept. 28, 1870, while apparently in his usual health, he was struck with paralysis, and lived only about a fortnight afterwards. Lee's sons—G.W. Custis, W. H. F., and Robert E.—all served as officers in the Confederate army. His eldest son, G. W. C. Lee, was chosen president of the college on the death of his father.

Lee, R. E., GENERAL-IN-CHIEF. There was so much dissatisfaction in the Confederacy because of the continual and mischievous interference of President Davis in military affairs, that a serious project was on foot, at the beginning of 1865, to make Lee dictator, and so deprive Davis of all authority over him. To avoid this humiliation, Lee was appointed general-in-chief of all the armies of the Confederacy, Feb. 1, 1865. To the same expression of discontent is attributed the appointment of Johnston to the command of the Southern Department.

Lee, THOMAS LUDWELL, was born at Stratford, Westmoreland Co., Va., in 1730; died in 1777. During the preliminary movements of the war for independence he was conspicuous as a lawyer and patriot. He was a member of the Committee of Safety, and in the Virginia Convention, in May, 1776, he was on the committee to draft a declaration of rights and a plan of a state government. On the organization of that government, he was appointed one of the five revisers, and was also elected one of the five judges of the General Court. He was a brother of Richard Henry Lee.

Lee, WILLIAM, brother of Richard Henry and Arthur, was born at Stratford, Va., in 1737; died at Green Spring, Va., June 27, 1795. He was agent for Virginia in London, and became a merchant there. London city being overwhelmingly Whig in politics, William Lee was elected sheriff of that city and Middlesex County in 1773. In 1775 he was chosen alderman, but on the breaking-out of the war in America retired to France. Congress appointed him commercial agent at Nantes at the beginning of 1777, and he was afterwards American minister at the Hague. Mr. Lee was also their agent in Berlin and Vienna, but was recalled in 1779. He was an ardent patriot and an able writer.

Lee, WILLIAM, DISMISSAL OF. William Lee, an ardent patriot, but who, like his brother Arthur, let his zeal outrun his prudence and judgment sometimes, had been American minister at the Hague, and was made the agent of Congress at Vienna and Berlin. In 1778 Jan de Neufville, an Amsterdam merchant, procured a loan to the Americans from Holland, through his house, and, to negotiate for it, gained permission of the burgomasters of Amsterdam to meet Lee at Aix-la-Chapelle. There they arranged terms for a commercial convention proper to be entered into between the two republics. When Lee communicated this project to the American commissioners at Paris, they (having been much annoyed by the intermeddling of his brother Arthur) reminded him that the authority for treating with the States-General belonged exclusively to them. Congress took no notice of his negotiations with De Neufville, and soon afterwards dismissed him from their service.

Lee's (R. E.) **Campaign in Western Virginia.** General Reynolds had been left by Rosecrans to confront General Robert E. Lee in the Cheat Mountain region. Lee was then in chief command in western Virginia. He had sent General Floyd to drive the Nationals out of the Kanawha valley, but the latter was defeated (Sept. 11) at Carnifex Ferry, and fled to Big Sewell Mountain. Reynolds's command consisted of Indiana and Ohio troops. With them he held the roads and passes of the mountains of the more westerly ranges of the Alleghany chain. His headquarters were at Cheat Mountain Pass, and Lee's were at Huntersville, in Pocahontas County. It was evident early in September, by the activity of Lee's scouts, that he was preparing to strike a blow somewhere. It was finally made clear that he was about to strike the Nationals at Elk Water, at the western foot of Cheat Mountain. His object evidently was to secure the great Cheat Mountain Pass, and have free communication with the Shenandoah valley. For this purpose he marched from Huntersville, in the night of Sept. 11 (1861), to make a simultaneous attack on Elk Water, the Pass, and a station of Indiana troops on the Summit, under Colonel Kimball. About 5000 Confederates, under General Anderson, of Tennessee, attempted to take the Summit and the Pass, but were repulsed. On the 12th Lee advanced in heavy force upon Elk Water, but was driven back. He was satisfied that his grand plan for seizing and destroying Reynolds's army and opening a way to the Ohio had failed, and he hastened to join Floyd on Big Sewell Mountain (see *Carnifex Ferry, Battle at*), between the forks of the Kanawha. In the encounters during two or three days, Reynolds lost 10 men killed, 14 wounded, and 64 made prisoners. The Confederates lost about 100 killed and wounded, and 90 prisoners. The joint forces of Lee and Floyd, on Big Sewell Mountain, numbered about 20,000 men, and there they were confronted by 10,000 Nationals under Rosecrans, assisted by Generals Cox, Schenck, and Benham. The belligerents remained in sight of each other for about three weeks. Wise, then under Lee's command, was recalled to Richmond. Lee's campaign in western Virginia was regarded by the Confederate government as a failure, and he, too, was soon afterwards recalled and sent to Georgia, to take charge of coast defences. He was succeeded in the chief command by Floyd.

Lee's (R. E.) **Farewell Address.** On the day after the surrender of the Army of Northern Virginia to General Grant, General Lee issued (April 10, 1865) the following address to his soldiers as General Order No. 9: "After four years of arduous service, marked by unsurpassed courage and fortitude, the Army of Northern Virginia has been compelled to yield to overwhelming numbers and resources. I need not tell the brave survivors of so many hard-fought battles, who have remained steadfast to the last, that I have consented to this result from no distrust of them; but feeling that valor and devotion could accomplish nothing to compensate for the loss that must attend a continuation of the contest, I determined to avoid the useless sacrifice of those whose past services have endeared them to their countrymen. By the terms of agreement, officers and men can return to their homes, and remain until exchanged. You will take with you the satisfaction that proceeds from the consciousness of duty faithfully performed, and I earnestly pray that a merciful God will extend to you his blessing and protection. With an unceasing admiration of your constancy and devotion to your country, and a grateful remembrance of your kind and generous consideration for myself, I bid you all an affectionate farewell." (See *Lee's Final Struggle*, and *Grant's Final Address to his Soldiers.*)

Lee's Final Struggle. While the Confederates were leaving Richmond, Lee's army was withdrawing from Petersburg. He hoped to conduct his army to Danville, on the southern borders of Virginia, whither his government had fled. He appointed Amelia Court-house as the point for the concentration of his army. There his forces would reach the Danville Railway, and thereafter use it in their flight into North Carolina. At the time when he sent his despatch for the evacuation of Richmond he ordered commissary and quartermaster's stores to be sent from Danville to Amelia Court-house for the use of his army. They were promptly forwarded; but when the officer in charge reached Amelia Court-house he received orders from Richmond to hasten thither with his train. The stupid fellow obeyed, but took with him the supplies. The "government," in its flight, occupied the whole train. The stores were left at Richmond and destroyed in the conflagrations. Lee was almost hopeless when he discovered this calamity, for it threatened his army with starvation. He knew that Grant, for the sake of celerity in pursuit, would break up his army into detachments; and Lee hoped, by a bountifully supplied army well in hand, to fall upon these fragments and cut up the National army in detail. Now he was compelled to detach nearly one half of his army to forage for supplies to keep his forces from starving. Grant, meanwhile, had taken possession of Petersburg, and his army moved in vigorous pursuit. Sheridan's cavalry and Warren's corps struck the Danville Railway (April 4, 1865) at Jetersville, seven miles southwest of Amelia Court-house. Some of his cavalry then pushed on to Burkesville Station, at the junction of that road with the Southside Railway. Sheridan now stood squarely across Lee's pathway of retreat, and held possession of his chief channel of supplies from Lynchburg and Danville. Lee attempted to escape by way of Farmville. Sheridan sent General Davies on a reconnoissance, who found part of Lee's army moving westward (April 5), his cavalry escorting a train of one hundred and eighty wagons. Davies fell upon the escort, captured many men and five guns, and destroyed the wagons. Lee's accompanying infantry had pressed Davies for a while, but, reinforced by Generals Gregg and Smith, he extricated himself. On the morning of the 6th nearly the whole of the Army of the Potomac were at Jetersville, and moved upon Amelia Court-house. Sheridan discovered Lee's army moving rapidly westward, and made a rapid pursuit, in three columns. Great efforts were made to check Lee's retreat. He was smitten severely at Sailor's Creek, a small tributary of the Appomattox, where another train of four hundred wagons, sixteen guns, and many men were captured. By this blow Ewell's corps, following the train, was cut off from Lee's main army. Very soon afterwards that corps was captured, Ewell and four other generals and six thousand veterans becoming prisoners. With his dreadfully shattered army, Lee crossed the Appomattox that night (Aug. 6 and 7) at Farmville, setting fire to bridges behind him. They were not all consumed. The Nationals crossed and captured eighteen guns abandoned by a rear-guard. Lee's troops and animals were perishing for want of food. Thousands let their muskets fall because they were too weak to carry them and walk. Lee would not listen to a proposition of his officers to give up the contest, and resolved to make further efforts to escape. Nearly the whole of Grant's army joined in vigorous pursuit of the Confederates, and, after defeat near Appomattox Court-house (April 9, 1865), Lee surrendered. (See *Appomattox Court-house, Surrender of Lee at.*)

Lee's Second Retreat from Maryland. After his disastrous experience at Gettysburg (July 1, 2, and 3, 1863), General Lee began a retreat for Virginia on the night of the 5th, having previously sent forward his enormous wagon-trains and sick and wounded men. Sedgwick's corps and Kilpatrick's cavalry were sent in pursuit. Sedgwick overtook the Confederate rear-guard at a pass in the South Mountain range, but was recalled, and the whole army, having rested, were put in motion for a flank movement through the lower passes of South Mountain. But the movement was so tardy that when Meade overtook Lee (July 12) he was strongly intrenched on the banks of the Potomac, near Williamsport, waiting for a flood in the river caused by recent rains to subside. While Meade was preparing to attack Lee, the latter escaped over the river. General Hill's rear-guard had been struck by Kilpatrick, and lost 125 men killed and 1500 made prisoners. Kilpatrick's loss was 105 men. Thus ended, in utter discomfiture and repulse, Lee's second formidable invasion of Maryland.

Lee's (Charles) **Treacherous Disobedience.** While the British were desolating New Jersey (November, 1776), and Washington, with his handful of troops, was powerless to prevent them, General Lee, with a large reinforcement, persistently lingered on the way. He had been urged by Washington, when the retreat from Hackensack began, to join him, but he steadily refused. Now the commander-in-chief entreated him to obey. Philadelphia was in danger, and the chief wrote, "Do come on; your arrival, without delay, may be the means of saving a city." Lee continued to persistently disobey every order of the chief. His reputation was at its zenith. The Americans were infatuated —a delusion which, in the light of subsequent history, seems very strange. He was aiming at the chief command, and he did all he dared, by insinuations and false reports, to disparage Washington in the estimation of the Congress and the people. With unparalleled insolence (which was not rebuked), he wrote to Dr. Rush, a member of Congress, "Your apathy amazes me; you make me mad. Let me not talk vainly: had I the power, I could do you much good, might I but dictate one week. Did none of the Congress ever read Roman history?" His letters at that juncture show his predetermination to disobey orders and act as he pleased with the troops which had been intrusted to him. (See *Treason of General Lee.*)

Lee's (Charles) **Trial.** Offended at the words of Washington at their interview on the battle-field of Monmouth, General Lee wrote a disrespectful letter to the commander-in-chief on the day after. Dissatisfied with Washington's reply, he wrote a still more disrespectful one. Lee was arrested, and tried by a court-martial for disobedience of orders; for having made an unnecessary, shameful, and disorderly retreat; and for disrespect to the commander-in-chief in the two letters. He defended himself with much ability. The court acquitted him of a part of the charges, but found him guilty of the rest, and sentenced him to be suspended from service in the army for one year.

Legacy to Posterity. The few politicians who involved the people of the United States in civil war in 1861 left to posterity a legacy of debt and misery the burden of which will be long felt among every class of American citizens and in every part of the Republic. An official report states that the entire sum expended by the national government, on account of that civil war, from July, 1861, to July, 1879, was $6,187,243,000. This has been the money cost of the war to only one party in the contest. What the other party expended will never be known, nor the amount of human suffering inflicted.

Leisler, JACOB, a republican leader in New York in 1690–91. He was born in Frankfort, Germany; died in New York, May 16, 1691. Leisler was of Huguenot descent, and came to America in 1660. Settling first in Albany, he soon became a trader in New York city. While on a voyage to Europe in 1678, he, with seven others, was captured by Turkish corsairs, and they were ransomed at a high price. In 1683 he was appointed a commissioner of the Court of Admiralty. On the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, the Governor of New York abdicated his seat, and Leisler, at the request of the people who composed the democratic portion of the population, assumed the governorship of the province. When the royalists were reinstated in power, and a royal governor had arrived, Leisler was arrested, condemned, and executed as a traitor. (See *Leisler's Insurrection.*) Mr. Leisler purchased New Rochelle (which he so named), in 1689, as an asylum for the Huguenots in America.

Leisler's Insurrection. Democracy had taken firm root among the people in New York, and when news of the accession of William and Mary reached that city the people were much excited by it. The military force of the city consisted of five militia companies, of which Nicholas Bayard, a member of the governor's council, was colonel, and Jacob Leisler, a Huguenot and merchant (distinguished for his zealous opposition to Roman Catholicism), was senior captain. The people were zealous Protestants. A Roman Catholic collector appointed by King James had been retained in place, and a rumor spread of a horrible plot and intended massacre by the opponents of the deposed monarch. A crowd of citizens, followed by the five militia companies, surrounded the house of Leisler and induced him to lead a movement for the seizure of the fort. Bayard attempted to disperse them, but was compelled to fly for his life. A distinct line was soon drawn between the *aristocrats*, headed by Bayard, Livingston, and others, and the *democrats*, led by Leisler. The fort was seized, with the public money in it. Nicholson, Andros's lieutenant, demanded the money, and was treated with disdain. A committee of safety of ten members—Dutch, Huguenot, and English — constituted Leisler "captain of the fort," and invested him with the power of commander-in-chief until orders should arrive from the new monarchs. He was, indeed, the popular governor of the province. The New-Englanders applauded the movement. Leisler proclaimed William and Mary at the sound of the trumpet, and sent a letter to the king giving an account of his doings. Nicholson, perceiving the support which the people of New York and New England gave to Leisler, departed for England; and the members of his council withdrew to Albany, where, acknowledging allegiance to William and Mary, they claimed to be the true governors of the colony, and denounced Leisler as an "arch-rebel." Leisler's son-in-law, Jacob Milborne, had just returned from England, and was sent to Albany with some soldiers to defend the place against an expected attack from Canada; but the old council there refused to give up the fort to Milborne. The people of Albany obtained aid from Connecticut, Milborne having withdrawn to avoid bloodshed. Soon after this a letter, addressed to "such as for the time being administer affairs," was received at New York, enclosing a commission as governor for Nicholson. As the latter was on the ocean, Leisler assumed the title of lieutenant-governor, construing the king's letter as a confirmation of his authority. He called an assembly to provide means for carrying on war with Canada. Leaving Leisler's letter unanswered, King William commissioned Colonel Henry Sloughter Governor of New York, and sent an independent company of regular soldiers, under Captain Ingoldsby (January, 1691) for the defence of the province. Influenced by the enemies of Leisler, Ingoldsby claimed the temporary administration of affairs, and the possession of the fort, by virtue of his commission from the king. Leisler refused compliance with the demand, but proclaimed Sloughter's appointment, and ordered Ingoldsby's troops to be quartered in the city. There was great excitement in the city between the aristocracy and democracy. Bayard and others of the old council were in prison. Leisler was, for a time, besieged in the fort, and some lives were lost; and because he refused to give up the fort at the first summons of Ingolsby, Sloughter, on his arrival, instigated by the friends of Bayard and others, caused the democratic governor and his council to be arrested. Bayard and others of the old council, having been released, were sworn members of Sloughter's council, and a special court was organized to try the prisoners. Leisler and Milborne, denying the jurisdiction of the court, refused to plead. They were tried, nevertheless, and found guilty; but Sloughter hesitated to order their execution, preferring to await the king's decision in the matter. Leisler's enemies burned with a desire for revenge. The Assembly, also composed of his enemies, refused to recommend a temporary reprieve. At a dinner-party given for the purpose, Sloughter, made drunk with liquor, was persuaded to sign the death-warrant. The revel was continued until morning for fear Sloughter, sober, might recall the warrant; and before he had recovered his senses Leisler and Milborne were taken from their weeping wives and children (May 16, 1691) and hurried to the scaffold, erected near the lower end of the present City Hall park. A drizzly rain was falling. A sullen crowd of citizens were spectators of the sad scene. Among them were Robert Livingston and others of Leisler's bitter enemies. The prisoners protested their loyalty and innocence of the charge to the last. Milborne said on the scaffold, "Robert Livingston, for this I will implead thee at the bar of God!" It was nothing less than a judicial murder. Some years afterwards the attainder which the crime with which they were charged had placed upon the victims was reversed by act of Parliament, and their estates were restored to their families. (See *Leisler, Jacob.*)

Le Moyne, the name of a distinguished Canadian family, members of which bore conspicuous parts in early American history. They were descended from Charles of Normandy, who died in Montreal, Canada, in 1683. He came to Canada in 1641, where he became a famous Indian fighter. In 1668 Louis XIV. made him seigneur of Longueil, and subsequently of Chateaugay. He had eleven sons, of whom Bienville and Iberville (which see) were the most eminent.—I. CHARLES, Baron of Longueil, was born in Montreal, Dec. 10, 1656; died there, June 8, 1729. He was made a lieutenant-general of regulars in the royal army of France, and, returning to Canada, he built churches and a fort at Longueil. He fought the English assailants of Quebec under Phipps in 1690, and was made baron and Governor of Montreal in 1700. Becoming commandant-general of Canada, he prepared to meet the expedition against Quebec under Walker in 1711. In 1720 he was Governor of Three Rivers, and again of Montreal in 1724. His influence over the Indians was very great, and in 1726 the Senecas allowed him to rebuild Fort Niagara.—II. PAUL, who was born in Montreal in 1663, and died in March, 1704, distinguished himself under his brother Iberville in Hudson's Bay. He commanded an expedition against the Iroquois, made peace with them in 1701, and acquired great influence over them.—III. JOSEPH, who was made seigneur of Serigny, was born in Montreal in July, 1668; died in Rochefort, France, in 1734. In 1694 and 1697 he commanded squadrons to assist his brother Iberville in Hudson's Bay, and brought over emigrants to Louisiana in a squadron to found a colony there. In 1718–19 he surveyed the coasts there, and took part in expeditions against the Spaniards at Pensacola and in Mobile Bay. In 1720 he commanded a ship-of-the-line, and died a rear-admiral of the royal navy.

He was also Governor of Rochefort at the time of his death, having been appointed in 1723.—IV. ANTOINE, seigneur of Chateaugay, was born in Montreal in July, 1683; died in Rochefort, France, March 21, 1747. He belonged to the royal army, and came with colonists to Louisiana in 1704, serving under Iberville there against the English. He was made chief commandant of Louisiana in 1717, and King's Lieutenant in the colony and Knight of St. Louis in 1718. He was in command of Pensacola in 1719; a prisoner of war for a while afterwards to the Spaniards; was Governor of Martinique; and, returning to France in 1744, became Governor of Ile Royale, or Cape Breton, in 1745.—Three other brothers obtained some prominence in history. Jacques, seigneur of St. Hèléne, served under Iberville, and was mortally wounded while defending Quebec against Phipps in 1690; François, seigneur of Bienville (I.), was killed in battle with the Iroquois in June, 1691; and Louis, seigneur of Chateaugay (I.), was mortally wounded in an assault on Fort Nelson, Hudson's Bay, in 1694.

Le Moyne, SAUVILLE, was not of the family of Charles, but was related to it. He was born in Montreal in 1671; died at Biloxi, Miss., July 22, 1701. He accompanied the brothers Iberville and Bienville in their expedition to the mouth of the Mississippi River, and was appointed the first governor of Louisiana in 1699. He was of feeble constitution; possessed brilliant talents, a remarkably fine personal appearance, and a large fortune. Racine pronounced him a poet; Bossuet predicted that he would become a great orator; and Villars called him a "marshal in embryo." These promises were unfulfilled.

L'Enfant, PETER CHARLES, engineer, was born in France in 1755; died in Prince George's County, Md., Jan. 14, 1825. He came to America and entered the Continental army as an engineer in the fall of 1777. He was made a captain in February, 1778; was severely wounded at the siege of Savannah in 1779; served under the immediate command of Washington afterwards; and was made a major in May, 1783. The "order," or jewel, of the Society of the Cincinnati was designed by Major L'Enfant. He was also author of the plan of the city of Washington. In 1812 he was appointed Professor of Engineering at West Point, but declined.

Lescarbot, MARC, IN NEW FRANCE. When, in 1606, Poutrincourt, who founded Port Royal, in Acadia, returned from France with a company of artisans and laborers, he was accompanied by Lescarbot, a French lawyer, poet, and writer of a *History of New France*, which was published in 1609. He came to assist Poutrincourt in establishing his colony on a firm basis. While Champlain and De Monts (see *De Monts*) were looking for a milder climate farther south, Lescarbot took charge of the fort. With great energy he planted, builded, and wrote rhymes, and infused into his subordinates some of his own energy. When Champlain returned, he was greeted by a theatrical masque, composed by the poet, in which Neptune and his Tritons welcomed the mariner. The dreary winter that followed was enlivened by the establishment of an "Order of Good Times" by Lescarbot, the duties of the members consisting in the preparation of good cheer daily for the table. In the spring the colonists were summoned to France by a revocation of their charter.

Leslie, ALEXANDER, died in December, 1794. He was a British officer of distinction in the Revolutionary War, and came to Boston with General Howe in 1775. He was made a major in June, 1759; a lieutenant-colonel in 1762, and was a brigadier-general when he came to America. In the battle of Long Island, in 1776, he commanded the light infantry, and was in the battle of Harlem Plains in September, and of White Plains in October following. General Leslie accompanied Sir Henry Clinton against Charleston in April and May, 1780. In October he took possession of Portsmouth, Va., with 3000 troops, but soon hastened to join Cornwallis in the Carolinas, which he did in December. In the Battle of Guilford (which see), he commanded the right wing. General Leslie was in command at Charleston at the close of hostilities. He was a gallant man. Colonel Tarleton having expressed with a sneer in the presence of Mrs. Ashe, at Halifax, N. C., a wish to see Colonel W. Washington, Mrs. Ashe said, "If you had looked behind, Colonel Tarleton, at the battle of the Cowpens, you would have enjoyed that pleasure." (See *Cowpens, Battle of the.*) Tarleton, much irritated, laid his hand upon his sword, when General Leslie, who was present, remarked, "Say what you please, Mrs. Ashe, Colonel Tarleton knows better than to insult a lady in my presence."

Letter-of-Marque and Reprisal is a commission granted in time of war to a private person commanding a vessel to cruise at sea and make prizes of the enemy's ships and merchandise. The ship so commanded is sometimes called by the same name. The word *mark* (frontier) was used by the Germans to denote the right of capturing property beyond the frontiers of another province. Sometimes the commission to privateers is called "Letter-of-Marque and Reprisals." (See *Reprisals.*)

Letters of a Pennsylvania Farmer. When Charles Townshend's obnoxious taxation bills became laws, the Americans, believing with Otis that taxes on trade, if designed to raise a revenue, are just as much a violation of the rights of people unrepresented as any other tax, acted accordingly. The colonial newspapers, then about thirty in number, had begun to be tribunes for the people, and teemed with essays on the exciting topics of the day. The most powerful of these productions were a series of essays on taxation and kindred subjects, entitled, *Letters of a Farmer of Pennsylvania to the Inhabitants of the British Colonies*, written by John Dickinson, an able lawyer of Philadelphia. They were written in a style of great vigor and animation, and were published in the *Pennsylvania Chronicle* during the summer of 1767. These letters were potential in forming and leading public opinion in opposition to the oppressive measures of the British government, and they were widely read and admired. At a public meeting in Boston the author was thanked in a resolution. The Society of Fort St. David, in Philadelphia, presented an address to Mr. Dickinson in a "box of heart of oak," appropriately inscribed. On the top was represented the cap of liberty on a spear, resting on the cipher "J. D.," underneath which were the words *Pro Patria.* Around the whole was the following sentence: "The Gift of the Governor and Society of Fort St. David to the Author of the *Farmer's Letters*, in Grateful Testimony to the very Eminent Services thereby rendered to this Country, 1768." On the inside of the top was the following inscription: "The Liberties of the British Colonies in America asserted with Attic Eloquence and Roman Spirit by John Dickinson." The *Farmer's Letters* were republished in England with a preface by Dr. Franklin. They were also published in French, at Paris.

Lewis and Clarke's Expedition. The exploration of the continent westward of the Mississippi River had long been a subject of thought for President Jefferson. When minister to France, he suggested to Ledyard, the celebrated traveller, an exploration of western America. In 1792 he proposed to the Philosophical Society at Paris to procure such an exploration with funds raised by subscription; and it was under the auspices of this society, and under instructions prepared by Mr. Jefferson, that Michaux, the celebrated French traveller and botanist, proceeded on his exploration westward, until recalled by the French minister. The way was finally opened to such an exploration by considerations of state policy. After the purchase of Louisiana in 1803, the utility of ascertaining the character of the interior of that domain was obvious, and in January, 1804, President Jefferson, in a confidential message, recommended the sending of an exploring party to trace the Missouri River to its source, cross the mountains, and follow the best water communication that presented itself from there to the Pacific Ocean. It was approved, and Congress made an appropriation for the purpose. Meriwether Lewis, the private secretary of the President, was appointed to command the expedition, and, at his request, William Clarke, a brother of George Rogers Clarke (which see), was associated with him. Lewis led forty-five men up the Missouri River, beginning the ascent on May 14, 1804. At the mouth of the Platte River scouts were sent out to announce to the several tribes of Indians inhabiting that region the change of government, and a council was held at a place since known as Council Bluffs, in Iowa. Passing through the country of the Sioux, they reached, in September, the villages of the Mandans, a light-colored race, where they wintered. They were then sixteen hundred miles from their starting-point. In the spring (1805), the explorers pushed on to the Yellowstone, and passed through the hot springs region—the country everywhere sterile and barren, for they had begun the passage of the Rocky Mountain range, which was there one hundred and forty miles in width. They arrived at the Falls of the Missouri in June (1805), and transferred their boats and baggage over a portage of eighteen miles. These falls have a descent of three hundred and sixty-two feet in sixteen miles, having one pitch of ninety-eight feet. After that the journey was most fatiguing. Arriving at the head-waters of the Missouri, Captain Lewis went with a party to explore the country, those with the boats ascending the river still farther. The divisions were joined on the 17th of August. Lewis had found the head-waters of the Columbia River, fifty miles distant. The entire party then left their boats and crossed the mountains, having procured more horses from the Indians. They were in the region of (present) Montana Territory and friendly Indians, the Nez Perces, who were very kind to the explorers. Down the Pacific slope of the Rocky Mountains they made their way, among precipices and snowy peaks, their provisions exhausted and game scarce. They resorted to portable soup, which had been reserved for such an emergency. At length, with great joy, they came to the foot of the mountains, and arrived at a large branch of the Columbia, among the Flat Head Indians. They distributed some medals among the principal chiefs, who furnished the explorers with canoes, and in them they floated several hundred miles in the midst of a high prairie country, depending chiefly on the natives for their food. They soon entered the Columbia proper, after passing another mountain range (Cascade Mountains), confining the Columbia for several hundred miles between it and the Rocky Mountains. On the 15th of November, 1805, the party entered the bay into which the Columbia pours, and at length came in sight of the Pacific Ocean. There they wintered, subsisting chiefly on the flesh of elks, which were abundant. In the spring (1806) the party retraced their steps, crossed the Rocky Mountains, and had one or two encounters with Indian tribes. Descending to the Mandan villages on the Missouri, Captain Lewis persuaded one of the principal chiefs, with his family, to accompany the party to St. Louis. After an absence of two years and four months, enduring much suffering, but solving a great geographical and topographical question, the expedition of Lewis and Clarke entered St. Louis, Sept. 26, 1806. By it the mythical and marvellous mist that had so long hung over the district of Louisiana was dispelled. The next year (1807) Captain Lewis was made governor of Louisiana Territory.

Lewis, ANDREW, was born in Ulster, Ireland, in 1730; died in Bedford County, Va., in 1780. His father was of a Huguenot family which settled in Ireland, and came to Virginia in 1732. Andrew was a volunteer to take possession of the Ohio region in 1754, was with Washington, and was major of a Virginia regiment at Braddock's defeat. In the expedition under Major Grant, in the fall of 1758, he was made prisoner and taken to Montreal. In 1768 he was a commissioner to treat with the Indians at Fort Stanwix; was made a brigadier-general in 1774, and on Oct. 10, that year, he fought a severe battle with a formidable Indian force at Point Pleasant (which see), and gained a victory. In the Virginia House of Burgesses, and in the field, he was a bold patriot. A colonel in the army, he commanded the Virginia troops that drove Lord Dunmore from Virginian waters. In that expedition he caught a cold, from the effects of which he died. Colonel Lewis's four brothers—Samuel, Thomas, Charles, and William—were all distinguished in military annals. His statue occupies one of the pedestals around Crawford's Washington monument at Richmond.

Lewis, FRANCIS, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, was born in Llandaff, Wales, in March, 1713; died in New York, Dec. 30, 1803. Educated at Westminster School, he became a merchant, and emigrated to America in 1734. Mr. Lewis was aid to Colonel Mercer after the capture of Oswego by the French in 1757 (which see), and was, with other prisoners, taken to Canada and thence to France. For his services the British government gave him five thousand acres of land. Patriotic and active, he was a member of the Stamp Act Congress (which see) in 1765. He was a delegate from New York in the Continental Congress from 1775 to 1779. Settled on Long Island, which abounded with Tories, he suffered much from the destruction of his property by this class of citizens. They caused the death of his wife by brutally confining her in a prison for several months. To his patriotism he sacrificed the most of his property, and died poor.

SKIRMISH ON THE GREEN AT LEXINGTON.* (From an old print.)

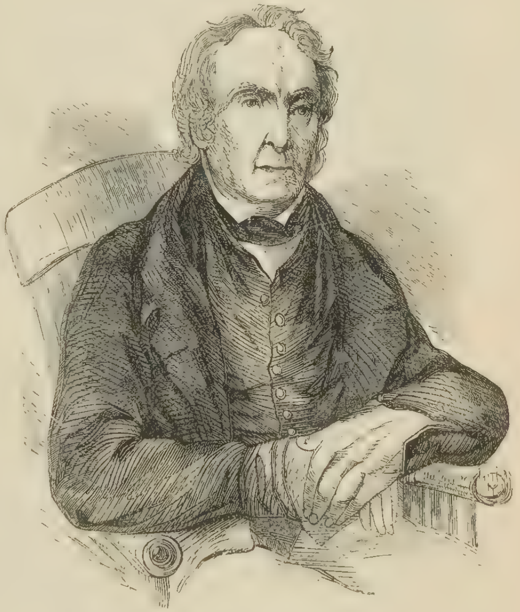
Lewis, MERIWETHER, was born near Charlottesville, Va., Aug. 18, 1774; died near Nashville, Tenn., Oct. 11, 1809. Possessed of a bold and enterprising spirit, he relinquished academic studies, read with avidity true and fictitious tales of adventure, and though he pursued farming, his mind was absorbed with thoughts of adventure. He was a volunteer soldier in repressing the Whiskey Insurrection (which see), after which he entered the regular army (1795) and became captain in December, 1800. Mr. Lewis became the private secretary of Mr. Jefferson, and in 1803 that President sent Captain Lewis to explore the country westward from the Mississippi to the Pacific. (See *Lewis and Clarke's Expedition.*) He made a successful exploration of the interior of the continent. Subject to fits of melancholy, in one of them he put an end to his own life. He had been made governor of Louisiana Territory, March 2, 1807, but died before he assumed the functions of his office.

Lewis, MORGAN, was born in New York, Oct. 16, 1754; died there, April 7, 1844. He was a son of Francis Lewis, a signer of the Declaration of Independence, and graduated at Princeton in 1773. He studied law with John Jay, and joined the army at Cambridge in June, 1775. He was on the staff of General Gates with the rank of colonel, in January, 1776, and soon afterwards became quartermaster-general of the Northern Army. He was active during the war, and at its close was admitted to the bar, and practised in Duchess County, N. Y. He was a judge of the Court of Common Pleas, and of the Superior Court of the state in 1792, being, the year before, attorney-general of the state. He was chief-justice in 1801, and governor from 1804 to 1807. In 1812 he was appointed quartermaster-general with the rank of brigadier, and was promoted to major-general in 1813. He was active on the Niagara frontier in 1814, and was placed in command of the defences of the city of New York. After the war he devoted himself to literature and agriculture. In 1832 he delivered the address on the centennial of Washington's birth before the city authorities, and in 1835 became president of the New York Historical Society.

---

* This was engraved by Amos Doolittle, from a drawing by Earle after the battle. The larger building was the meeting-house. The dwelling on the left was a tavern. It was yet standing in 1876.

Lexington and Concord. In the early spring of 1775, General Gage had between 3000 and 4000 troops in Boston, and felt strong in the presence of rebellious utterances that filled the air. He observed with concern the gathering of munitions of war by the colonists. Informed that a considerable quantity had been deposited at Concord, a village about sixteen miles from Boston, he planned a secret expedition to seize or destroy them. Towards midnight, on the 18th of April, he sent 800 men, under Lieutenant-colonel Smith and Major Pitcairn, to execute his designs. The vigilant patriots had discovered the secret, and were on the alert, and when the expedition moved to cross the Charles River, Paul Revere, one of the most active of the Sons of Liberty in Boston, had preceded them, and was on his way towards Concord to arouse the inhabitants and the minute-men. Soon afterwards church-bells, musketry, and cannons spread the alarm over the country; and when, at dawn (April 19, 1775), Pitcairn, with the advanced guard, reached Lexington, a little village six miles from Concord, he found seventy determined men, under Captain Jonas Parker, drawn up on the green to oppose him. Pitcairn rode forward and shouted, "Disperse! disperse, you rebels! Down with your arms, and disperse!" They refused obedience, and he ordered his men to fire. The order was obeyed, and the war for independence was thus begun. Eight minute-men—good citizens of Massachusetts—were killed, several others were wounded, and the remainder were dispersed. It was now sunrise. On that occasion Jonathan Harrington, a youth of seventeen years, played the fife. The writer visited him and made a sketch of him in 1848, when he was past ninety years of age. Under that sketch he wrote his name and age. He was splitting wood in front of his house at the time the writer first saw him, when he politely invited the latter into the house, and took a seat in his rocking-chair. He died in March, 1854. The British pressed forward towards Concord. The citizens there had been aroused by a horseman from Lexington, and the militia were flocking towards the town from every direction. The stores were hastily removed to a place of concealment, in carts and other vehicles, by men, women, and children. The Middlesex farmers, armed with every conceivable kind of fire-arms, were drawn up in battle array in defence of their homes and their chartered rights. Major Buttrick and Adjutant Joseph Hosmer took the chief command. The British had reached the North Bridge. Colonel Barrett, then in command of the whole, gave the word to march, and a determined force, under Major Buttrick, pressed forward to oppose the invaders, who were beginning to destroy the bridge. The minute-men were fired upon by the British, when a full volley was returned by the patriots. Some of the invaders fell; the others retreated. They had destroyed only a few stores in the village. The invaders were terribly smitten by the gathering minute-men on their retreat towards Lexington. Shots came, with deadly aim, from behind fences, stone-walls, and trees. The gathering yeomanry swarmed from the woods and fields, from farm-houses and hamlets. They attacked from ambush and in the open highway. It was evident to the Britons that the whole country was aroused. The heat was intense; the dust intolerable. The 800 men must have perished or been captured, had not a reinforcement, under Lord Percy, met and relieved them near Lexington. After a brief rest, the whole body, 1800 strong, retreated, and were terribly assailed along the whole ten miles to their shelter at Charlestown, narrowly escaping 700 Essex militia, under Colonel Pickering, marching to strike their flank. Under the guns of British war-vessels, the remnant of the detachment rested that night, and passed over to Boston the next morning. During the expedition the British lost, in killed, wounded, and missing, 273 men; the Americans lost 103. (See *Uprising of the People.*)



Jonª Harrington
aged 90 the 8th July 1848

Lexington and Concord, EFFECT OF THE SKIRMISHES AT. When news of the affair at Lexington and Concord went over the land, the people were everywhere aroused to action, and never before nor afterwards was there so unanimous a determination to resist British oppression. In wavering New York there was unity at once, and the custom-house was immediately closed, and all vessels preparing to sail for Quebec, Newfoundland, Boston, or Georgia were detained—the latter colony not having yet sent delegates to the Continental Congress. The New-Yorkers addressed a letter to the mayor and aldermen of London—from whom Boston, in its distress (see *Boston Port Bill*), had received sympathy and aid—declaring that all the horrors of civil war could not compel the colonists to submit to taxation by the British Parliament. The inhabitants of Philadelphia followed those of the city of New York. Those of New Jersey took possession of the provincial treasury, containing about $50,000, to use for their own defence. The news reached Baltimore in six days, when the people seized the provincial magazine, containing about fifteen hundred stand of arms, and stopped all exports to the fishing-islands, to such of the islands as had not joined the confederacy, and to the British army and navy at Boston. In Virginia a provincial convention was held (see *Virginia Convention*), which took measures for the defence of the colony.

BATTLE-GROUND AT CONCORD. (See p 785.)

Lexington (Mo.), SIEGE OF (1861). After the drawn battle at Wilson's Creek (which see), General McCulloch found his assumption of authority so offensive to the Missourians that he left the state. General Price called upon the Secessionists to fill up his shattered ranks. They responded with alacrity, and at the middle of August he moved northward, in the direction of Lexington, which is situated on a curve of the Missouri River. It occupied an important position, and was garrisoned with less than 3000 troops, under Colonel James A. Mulligan. His troops, unfortunately, had only forty rounds of cartridges each, six small brass cannons, and two howitzers. The latter were useless, because there were no shells. On the morning of Sept. 11 Price appeared at a point three miles from Lexington. Hourly expecting reinforcements, Mulligan resolved to defy the overwhelming force of the enemy with the means at his command. Price moved forward, drove in the National pickets, and opened a cannonade on Mulligan's hastily constructed works. Very soon some outworks were captured, after fierce struggles, but the defence was bravely maintained throughout the day. Price was anxious, for he knew that there was a large Union force near under Colonel J. C. Davis, and General John Pope was coming down from the country northward of the Missouri River. Mulligan was hopeful, for he expected some of these troops every moment. Day after day and night after night his men worked to strengthen the position, and Price's 20,000 men were kept at bay. Finally, on the 17th, the Confederates were reinforced, and their number was swelled to 25,000. Then Price cut off the communication of the garrison with the town, their chief source of water supply. The next day he took possession of the town, closed up the garrison, and began a vigorous siege. For seventy-two hours Mulligan and his little band sustained it, amid burning sun-heat by day and suffocating smoke at all times, until ammunition and provisions were exhausted, and on the morning of the 20th he was compelled to surrender. The loss of this post was severely felt, and Frémont, resolving to retrieve it, at once put in motion 20,000 men to drive Price and his followers out of Missouri. The National loss in men was 40 killed and 120 wounded; the Confederates lost 25 killed and 75 wounded. Mulligan and his officers were held prisoners of war; the men were paroled. The spoils were 6 cannons, 2 mortars, 3000 muskets, 750 horses, wagons, teams, etc., and $100,000 worth of commissary stores. A week before the arrival of Mulligan at Lexington, Governor Jackson and his Legislature had held a session there, and had deposited $800,000 in gold coin in the bank. They quitted it so precipitately, that they left this money and the seal behind, which fell into Mulligan's hands. These treasures Price recovered.

L'Hommedieu, Ezra, was born at Southold, L. I., Aug. 30, 1734; died there, Sept. 28, 1811. He graduated at Yale College in 1754. He was of Huguenot descent; a lawyer by profession; a delegate to the New York Provincial Congress from 1775 to 1778; assisted in the formation of the first constitution of the State of New York; was a member of the Continental Congress at different times from 1779 to 1788; a State Senator and Regent of the University of the State of New York from 1787 till his death.

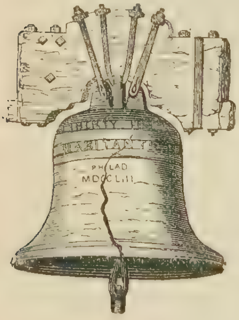
Libby Prison. This building acquired an unenviable name during the Civil War, by its being the theatre of intense sufferings by Union prisoners of war. It was a tobacco-factory, built of brick, standing on Main Street, near Twenty-fifth Street, Richmond. It was hastily prepared for the reception of prisoners, and into it officers and men taken at Bull's Run, to the number of about six hundred, were thrust within two or three days after the battle. Among the prisoners was Alfred Ely, a member of Congress from Rochester, N. Y., who went out to see the spectacle of the battle, and was caught. The prisoners were placed under the care of Brigadier-general John H. Winder, of Maryland, who had left the National army. These early prisoners suffered much for want of room, light, air, and food, but later ones suffered far more than they. The Union people of Richmond administered to their wants for a while, but were finally prevented from doing this good work by command of the Confederate leaders.

LIBBY PRISON, RICHMOND.

Liberia, a republic on the west coast of Africa, is the product of the American Colonization Society, which, in 1820, sent the first colonists there from the United States. The area of the republic is 9700 square miles. The population—composed of colored emigrants from the United States and their descendants (who are the ruling class) and of uncivilized native tribes—was about 720,000 in 1873, of whom 19,000 were American-Liberians, and the remaining 701,000 aboriginal inhabitants. The capital and largest town is Monrovia, a seaport on Cape Mesurada, with about 13,000 inhabitants. They have public schools, churches, missionary societies, and all the ordinary machinery of civilization; and Liberia is, on the whole, a prosperous republic. It has quite a flourishing commerce, and agriculture is carried on successfully. In 1847 the Liberians, at the suggestion of the Colonization Society (which see), declared themselves a sovereign and independent nation, when a constitution, modelled after that of the United States, was adopted. It maintains that all men are born equally free in the enjoyment of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that all power is inherent in the people; that slavery shall not exist nor be countenanced in the republic; that all elections shall be by ballot; that none but persons of color shall be admitted to citizenship; that the Legislature shall be composed of a Senate and House of Representatives, the members of the latter elected biennially, one representative for every 10,000 inhabitants. The president is elected by the people for a term of two years. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court and several inferior courts.

Liberties and Franchises—Charter for New York. Charles II. granted the Province of New Netherland to his brother James, Duke of York, without competent authority, and, having the power, the duke took possession by an armed force in 1664, and ruled it by governors appointed by himself. The name of the province was changed to New York. In 1683, when Thomas Dongan was made governor (see *Dongan, Thomas*), the people asked for more political privileges, and the duke instructed him to call a representative assembly. It met in the fort at New York on Oct. 17, 1683, and sat three weeks, passing fourteen acts, all of which were approved by the governor. The first act was entitled "The Charter of Liberties and Franchises granted by his Royal Highness to the Inhabitants of New York and its Dependencies." (See *Duke's County*.) The duke approved the act. It declared that supreme legislative power should forever be and reside in the governor, council, and people, met in General Assembly; that every freeholder and freeman should be allowed to vote for representatives without restraint; that no freeman should suffer but by judgment of his peers; that all trials should be by a jury of twelve men; that no tax should be assessed, on any pretence whatever, but by the consent of the Assembly; that no seaman or soldier should be quartered on the inhabitants against their will; that no martial law should exist; and that no person professing faith in God by Jesus Christ should at any time be anywise disquieted or questioned for any difference of opinion. Two years afterwards the duke succeeded to the throne as James II., when he at once struck a severe blow at this fair fabric of liberty. James as king broke the promises of James as duke. He had become an avowed Roman Catholic, and determined to fill all offices in his realm with men of that creed. He levied direct taxes on New York without the consent of the people, forbade the introduction of printing, and otherwise established tyranny. (See *Dongan, Thomas*.) But he dared not attempt to suppress the General Assembly, the first truly representative government established in New York.

Liberty Bell. In a room on the ground-floor of the old State House, Philadelphia, is the old bell that rang out, in conjunction with human voices, the joyful tidings of the Declaration of Independence, in July, 1776. It was cast by Pass & Stow, Philadelphia, and was hung in the belfry of the State House early in June, 1753. It weighed 2080 pounds, and around it, near its top, were cast the words, prophetic of its destiny, "PROCLAIM LIBERTY THROUGHOUT ALL THE LAND, UNTO ALL THE INHABITANTS THEREOF. Lev. xxv. 10." When the British forces approached Philadelphia, in 1777, the bell was taken down and carried to Allentown, to prevent its falling into the hands of the enemy. In 1781 it was placed in the brick tower of the State House, below the original belfry, which, being of wood, had become decayed. For more than fifty years the bell participated in the celebrations of the anniversary of the Declaration of Independence, when it was cracked while ringing. An effort was made to restore its tone by sawing the crack wider, but it was unsuccessful. A new steeple and a new bell were put up in 1828. For many years the old bell remained in silent dignity in the tower, when it was taken down and placed on a platform in Independence Hall, whence it was removed to a room opposite in 1876, and there it remains.



LIBERTY BELL.

Liberty of the Press Denied (RIOT IN BALTIMORE IN 1812). After war had been declared, intimations were given, by persons in Congress and out of it, that opposition to it must cease. The Federalists and their newspapers claimed the right to speak as freely as ever. One of the latter—the *Federal Republican*—practically asserted that right when, on publishing the Declaration of War, it declared its intention to speak of men and events with the same freedom as before. Two days afterwards the office of that paper, with its press and types, was demolished by a mob. The proprietors fled for their lives, and resumed the publication of their paper at Georgetown. Determined to vindicate their rights and the freedom of the press, they returned to Baltimore, resumed the publication of their paper at the house of one of the proprietors, and, expecting another attack from a mob, barricaded the doors and windows, and garrisoned it with about twenty armed men, under the leadership of General Henry Lee, who, with General Lingan, volunteered to defend the place. The house was attacked; one of the doors was forced open, and when the assailants attempted to ascend the stairs, they were fired upon by the defenders. Several were wounded, and the ringleader was killed. After repeated applications to the city authorities by the defenders for protection, General Stricker, of the city militia, was ordered to call out troops. He and the mayor effected an arrangement with the mob—who had brought a piece of cannon to bear on the house—by which the defenders were to submit to be taken to prison on a charge of murder, on condition that they should have personal protection, and their property guarded by a military force. The latter conditions were grossly violated. The house was entered, and its contents destroyed, and the prison in which the defenders were confined was entered by the mob; some of them were seized, and others escaped. Those who were caught were horribly beaten, after which nine of them were pitched down the stone steps of the prison, where they lay in a heap, the mob amusing themselves for three hours or more by torturing them. They stuck penknives into their flesh and dropped candle-grease into their eyes to see if they were really dead, frequently shouting for Jefferson, Madison, and others of the ruling party. General Lingan, who vainly begged them to spare his life for the sake of a young family, expired in the midst of their tortures; and General Lee, who, like Lingan, had performed noble deeds in the war for independence, escaped, but was made a cripple for life. The others, feigning death while enduring dreadful torture, escaped with their lives, but only through a happy thought of the jailer, who told the mob their bones would make good Tory skeletons, and persuaded them to allow him to carry them into the prison. Places in or out of the city were found for the survivors, until they had fully recovered. Other atrocities were committed. Upon an investigation of this affair, the magistrates decided that the proprietors of the newspaper were to blame for persisting in publishing, at such a time, a newspaper disagreeable to the mob and the ruling party. The ringleaders were acquitted, the attorney-general so far sympathizing with them as to express a regret that every defender of the house attacked had not been killed.

Liberty-cap Cent. It was about three years after a mint for the coinage of money for the United States was authorized that the act went into operation, and in the interval several of the coins called "specimens," now so scarce, were struck. Among the most rare is the "liberty-cap cent," having a profile and the name of Washington on one side, and on the other a liberty-cap in the centre, with rays of light emanating from it, and the words around them "SUCCESS TO THE UNITED STATES."

Liberty Party, THE, grew out of the influence of societies formed for effecting the abolition of slavery throughout the Republic. It originated about the year 1844. The prime article of its political creed was opposition to African slavery in our country. The party cared not whether a man was called Whig or Democrat; if he would declare his unalterable opposition to slavery, slaveholders, and the friends of slaveholders, it gave him the cordial right hand of fellowship. A man less true to the faith was not admitted within the pale of the party. It contained, in proportion to its numbers, more men of wealth, talents, and personal worth than any other party. It was opposed to the annexation of Texas, for it regarded that as a scheme of the slaveholders to extend their domain and political power. The party could not vote for Mr. Polk, for he was favorable to that annexation; it could not vote for Mr. Clay, for he was a slaveholder; so it nominated James G. Birney (who had formerly been a slaveholder in Kentucky, but, from conscientious motives, had emancipated his slaves and migrated to Michigan) for President of the United States. It polled quite a large number of votes. In 1848 the Liberty Party was merged into the Free-soil Party (which see), and supported Mr. Van Buren for the Presidency.

Liberty Poles. The Sons of Liberty (which see) erected tall flag-staffs, with the Phrygian "cap of Liberty" on the top, as rallying-places in the open air. They were first erected in cities; afterwards they were set up in the rural districts wherein republicanism prevailed. On the king's birthday, in New York (June 4, 1766), there were great rejoicings on account of the repeal of the Stamp Act (which see). Governor Sir Henry Moore presided at a public dinner at the "King's Arms" (near the foot of Broadway). On the same day the Sons of Liberty feasted at their headquarters at Montagne's (on Broadway, near Murray Street), and, by permission of the governor, erected a mast (which afterwards they called a Liberty Pole) between the site of the City Hall and Broadway, in front of Warren Street, on which were inscribed the words "To his most gracious Majesty George III., Mr. Pitt, and Liberty." British soldiers were then in the city. The doings of the Sons of Liberty so annoyed the officers of the crown that thirty-six days after the liberty pole was erected with so much harmony it was cut down by the insolent troops (Aug. 16, 1766). The people re-erected it the next evening in the face of the armed mercenaries. A little more than a month afterwards the soldiers again prostrated it, and again the people upraised it, and from its top they flung the British banner to the breeze. The next spring the people met at the "mast" to celebrate the anniversary of the repeal (March 18), and inaugurated it by erecting a "Liberty Pole," which the soldiery cut down that night. The people again erected it, bound it with hoops of iron, and placed a guard there; when soldiers came with loaded muskets, fired two random shots into the headquarters of the Sons of Liberty (Montague's), and attempted to drive the people away. Fearful retaliation would have followed but for the repression of aggressive acts by the soldiers, by order of the governor. On the king's birthday, 1767, the soldiers made an unsuccessful attempt to prostrate the liberty pole; but at midnight, June 16, 1770, armed men came from the barracks, hewed it down, sawed it in pieces, and piled it in front of Montagne's. The perpetrators were discovered, the bells of St. George's Chapel in Beekman Street were rung, and early the next morning three thousand people stood around the stump of the pole. There they passed strong resolutions of a determination to maintain their liberties at all hazards. For three days intense excitement continued, and in frequent affrays with the citizens the soldiers were worsted. A severe conflict occurred on Golden Hill (Cliff Street, between Fulton Street and Maiden Lane), when several of the soldiers were disarmed. Quiet was soon restored. The people erected another pole upon ground purchased on Broadway, near Warren Street, and this fifth liberty pole remained untouched as a rallying-place for the Whigs until the British took possession of the city in 1776, when the notorious provost-marshal Cunningham (who, it is said, had been whipped at its foot) had it hewn down.

Library of Congress, DESTRUCTION OF THE. On Dec. 24, 1851, the library of Congress, in the Capitol at Washington, was mostly destroyed by fire, and the whole building was in imminent danger of destruction. About thirty-five thousand volumes were destroyed, the number in the library being about fifty thousand. These included the library of Mr. Jefferson (for which Congress had paid $20,000), purchased after the burning of the Capitol by the British in 1814. Many of these books were saved. Rare and valuable books presented by foreign governments, and a collection of twelve hundred bronze medals presented by M. Vattemare, of France, were lost. The original engrossed copy of the Declaration of Independence, on parchment, with the autographs of the signers attached, was saved, as were also the portraits of some of the presidents, and some rare medals. In the room adjoining the main library were twenty thousand volumes, which were saved.

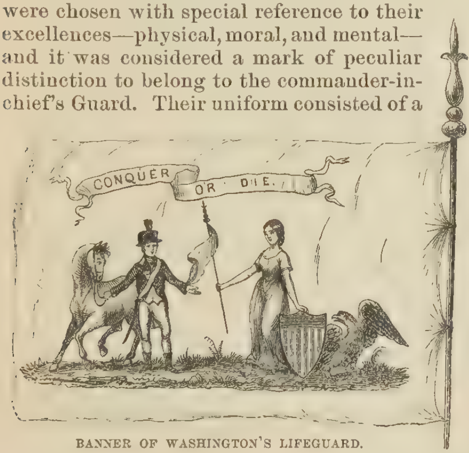
Lieber, Francis, LL.D., publicist, was born in Berlin, March 18, 1800; died in New York city, Oct. 2, 1872. He joined the Prussian army in 1815 as a volunteer, and fought in the battles of Ligny and Waterloo. He was severely wounded in the assault on Namur. He studied at the University of Jena, was persecuted for his republicanism, and in 1821 went to Greece to take part in the struggle of its people for independence. He suffered much there. Retiring to Italy, he passed nearly two years in the family of Niebuhr, then Prussian ambassador at Rome. Returning to Germany in 1824, he was imprisoned, and while confined he wrote a collection of poems, which, on his release, were published at Berlin under the name of Franz Arnold. After spending about two years in England, he came to the United States in 1827, residing in Boston. He edited the *Encyclopædia Americana*, in thirteen volumes, published in Philadelphia between the years 1829 and 1833. He lectured on history and politics in the larger cities of the Union. In New York his facile pen was busy translating from the French and German. In 1832 he translated De Beaumont and De Tocqueville on the penitentiary system in the United States, and soon afterwards, on invitation of the trustees of Girard College, he furnished a plan of instruction for that institution, which was published at Philadelphia in 1834. In 1835 he published *Recollections of Niebuhr* and *Letters to a Gentleman in Germany*, and the same year he was appointed professor of history and political economy in the South Carolina College at Columbia, S. C., where he remained until 1856. He was appointed to the same professorship in Columbia College, New York city, in 1857, and afterwards accepted the chair of political science in the law-school of that institution, which he filled till the time of his death. Dr. Lieber had a very versatile mind, and whatever subject he grasped he handled it skilfully as a trained philosopher. In 1838 he published *A Manual of Political Ethics*, which was adopted as a text-book in the higher seminaries of learning; and he wrote several essays on legal subjects. Special branches of civil polity and civil administration engaged his attention, and on these subjects he wrote earnestly and wisely, especially on penal legislation. He wrote some valuable papers in the *Smithsonian Contributions to Knowledge*, and his addresses (published) on anniversary and other special occasions were numerous. While in the South he had warmly combated the doctrine of state supremacy, and when the Civil War broke out he was one of the most earnest and persistent supporters of the government. In 1863 he was one of the founders of the "Loyal Publication Society." More than one hundred pamphlets were published under his supervision, of which ten were written by himself. He wrote, at the request of the general-in-chief (Halleck), *Guerilla Parties, considered with Reference to the Law and Usages of War*, which was often quoted in Europe during the Franco-German War, and his *Instructions for the Government of the Armies of the United States in the Field* was directed by the President of the United States to be promulgated in a general order (No. 100) of the War Department. Numerous essays on public subjects followed. He was an advocate for free-trade, and wrote vigorously on the subject. In 1865 he was appointed superintendent of a bureau at Washington for the preservation of the records of the Confederate government, and in 1870 he was chosen by the governments of the United States and Mexico as final arbitrator in important cases pending between the two countries. This work was unfinished at his death.—His son, Oscar Montgomery, born in 1830 and died in 1862, was a very skilful geologist. Educated at the best German universities, he took a high position as a writer on geology and kindred subjects, and at the age of twenty was state geologist of Mississippi. In 1854–55 he was engaged in a geological survey of Alabama, and from 1856 to 1860 held the position of mineralogical, geological, and agricultural surveyor of South Carolina. In the Confederate army, he died of wounds received in the battle of Williamsburg (which see).

Lieber on Secession. When, in 1850–51, the politicians of South Carolina were publicly preaching the right and duty of seceding from the Union, the Union men of that state attempted to stem the dangerous torrent. They celebrated the 4th of July, 1851, at Greenville, to which many distinguished men were invited, or to give their views in writing on the great topic of the Union. Among these was the late Francis Lieber, Professor of History and Political Economy in the South Carolina College at Columbia. He sent a short address to his fellow-citizens of the state, which was a powerful plea for the Union, and an unanswerable argument against secession. He warned them that secession would lead to war. He asked, "Will any one who desires secession for the sake of bringing about a Southern Confederacy honestly aver that he would insist upon a provision in the new constitution securing the full right of secession whenever it may be desired by a member of the confederacy?" Ten years later the politicians that formed the government known as the "Confederate States of America" answered the question in the affirmative; and this conceded right of secession had caused the Confederacy to feel the throes of dissolution before it was subdued by the National power.

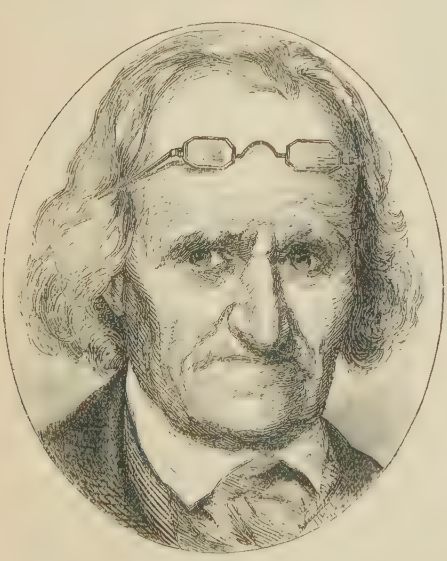
Lieutenant-general. On Feb. 15, 1855, a joint resolution was adopted by Congress authorizing the President of the United States to confer the title of lieutenant-general by brevet in a single instance for eminent services. President Pierce accordingly (as was intended) bestowed the honor upon Major-general Winfield Scott.

Lifeguard, Washington's, was organized in 1776, soon after the siege of Boston, while the American army was encamped in New York, on

Manhattan Island. It consisted of a major's command—180 men. Caleb Gibbs, of Rhode Island, was its first chief officer, and bore the title of captain commandant. He held that office until the close of 1779, when he was succeeded by William Colfax, one of his lieutenants. These were Henry P. Livingston, of New York; William Colfax, of New Jersey; and Benjamin Goymes, of Virginia. Colfax remained in command of the corps until the disbanding of the army in 1783. The members of the Guard were chosen with special reference to their excellences—physical, moral, and mental—and it was considered a mark of peculiar distinction to belong to the commander-in-chief's Guard. Their uniform consisted of a blue coat with white facings, white waistcoat and breeches, black half-gaiters, and a cocked hat with a blue and white feather. They carried muskets, and occasionally side-arms. Their motto was "Conquer or die." Care was taken to have all the states which supplied the Continental army with troops represented in the corps. Its numbers varied. During the last year of the war there were only 65; when, in 1780, the army at Morristown was in close proximity to the enemy, it was increased from the original 180 to 250. The last survivor of Washington's Lifeguard was Sergeant Uzel Knapp, who died in the town of New Windsor, Orange Co., N. Y., Jan. 11, 1857, when he was a little past ninety-seven years of age. He was a native of Stamford, Conn., and served in the Continental army from the beginning of the war until its close, entering the Lifeguard at Morristown, N. J., in 1780. After his death Sergeant Knapp's body lay in state in Washington's headquarters at Newburgh three days, and, in the presence of a vast assemblage of people, he was buried at the foot of the flag-staff near that mansion. Over his grave is a handsome mausoleum of brown free-stone, made from a design by H. K. Brown, the sculptor. Hon. Schuyler Colfax, a grandson of the last commander of the Guard, has in his possession a document containing the autograph signatures of the corps in February, 1783, from which the fac-similes given on pages 792 and 793 were copied.


CONQUER OR DIE.

BANNER OF WASHINGTON'S LIFEGUARD.

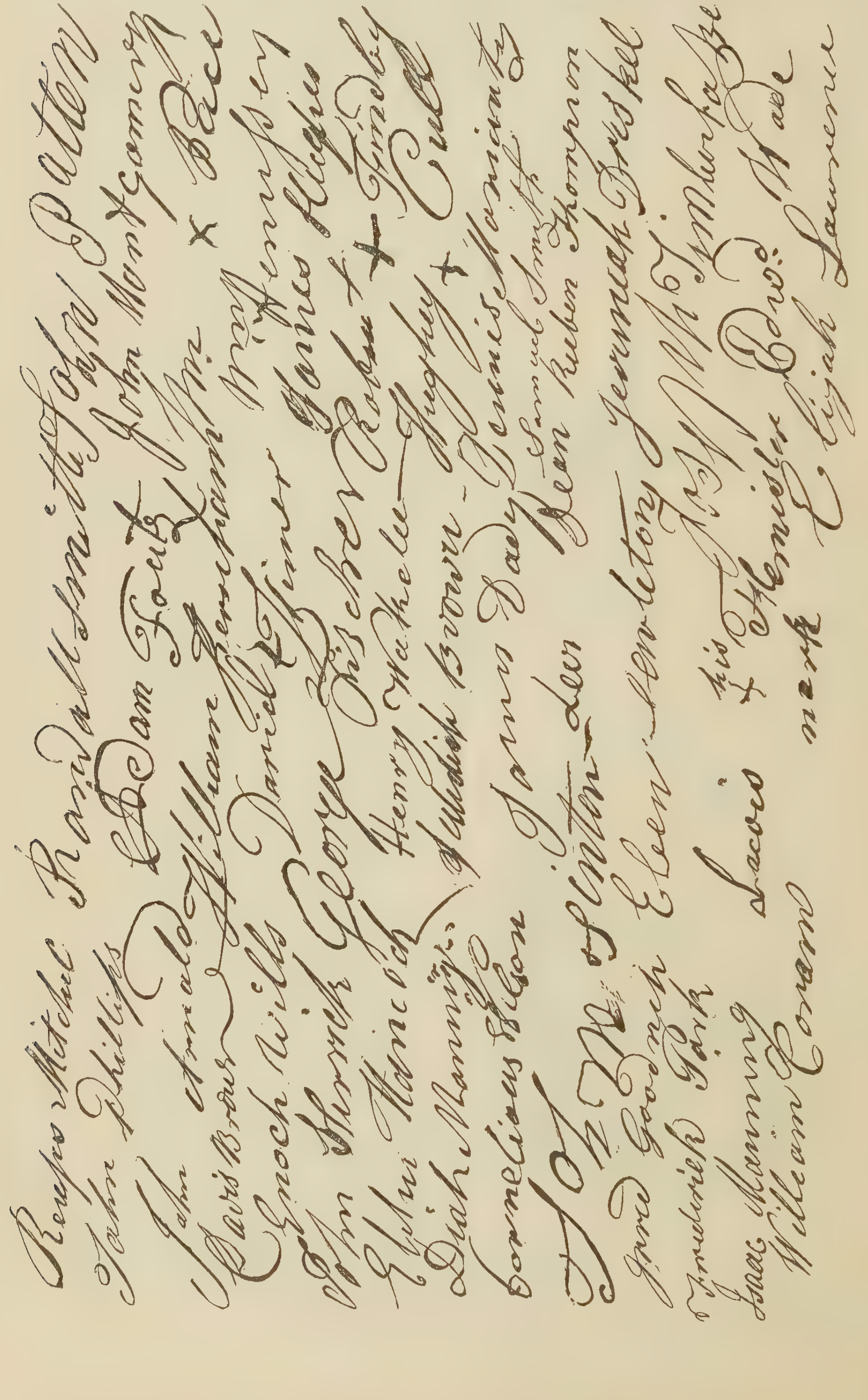


UZEL KNAPP.

Light-houses and Public Piers. Congress, in 1789, assumed for the United States the support of all light-houses, buoys, beacons, and public piers, on condition that within one year the states within which they were respectively situated should vest in the United States not only the property in these structures, with the lands pertaining to them, but exclusive jurisdiction also within their circuit, reserving, however, the right of the state to serve civil and criminal processes therein.

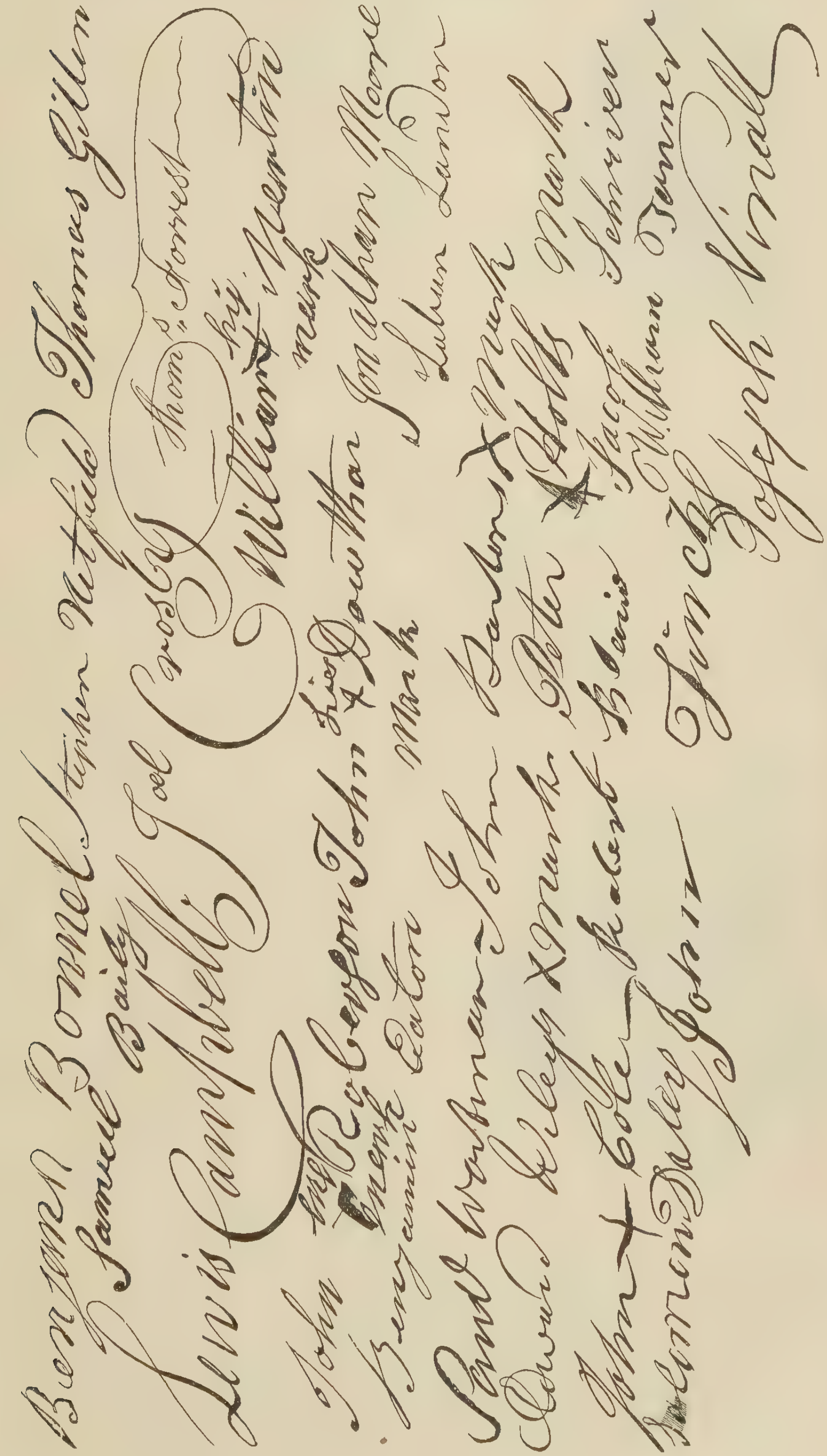
Ligonia, PROVINCE OF. (See *Plough Patent.*) At about the time of the beginning of the Civil War in England, in which Sir Ferdinando Gorges took sides with the king, Alexander Rigby, a republican member of Parliament, purchased the old patent of Ligonia (Maine), and sent out George Cleves to take possession. Cleves had been an agent in that region for Gorges and Sir William Alexander. This claim was resisted by Gorges's agents, and Cleves attempted to gain the assistance of the New England Confederacy by proposing to make Ligonia a member of that alliance. The dispute went on some time, until finally the Parliamentary Commissioners for Plantations confirmed Rigby's title, and the coast of Maine, from the Kennebec to the Saco, was erected into the Province of Ligonia, Maine being then restricted to the tract from the Saco to the Piscataqua. (See *Maine* and *New Hampshire.*)

Lincoln, ABRAHAM, sixteenth President of the United States, was born in Larue County, Ky., Feb. 12, 1809; died April 15, 1865. His ancestors were Quakers in Bucks County, Penn. His parents, born in Virginia, emigrated to Kentucky, and in 1816 went to Indiana. Having had about one year's schooling in the aggregate, he went as a hired hand on a flat-boat to New Orleans when he was nineteen years of age. He made himself so useful to his employer that he gave him charge as clerk of a store and mill at New Salem, Ill. He commanded a company in the Black Hawk War. Appointed postmaster at Salem, he began to study law, was admitted to practice in 1836, and began his career as a lawyer at Springfield. He rose rapidly in his profession, became a leader of the Whig party in Illinois, and was a popular though homely speaker at political meetings. He was elected to Congress in 1847, and was there distinguished for his outspoken anti-slavery views. In 1858 he was a candidate for United States Senator. His opponent, Judge Douglas, won the prize from the Legislature, though Mr. Lincoln re-



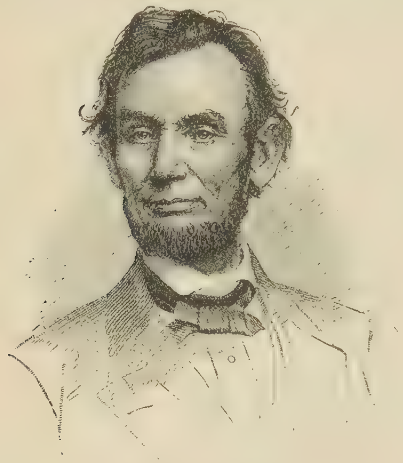
Reuss Mitchel Randall Smith John Patten
John Phillips Adam Foutz John Montgomery
John Arnold William Fersham Jm. × Bace
Davis Brown
Enoch Wills David Elsiner Wm. Hennessey
John Herrick George Fischer James Hughes
Elihu Hancock Henry Wathelee Robert + Findly
Diah Manning Judith Brown Hughey + Cull
Cornelious Wilson James Dady Dennis Moriarty
John McClinton Leer Dean Samuel Smith Reuben Thompson
Jared Goodrich Eben Hewletony Jeremiah Driskel
Frederick Park Jos. McTimberlake
Isaac Manning Lacois his + mark Hemisler Edwd. Wade
William Coram Elijah Lawrence

ceived 4000 more votes of the people than his opponent. In 1860 he was nominated for and elected President of the United States. Ordinances of secession and the beginning of civil war followed. He conducted the affairs of the nation with great wisdom through the four years


Benjamen Bonnel
Thomas Gillen
Samuel Bailey
Lewis Campbell
Joel Crosby
Jonathan Moore
Benjamin Eaton
Samuel Workman
John Cole
Joseph Vinall

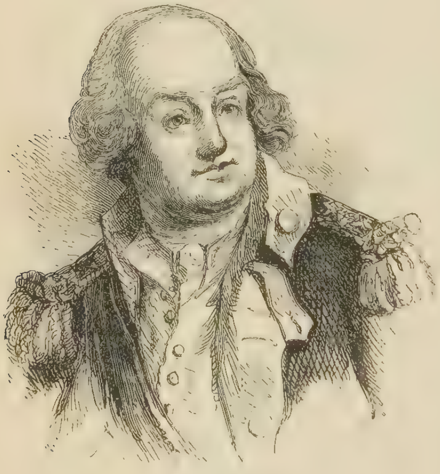
FAC SIMILE SIGNATURES OF WASHINGTON'S LIFEGUARD.

of the Civil War, and just as it closed was assassinated at the national capital.



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Lincoln, BENJAMIN, was born at Hingham, Mass., Jan. 23, 1733; died there, May 9, 1810. His pursuit was that of a farmer. He was a firm and active patriot, and was major-general of militia when the war of the Revolution broke out. In June, 1776, he commanded an expedition that cleared Boston harbor of British vessels; and in February, 1777, was appointed a major-general in the Continental army. His services were varied and important all through the war, and at the surrender at Yorktown he received the sword of the defeated Cornwallis. (See *Cornwallis, Surrender of.*) From that time (October, 1781) until 1784 he was Secretary of War, and received a vote of thanks from Congress on his retirement. In 1787 he commanded the troops which suppressed Shays's Insurrection (which see). In that year he was chosen lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts, and from 1789 to 1808 he was collector of the port of Boston. He was fond of literary and scientific pursuits.



BENJAMIN LINCOLN.

Lincoln in Washington. Just before his inauguration the President-elect arrived at Washington early on the morning of Feb. 23, 1861 (see *Lincoln's Passage through Baltimore*), and rode to Willard's Hotel, where he was received with joy by his friends. At an early hour, accompanied by Mr. Seward, he called on the President. Mr. Buchanan could hardly believe his own eyes. He gave his chosen successor a cordial welcome. The cabinet was in session, and, on invitation, the President-elect was ushered into their chamber and received with demonstrations of real delight. During the remainder of the day he received his friends, informally, at Willard's, and, in the evening, the members of the Peace Convention, in a body, formally waited upon him, after which many loyal women came to bid him welcome. On the 27th the mayor and Common Council of Washington gave him an official welcome; and that evening several senators and Governor Hicks, of Maryland, visited him. Members of the Republican Association at Washington serenaded him the same evening, to whom he made a brief speech—the last one previous to his inauguration.

Lincoln Medal, THE. The assassination of President Lincoln (which see) made a profound impression in Europe as well as in America; and forty thousand French Democrats testified their appreciation of his character and services and their "desire to express their sympathy for the American Union, in the person of one of its most illustrious and purest representatives," by causing a magnificent gold medal to be struck and presented to the President's widow. The medal was presented in the name of that host of Frenchmen by a committee, of which Victor Hugo and other distinguished Frenchmen were members. It is about four inches in diameter. One side bears a profile, in relief, of Mr. Lincoln, surrounded by the words, in French, "DEDICATED BY THE FRENCH DEMOCRACY. A. LINCOLN, TWICE ELECTED PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES." On the reverse is an altar, bearing the following inscription, also in French: "LINCOLN, HONEST MAN. ABOLISHED SLAVERY, REESTABLISHED THE UNION, AND SAVED THE REPUBLIC, WITHOUT VEILING THE STATUE OF LIBERTY. HE WAS ASSASSINATED THE 14TH OF APRIL, 1865." Below all are the words: "LIBERTY, EQUALITY, AND FRATERNITY." On one side of the altar stands winged Victory, with her right hand resting upon a sword and her left holding a civic wreath. On the other side stand two emancipated slaves—the younger, a lad, offering a palm branch, and the elder pointing him to the American eagle, bearing the shield, the olive-branch, and the lightning, with the motto of the Union. The older freedman holds the musket of the militia-man. Near them are the emblems of industry and progress. Over the altar is a triangle, emblematic of trinity—the trinity of man's inalienable rights—liberty, equality, and fraternity. See page 795.